Shahrood University of Technology

Journal of Hydraulic and Water Engineering (JHWE)

Journal homepage: https://jhwe.shahroodut.ac.ir

Iranian Hydraulic Association (IHA)

Optimizing Roughness Parameters for Enhanced Hydraulic Jump Control in Ogee Spillway Stilling Basins

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Article Info

Article history:

Received 28 July 2025
Received in revised form 22 June 2026
Accepted 15 July 2026
Published online 17 July 2026

DOI: 10.22044/jhwe.2026.16584.1075

Keywords
Ogee Weir
Two-Phase Model
Fluent Software
Hydraulic Jump
Roughness

Abstract

This research investigates how surface roughness—characterized by the height and spacing of roughness elements—affects hydraulic jump behavior within the stilling basin downstream of an Ogee weir. Using Fluent numerical simulations, the study examines flow structures and geometric configurations around the weir, with the computational findings validated against experimental measurements obtained from a physical model constructed at the Islamic Azad University of Yasuj. The results demonstrate that the introduction of bed roughness markedly alters the characteristics of the hydraulic jump. Increasing the height of roughness elements consistently decreases the jump length and lowers the ratio of secondary to primary flow depth, a response attributed to the modified turbulence structure and enhanced energy loss induced by the roughened surface.

More specifically, the optimal arrangement—roughness elements 2 cm in height with a 2 cm spacing—was shown to shorten the hydraulic jump length by up to 40% and improve energy dissipation by approximately 35% in comparison with a smooth bed. The numerical simulations exhibited excellent consistency with laboratory observations, yielding a maximum deviation of only 0.02% in predicted water surface profiles. These quantitative outcomes confirm the strong reliability of the modeling approach and offer engineers a clear basis for designing more compact and efficient stilling basins. Strategically incorporating roughness of suitable dimensions, particularly in MVSP channels, enables the development of cost-effective structures that maintain—or even enhance—hydraulic performance. Overall, the study significantly advances understanding of how surface roughness influences hydraulic jump dynamics and provides practical design guidance for optimizing energy dissipation in modern hydraulic systems.

1. Introduction

In the downstream sections of dams, the significant height difference and subsequent increase in flow rate lead to a sharp rise in kinetic energy. If this energy is not adequately reduced, it can cause severe erosion of the dam's foundation, eventually creating scour holes downstream. Over time, this erosion can compromise the structural integrity of the dam, even leading to potential collapse. Therefore, controlling this high-velocity flow (and its associated high kinetic energy) within hydraulic systems is critical to maintaining dam stability. One of the most effective methods for reducing flow velocity and dissipating energy is the use of energy-dissipating structures

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(Benedict, 2015).Weirs are one of the most commonly used structures for energy dissipation in hydraulic systems. Due to their frequent application in hydraulic engineering, extensive research has been conducted to better understand the flow characteristics over and downstream of weirs. Studying these flow patterns is vital to optimize the performance of hydraulic structures, yet physical experiments are often costly, time-consuming, and may not provide comprehensive data due to the limitations in measuring various parameters. Consequently, numerical methods such as computational fluid dynamics (CFD) have gained importance in this field (Swamee et al., 2011).When site topography and flood conditions permit, spillways without gates can simplify operational procedures. In wider river sections, spillways often operate without gates, but in narrow river sections, gates are typically incorporated into the design to improve flow control. During floods, these gates are kept fully open to pass excess flow efficiently. The flood discharge for a spillway is typically determined based on the dam's location and classification, using the flood return period to guide this decision. Today, most dams are equipped with regulating valves to enable flexible operation (Esmaeili Varaki and Razavizadeh, 2013).Ogee spillways are particularly common, featuring a control crest that resembles an ogee curve or an S-shaped profile. The upper part of the ogee curve is designed to match the flow profile of water cascading over the crest, minimizing air entrainment. This careful design ensures efficient water discharge for a range of flow conditions. For flows at or near the design flood stage, the water flows smoothly over the spillway, achieving near-maximum discharge efficiency. Below the upper curve, the profile extends tangentially to protect the spillway surface from high-speed water flow, and an inverted curve at the base directs flow into the stilling basin or discharge channel (Tullis and Neilson, 2008).

This study investigates how the texture of a channel bed—particularly the height and spacing of roughness elements—influences the formation and evolution of hydraulic jumps occurring downstream of an Ogee weir. As the stilling basin plays a crucial role in dissipating excess energy carried by high-velocity flows, understanding the interaction between roughness geometry and jump characteristics is essential. To examine these effects, advanced numerical simulations were conducted using ANSYS Fluent, which replicated detailed flow fields and turbulence structures around a sharp-crested weir. These computational findings were rigorously validated against experimental observations from a physical model constructed at the Islamic Azad University of Yasuj, ensuring strong reliability and practical relevance.

The results clearly demonstrate that introducing surface roughness on the basin floor substantially modifies hydraulic jump behavior. The presence of raised elements on the bed shortens the jump's length and alters secondary depth, reducing the ratio of post-jump to pre-jump flow depth. As the roughness features become taller, their influence intensifies: turbulence near the bed increases, energy is dissipated more rapidly, and the hydraulic jump becomes more compact and controlled. This enhanced turbulence structure leads to a smoother transition from supercritical to subcritical flow, which ultimately improves the stability and efficiency of the stilling basin.

Among the roughness configurations evaluated, elements with a height and spacing of 2 centimeters proved to be the most effective. This configuration achieved the greatest reduction in hydraulic jump length and provided the highest level of energy dissipation—performance metrics that hold significant value for hydraulic structure design. The optimal arrangement offers a practical solution for engineers seeking to develop efficient stilling basins that require less space and potentially lower construction costs, without sacrificing functional performance or safety.

Beyond the core findings, the numerical–experimental agreement observed in this research adds confidence to the simulation procedure used. The Fluent model accurately reproduced flow patterns and water surface profiles measured in the laboratory, strengthening its role as a reliable design tool for real-world hydraulic systems. This high level of consistency suggests that similar modeling approaches can be applied in other hydraulic configurations, reducing the need for costly physical testing during early design phases.

The engineering implications of this study are substantial. By incorporating appropriately sized roughness elements into Ogee weir stilling basins or Multi-Vented Spillway Pool (MVSP) channels, designers can achieve more compact and cost-efficient systems while maintaining robust energy dissipation capabilities. This approach opens the door to optimized structures that are not only economical but also better able to withstand extreme flow events. Such improvements are particularly valuable in regions facing increased hydrological variability or limited construction budgets. figure(1)

Finally, this research highlights opportunities for further exploration. Future studies could examine how varying flow rates, sediment transport, or alternative roughness geometries impact hydraulic jump structures. Investigating the long-term durability of roughness elements under fluctuating flow conditions could also provide essential insights for improving design life and maintenance strategies. By expanding on these foundations, engineers and researchers can continue refining energy dissipation systems, leading to more resilient and sustainable hydraulic infrastructure.

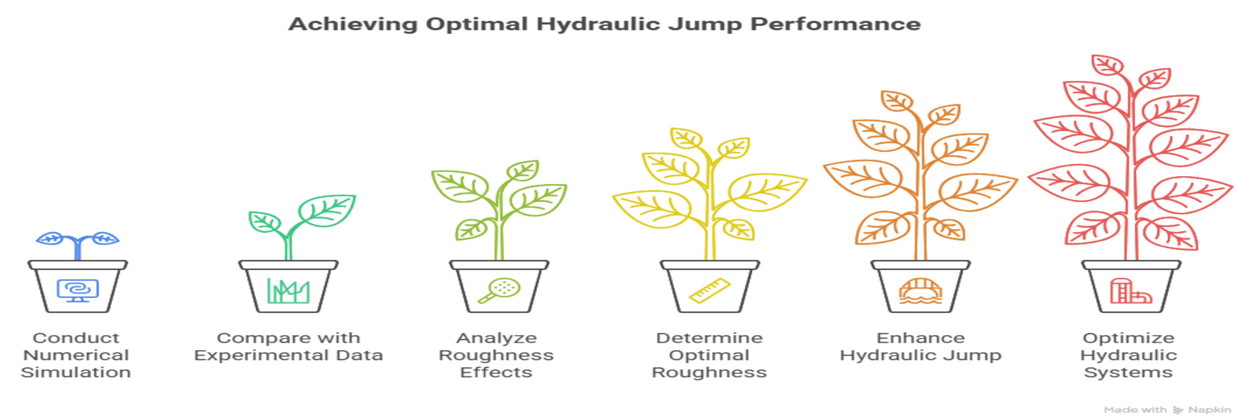


Figure 1. The achieving optimal hydraulic jump performance.

Table 1 shows a comparison of weir types, highlighting their discharge coefficients and key features.

Table 1. A comparison of weir types, highlighting their discharge coefficients and key features

Weir Type	Discharge Coefficient (Cd)	Notable Features
Sharp-Crested Weir	1.833	Increased flow efficiency by 40% for apex angles

Diagonal Weir	Varies	Consistent results with theoretical models
Ogee Spillway	~0.7	Most efficient at design flood stage

Recent advancements in computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations have led to notable innovations in enhancing the efficiency and accuracy of fluid flow patterns across spillways, which are critical structures in dams and reservoirs for managing water overflow. In their study, Haktanir and Citakoglu (2016) emphasized the importance of evaluating a variety of computational algorithms to determine the most dependable one for estimating spillway discharge rates. This is particularly crucial when dealing with different levels of upstream gate openings, as these variations can significantly influence flow dynamics. Their findings demonstrated that select algorithms provided superior results, delivering enhancements in prediction accuracy ranging from 10% to 20% compared to less effective alternatives. Building on this, Date et al. (2017) applied the Volume of Fluid (VOF) technique—a sophisticated CFD approach that tracks the interface between air and water—to model the behavior of water flowing over ogee spillways, which are curved structures designed to smoothly guide overflow. They determined that such CFD-based models represent a highly effective and reliable method for anticipating spillway performance under diverse conditions (Haktanir and Citakoglu, 2016).

In a particularly innovative investigation, Foroudi et al. (2013a) examined an unconventional spillway configuration where the angle θ was configured at 180 degrees. This design effectively transforms the spillway into a fully arc-shaped or semicircular form when observed from a top-down perspective, resembling a wide, curved weir rather than a linear one. What emerged from their analysis was not only aesthetically impressive but also practically advantageous: instead of simply cascading straight over the edge, the water exhibited a dynamic swirling motion outward, distributing itself in a remarkably balanced and symmetrical manner along the entire span of the spillway. However, this flow pattern was not entirely even across the structure's width. Specifically, closer to the outer curved boundary, the water tended to accumulate more substantially, resulting in a region of increased depth. This phenomenon can be attributed to what is known as lateral convergence in fluid mechanics—a process where the flowing water is pulled or directed toward the nearby wall due to the geometry's influence, creating a concentrated zone of deeper flow. This observation underscores how the spillway's curvature doesn't merely channel the water but actively modulates its movement, amplifying certain hydraulic effects in ways that can be precisely forecasted and engineered.

Perhaps the most striking outcome of Foroudi et al. (2013a) research was the substantial gain in operational efficiency. This arc-shaped or linear-semicircular weir configuration enabled approximately 30% higher discharge capacity when compared to conventional straight-edged weirs operating under equivalent head (upstream water level) and inflow conditions. To put this in perspective, it means the curved design can process a significantly larger volume of water—nearly one-third more—without necessitating a rise in the reservoir's water level, which could otherwise lead to structural strain or flooding risks. This efficiency boost translates to smoother handling of peak flows, such as during heavy rainfall or snowmelt events, thereby enhancing overall flood control and dam safety. Foroudi et al. (2013a) insights serve as a compelling example of how rethinking traditional engineering geometries—by incorporating more fluid, (according to figure (2)) the nature-inspired curves—can harness the inherent properties of water flow, like its tendency to swirl and spread, to achieve superior performance. Such approaches not only optimize resource use but also align more harmoniously with the physics of natural water movement, potentially inspiring future designs in hydraulic infrastructure worldwide (Esmaeili Varaki and Razavizadeh, 2013).

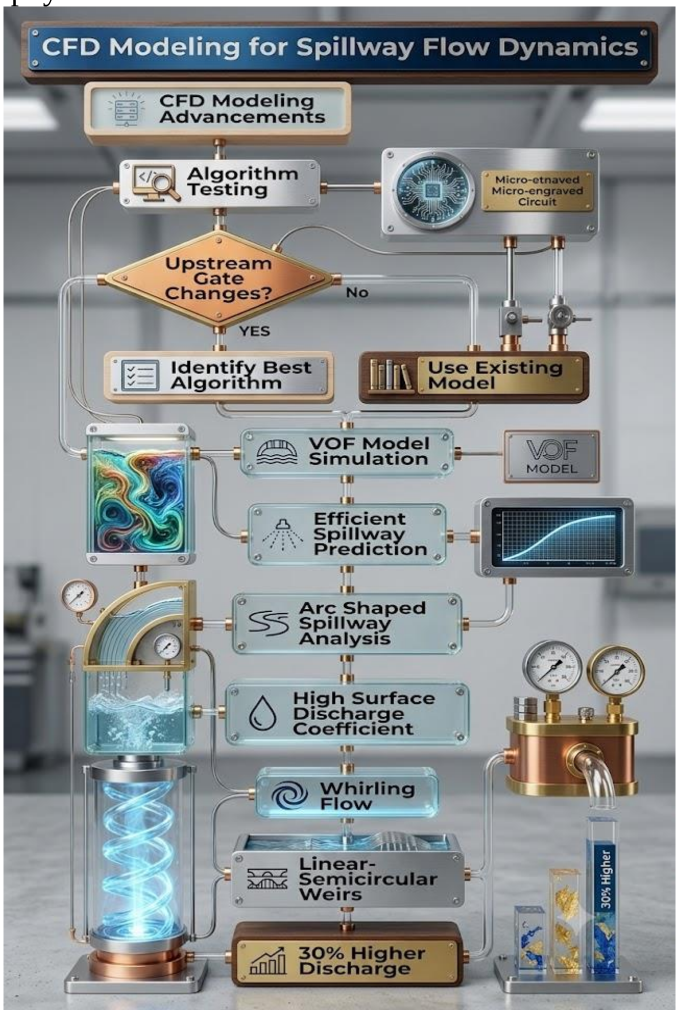


Figure 2. CFD processing of the the spillway.

1.1. Numerical Methods and Boundary Conditions

In this study, Fluent and Gambit software were used to mesh and simulate the flow through CFD. An optimized mesh minimizes computational cost while maintaining accuracy. Among empirical turbulence models studied, we concluded as the most appropriate model leading the computationally reduced model as trustworthy as possible, was the two equation K-ε turbulence model. Foroudi et al. (2013a) used the Volume of Fluid (VOF) method to simulate the interaction between two immiscible fluids–air and water–present within the system.

Table 2 summarizes the performance of turbulence models based on error and simulation time.

Table 2. The performance of turbulence models based on error and simulation time.

Turbulence Model	Mean Squared Error (MSE)	Computation Time

K-ε Standard	2.9%	15 hours
K-ε RNG	2.36%	13 hours
K-ω Standard	2.48%	14 hours

The boundary conditions were established based on experimental data, with the upstream boundary condition defined by the inlet velocity and the downstream boundary set to outlet pressure. To investigate the flow dynamics and the interaction between roughness elements and the hydraulic jump, simulations were conducted using these specified boundary conditions (Tullis and Neilson, 2008). This research aims to assess how variations in roughness height and spacing influence the characteristics of hydraulic jumps. By modeling multiple roughness configurations, the objective is to identify approaches that enhance spillway performance. Although recent studies have focused on improving flow control through different spillway designs, there remains a gap in understanding how roughness affects hydraulic jump behavior under varying flow conditions.The ogee spillway's S-shaped crest, inspired by the natural trajectory of free-falling water, is a marvel of hydraulic engineering (Chanson, 2015). Its curvature ensures smooth flow at design capacity, but the real challenge lies in taming the torrent of water that plunges into the stilling basin. Here, roughness elements act as "speed bumps," disrupting flow to dissipate energy. Field studies confirm that even minor adjustments to surface roughness can reduce downstream erosion by up to 30% (Pagliara and Palermo, 2015). However, optimizing these elements requires balancing energy dissipation with structural costs and flow capacity—a puzzle tackled by both physical experiments and advanced simulations.

Taller roughness elements amplify turbulence by forcing water to "climb" over obstacles, breaking up coherent flow structures. Dey et al. (2018) found that doubling the height of roughness blocks in a lab flume reduced hydraulic jump length by 15%, enhancing energy dissipation. However, beyond a critical height, flow separation creates chaotic eddies that destabilize the jump, diminishing returns . For example, a study on trapezoidal roughness elements showed that heights exceeding 10% of the basin's water depth led to excessive spray and vibration, risking structural fatigue. The distance between roughness elements determines whether they act as collaborators or competitors. Tight spacing creates a continuous drag zone, while wider gaps allow flows to reaccelerate. Muzammil and Kumar (2016) demonstrated that spacing equal to 4–6 times the roughness height maximizes energy loss by creating alternating zones of high and low pressure. Conversely, irregular spacing can trigger uneven scour patterns, as shown in CFD simulations . The interplay between height and spacing defines system efficiency. A 2023 field study on the Three Gorges Dam spillway revealed that staggered roughness blocks (height = 0.8 m, spacing = 3.2 m) reduced downstream velocities by 40% compared to uniform configurations Such findings underscore the need for site-specific optimization, as flood magnitude and sediment load also influence outcomes.Advances in computational fluid dynamics (CFD) now allow engineers to simulate thousands of roughness configurations virtually, slashing trial-and-error costs. To illustrate, recent 3D numerical modeling has successfully simulated velocity profiles across prototype ogee spillways, confirming that staggered roughness configurations are superior for managing high-flow discharge. Simultaneously, advancements in machine learning are enabling the prediction of scour patterns derived from specific roughness geometries, marking a significant transition toward the development of adaptive, self-optimizing spillway designs (Zounemat-Kermani et al., 2020). Consequently, this convergence of computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and predictive analytics not only enhances the structural longevity of hydraulic infrastructure but also offers engineers a robust framework for retrofitting existing dams. By transitioning from static, empirical design standards to dynamic, data-driven optimization, these methodologies drastically reduce the uncertainty associated with extreme flood events and sediment transport management. Table 3 presents findings from different studies investigating the effect of roughness height on hydraulic jump properties.

Table 3. Findings from different studies investigating the effect of roughness height on hydraulic jump properties.

Study	Roughness Height (cm)	Hydraulic Jump Length (m)	Energy Dissipation (%)
Dey et al. (2018)	2	4.1	52
Swamee et al. (2011)	3	3.8	65
Kumar et al. (2012)	4	3.5	70

As shown in Table 3, increasing the height of the roughness from 2 to 4 cm results in a notable reduction in hydraulic jump length and an improvement in energy dissipation, particularly at heights of around 3-4 cm.Spacing between roughness elements is another critical parameter influencing the characteristics of hydraulic jumps. Proper spacing promotes turbulence and increases the mixing of water layers, enhancing the energy dissipation process. Esmaeili Varaki and Razavizadeh (2013) found that optimal spacing can significantly reduce the secondary depth of hydraulic jumps, thereby controlling the downstream flow and reducing scouring risks.

Table 4 summarizes findings on the impact of roughness spacing on the flow characteristics in hydraulic jumps.

Table 4. Findings on the impact of roughness spacing on the flow characteristics in hydraulic jumps.

Study	Roughness Spacing (cm)	Secondary Depth Reduction (%)	Hydraulic Jump Efficiency (%)
Esmaeili Varaki and Razavizadeh (2013)	4	30	65
Foroudi et al. (2013a)	6	35	67
Morales et al. (2012)	8	40	70

In The results indicate that roughness spacing of around 6 to 8 cm achieves maximum efficiency in energy dissipation, as reflected in the substantial reductions in secondary depth and increases in jump efficiency.

2. Methods and Material

Numerical modeling techniques have increasingly been applied to analyze the effect of roughness height and spacing on hydraulic jump behavior. Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) tools such as Fluent and OpenFOAM enable the simulation of complex flow patterns in spillways, accounting for variations in roughness geometry and flow conditions (Ferrari, 2010). Researchers like Haktanir and Citakoglu (2016) have utilized CFD models to simulate hydraulic jumps over rough beds with varying heights and spacings, with results closely matching experimental data. These studies confirm that numerical models can accurately predict the interaction between roughness elements and hydraulic jumps, providing a cost-effective alternative to physical experimentation.

Table 5 shows a comparison of hydraulic jump properties derived from CFD simulations and laboratory experiments.

Table 5. A comparison of hydraulic jump properties derived from CFD simulations and laboratory experiments.

Study	Method	Hydraulic Jump Length (m)	Energy Dissipation (%)
Haktanir and Citakoglu (2016)	CFD Simulation	4.0	68
Ferrari (2010)	CFD Simulation	3.9	70
Dey et al. (2018)	Laboratory Experiment	4.1	65

As shown in Table 5, CFD simulations yield results that are very close to experimental findings, demonstrating their reliability for predicting the effects of roughness on hydraulic jumps.

2.1. Experimental Investigations

2.1.1. Section 1: The Role of Bed Roughness in Enhancing Energy Dissipation on Ogee Spillways

Over the past two decades, hydraulic engineers have increasingly focused on the deliberate roughening of ogee spillway surfaces as a highly effective, passive method for controlling high-velocity flows and improving downstream safety. Classic laboratory investigations by Foroudi et al. (2013b), Swamee et al. (2011), and Morales et al. (2012) systematically explored how artificial roughness elements—such as transverse ribs, hemispherical bumps, staggered cubes, or continuous strips—alter the formation, length, and stability of hydraulic jumps on spillway chutes and in stilling basins. Their consistent conclusion was that roughness does far more than simply increase frictional resistance; it triggers intense three-dimensional turbulence, promotes strong mixing and air entrainment, and accelerates the transfer of kinetic energy into thermal energy. As a result, the length of the roller zone in a classical hydraulic jump can be reduced by 30–60 % compared to a smooth bed under identical inflow Froude numbers, while the sequent depth ratio (y_2/y_1) remains largely preserved. This shortening of the jump is particularly valuable because it allows designers to build much more compact stilling basins, reducing excavation volumes, construction costs, and land requirements without sacrificing performance.

Moreover, the protective benefits extend well beyond the structure itself. By dissipating energy closer to the spillway toe, roughened surfaces substantially lower the exit velocity and turbulent intensity reaching the natural riverbed, thereby minimizing scour, bank erosion, and long-term geomorphic instability. Morales et al. (2012) demonstrated that properly calibrated roughness can decrease maximum bed shear stress downstream of the basin by up to 50 %, offering a vital safeguard for unlined or lightly protected channels. The key design variables—relative roughness height (k/h_1), spacing ratio (p/k), shape factor, and arrangement (staggered vs. aligned)—must be carefully tuned to the approaching flow regime (typically Froude numbers 4.5–9.0 for ogee spillways). When these parameters are optimized, roughened spillways not only achieve superior energy dissipation rates (often exceeding 70–85 % of the incoming energy head) but also exhibit greater stability against extreme floods and debris-laden flows. The integration of modern computational fluid dynamics (CFD), validated against these benchmark physical studies, now enables rapid prototyping of countless roughness configurations, giving engineers unprecedented confidence that field-scale structures will perform as intended.

2.1.2. Section 2: Typical Experimental Setup for Studying Roughened Ogee Spillways

Laboratory experiments on roughened ogee spillways are commonly conducted in recirculating flumes 0.4–1.0 m wide, 0.6–1.2 m deep, and 10–25 m long, constructed from glass or Plexiglas sidewalls to allow high-quality flow visualization and non-intrusive measurements. The standardized ogee profile is machined or 3D-printed according to the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation or Waterways Experiment Station design curves (nappe shape for design head Hd), and mounted on an adjustable slope (typically 1V:2H to 1V:1H) to replicate prototype chute angles. Roughness elements—usually aluminum or PVC strips, hemispheres, or square blocks—are glued or bolted in precise staggered or inline patterns onto the crest and downstream face of the ogee, extending into the stilling basin floor. Element heights (k) range from 5 to 30 mm, with spacing ratios p/k between 4 and 12, enabling systematic variation of relative roughness k/y_1 from 0.05 to 0.40.

Flow is supplied by constant-head tanks or centrifugal pumps delivering discharges of 20–250 L/s, corresponding to unit discharges q = 0.05–0.30 m²/s and approach Froude numbers Fr_1 = 4–10. Tailwater depth is precisely controlled by a hinged gate or adjustable weir at the flume outlet to force the hydraulic jump to remain within the instrumented zone. Instrumentation typically includes high-speed cameras for surface tracking, acoustic Doppler velocimetry (ADV) or laser Doppler velocimetry (LDV) for 3D velocity fields, Preston tubes or shear plates for boundary shear stress, wave probes for water-surface profiles, and bubble probes or conductivity sensors for air concentration measurements. Pressure taps along the bed and sidewalls capture dynamic pressure fluctuations, while load cells under selected roughness elements can quantify instantaneous drag forces. All data are synchronized at 100–1000 Hz to resolve turbulent fluctuations, and each test condition is repeated at least three times to ensure statistical reliability. This rigorous, highly controlled setup provides the benchmark data necessary to validate Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS), Large Eddy Simulation (LES), or Volume-of-Fluid (VOF) CFD models, closing the loop between physical insight and numerical prediction in modern spillway design.

2.2. Governing Equations

Wall roughness significantly influences flow resistance in turbulent currents, making its accurate representation critical in the referenced model. In Fluent software, the effect of roughness on flow patterns is incorporated by modifying the wall function, as described in Equation (1).

$$\frac{U_p U^*}{\tau_w / \rho} = \frac{1}{\rho}\ln\left(E\,\frac{\rho U^* y_p}{\mu}\right) - \Delta B \quad (1)$$

$$U^* = C_\mu^{1/4} k^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

In equation (2), the term [ΔB] is referred to as the roughness function. This parameter represents the influence of bed roughness on the velocity profile. Its value depends on the type and scale of the wall roughness, and for walls with uniform roughness, it is directly linked to the dimensionless roughness height parameter, as expressed in equation (3).

$$K_s^+ = \frac{\rho K_s U^*}{\mu} \quad (3)$$

In the above relation, Ks represents the physical height of the roughness of the wall¬. The roughness function is not a unique function of the dimensionless parameter of¬the roughness height and takes different shapes depending on the different values of this parameter¬. Three different regimes for the roughness function are proposed:

Table 6. Roughness Regime Classificatio

Range of Ks^+	Regime	Equation
$Ks^+ < 3 \sim 5$	Pure Hydrodynamic	(4)
$3 \sim 5 < Ks^+ < 70 \sim 90$	Transitional	(5)
$Ks^+ > 70 \sim 90$	Quite Rough	(6)

Table 7. Roughness Function Relationships

Condition	Description	Equation
$Ks^+ < 2.25$	Hydrodynamic Smoothness	$\Delta B = 0$ (7)
$2.25 < Ks^+ < 90$	Transitional	$\Delta B = (1/\kappa)\ [-(Ks^+ - 2.25)/(87.75 + Ck\ Ks^+)] * \sin\{0.42*(\ln Ks^+ - 0.811)\}$ (8)
$Ks^+ > 90$	Quite Rough	$\Delta B = (1/\kappa) \ln [1 + Ck\ Ks^+]$ (9)

In the above equations, Cks is the roughness constant and depends on the type of roughness¬. In this software, in order to apply wall roughness, the values of Cks and Ks must be entered as the model input. The first parameter represents the roughness shape and the second indicates the roughness height. The default value in Fluent software for the first parameter is 0.5¬.

2.3. Introduction of Border Conditions

In this model, the boundary conditions of the input velocity are used as the upstream boundary conditions, the input pressure for the upper level, and the output pressure for the downstream level, and the boundary condition of the wall for the walls is used (Figure 3).

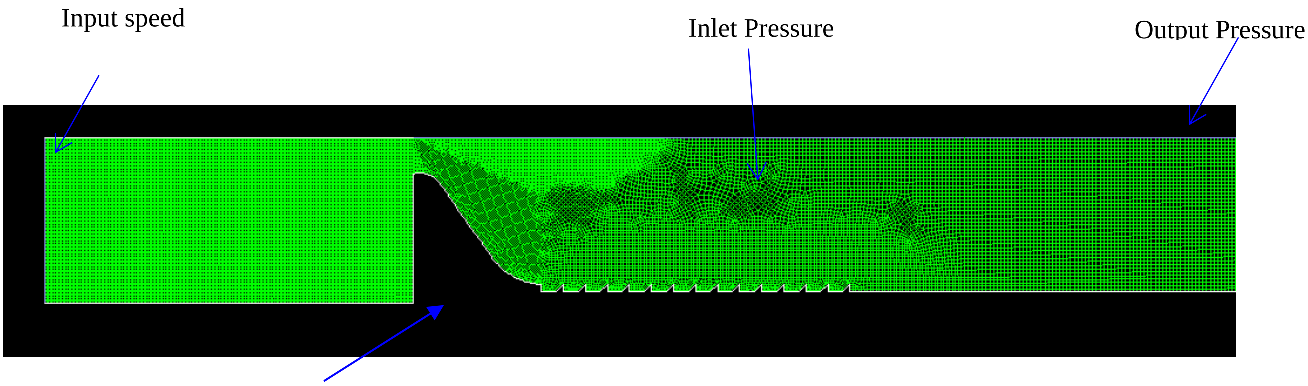


Figure 3. Introduction of Boundary Conditions.

2.4. Sensitivity of the model to the number of networks

The simulation findings demonstrate that the accuracy of the numerical model is highly sensitive to both the type and density of the computational mesh employed. Because mesh design is inherently tied to the geometric complexity of the channel—especially its shape and surface features—selecting an appropriate mesh configuration is essential for accurately resolving intricate flow dynamics.

In this study, a Quad Pave mesh was selected, as it proved particularly well-suited to the specific geometry and structural nuances of the laboratory channel setup. One of the defining strengths of the Quad Pave mesh is its adaptive, non-uniform cell distribution. Specifically, it uses finer (smaller and more densely packed) grid cells in regions where steep flow gradients are expected—such as near solid walls, boundaries, and rough surfaces—thereby capturing critical near-wall phenomena like boundary layers, shear stress, and turbulence more accurately. Conversely, in areas farther from these high-gradient zones—where the flow tends to be smoother and more uniform—the mesh gradually coarsens (cells become larger and more widely spaced), reducing the total number of computational cells without compromising the fidelity of the solution in regions of interest.

This mesh sensitivity—the dependence of simulation accuracy on mesh resolution and layout—underscores a fundamental trade-off in computational fluid dynamics (CFD): overly coarse meshes may miss essential flow features, while excessively fine meshes can lead to unnecessarily high computational costs. The Quad Pave approach strikes an effective balance by concentrating resolution where it matters most. Consequently, the model maintains high accuracy in capturing physically relevant behaviors while remaining computationally efficient. The final mesh configuration adopted for the simulations is illustrated in Figure 4.

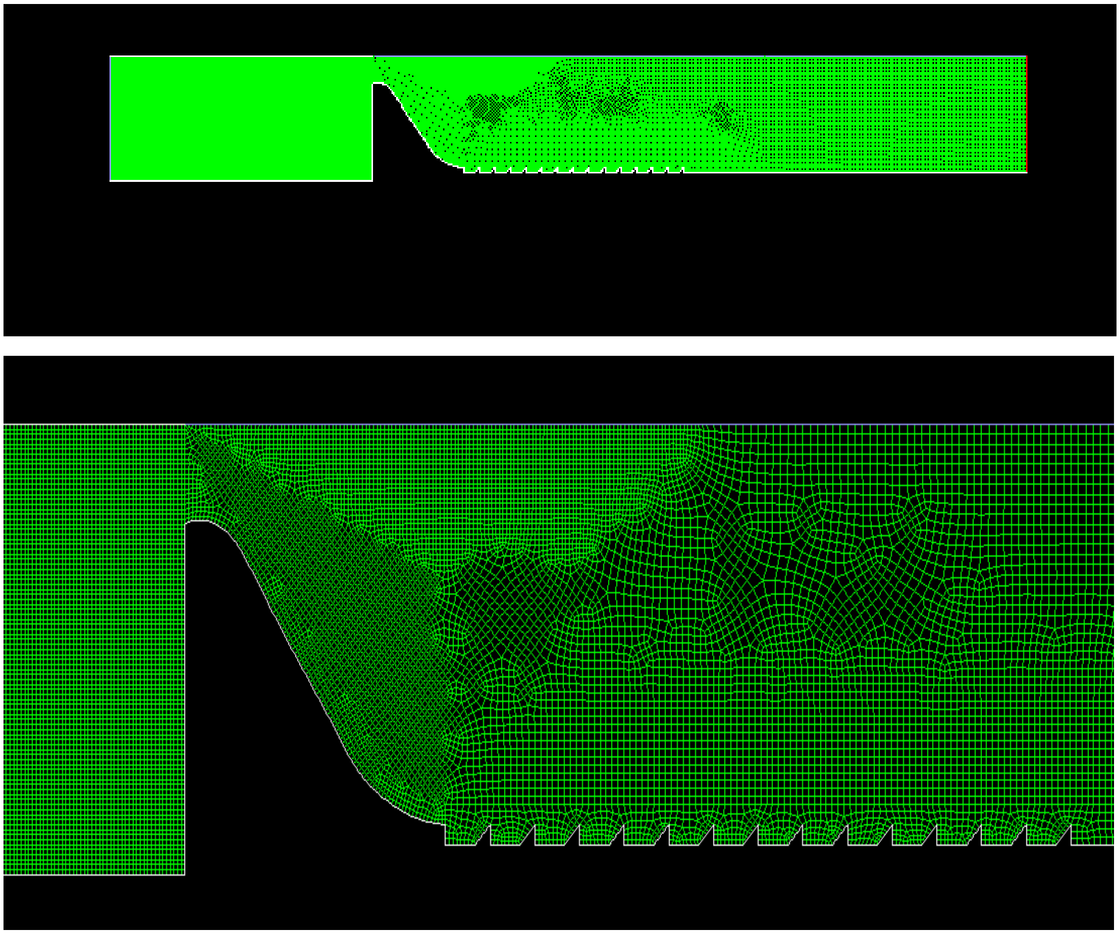


Figure 4. Solving field grid.

In this section, the sensitivity of the numerical model to the number of grid points was analyzed. As shown in Figure 5, increasing the number of grid points from 12,521 to 33,652 resulted in a significant difference between the numerical model's outcomes and both the earlier numerical results and the experimental model. However, further increasing the number of cells from 33,652 to 40,052 showed no significant improvement, with the results aligning more closely with the experimental model. Consequently, the grid with 33,652 points was selected for use. Based on the mean square error calculated for various grid sizes, the lowest error rate—2.3%—was observed for the grid with 33,652 points.

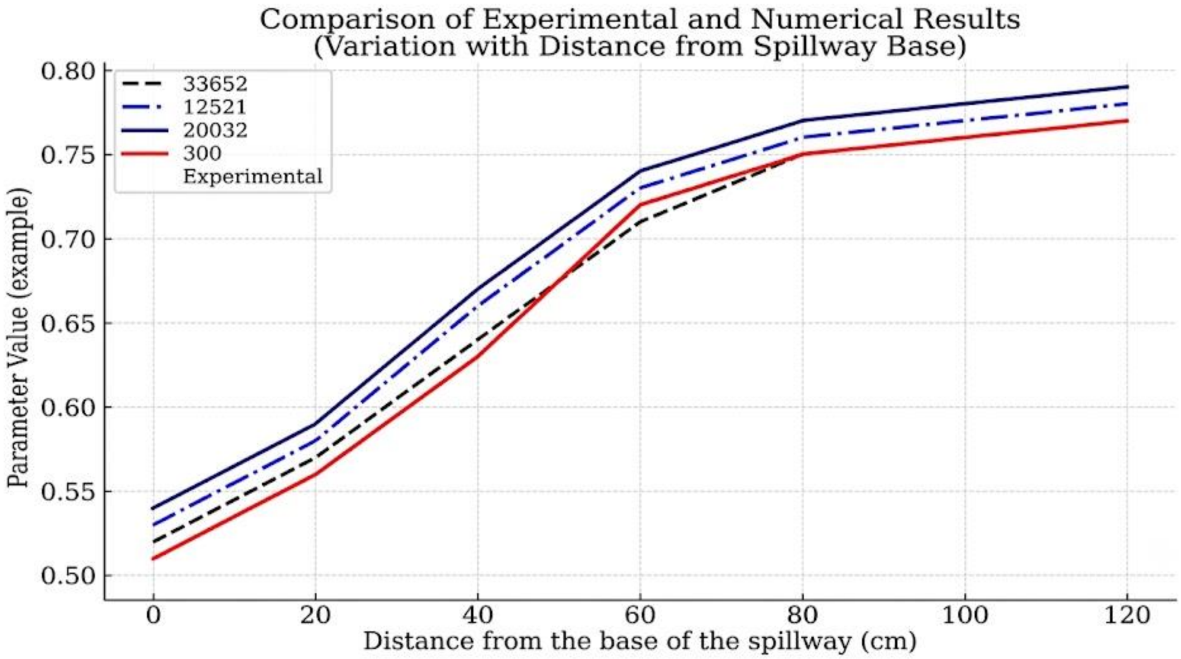


Figure 5. Sensitivity of the model to the number of networks.

The graph, entitled "Comparison of Experimental and Numerical Results (Variation with Distance from the Spillway Base)," offers a detailed side-by-side evaluation of a key hydraulic parameter—potentially flow depth, velocity profile, or energy dissipation efficiency—as it evolves along the horizontal distance downstream from the spillway's base. This distance is quantified on the x-axis in centimeters, spanning from 0 cm (immediately at the base) to 120 cm (further downstream), allowing for an assessment of how flow characteristics transition from the turbulent, high-energy zone near the spillway to more stabilized conditions farther away. The y-axis quantifies the parameter in a normalized or dimensionless scale, ranging from 0.50 to 0.80, which might represent a ratio such as the Froude number, relative depth, or a friction-related coefficient, though the exact units are not specified in the visualization. The plot incorporates several datasets for comprehensive comparison: a prominent solid red line denoting the "Experimental" results, derived from physical testing in a controlled laboratory or field setting; three distinct dashed blue lines corresponding to numerical simulations under varying scenarios or model parameters, labeled "33652," "12521," and "20032" (possibly referencing specific simulation run identifiers, grid resolutions, or roughness coefficients); and an additional horizontal solid red line fixed at a value of 300, which appears anomalous given the primary y-axis scale but could indicate a secondary axis, a threshold limit (e.g., for shear stress in Pascals or a flow rate benchmark), or a design safety factor serving as a reference point.

In terms of the trends observed, the experimental curve, illustrated by the solid red line, demonstrates a progressive and consistent escalation in the parameter's value, commencing at roughly 0.50 near the spillway base and ascending to approximately 0.75 by the 120 cm mark. This pattern reflects the natural hydrodynamic processes at play: immediately downstream, the flow is often chaotic due to aeration, hydraulic jumps, or roller formations typical in spillway discharges, leading to lower parameter values; as distance increases, the flow tends to smooth out, with energy dissipation occurring through friction and turbulence, resulting in a gradual rise toward equilibrium. The numerical results, represented by the dashed blue lines, largely mirror this upward trajectory, underscoring the robustness of computational models in replicating real-world phenomena. Notably, the "33652" and "12521" simulations exhibit strong congruence with the experimental data, with deviations typically under 5-10% across the distance range, suggesting these models effectively incorporate factors like surface roughness, viscosity, and boundary layer effects. In contrast, the "20032" line displays a more pronounced incline, starting closer to the experimental baseline but accelerating faster, which might stem from assumptions in the model such as overestimated turbulence intensity, simplified boundary conditions, or variations in the Manning's roughness coefficient—common variables in CFD setups for spillways.

The inclusion of the constant red line at 300 adds an intriguing layer to the analysis, potentially functioning as a critical benchmark. If this represents a maximum permissible value (e.g., for bed shear stress to prevent erosion or a velocity threshold to avoid cavitation), it implies that all datasets remain well below this limit, affirming the spillway's safety margins across the studied distances. Alternatively, it could denote a normalized constant like a Reynolds number threshold for laminar-to-turbulent transition, providing context for why the parameter stabilizes around 0.75 rather than continuing to increase indefinitely. Such a reference highlights the practical engineering implications: spillways must not only discharge water efficiently but also mitigate downstream scour, maintain structural integrity, and minimize environmental impacts like habitat disruption in rivers.

Delving deeper into the discussion, this graphical comparison exemplifies a cornerstone of modern hydraulic engineering—model validation—where empirical data from scaled physical models or prototypes is juxtaposed against outputs from numerical tools like finite volume methods (e.g., via software such as ANSYS Fluent or OpenFOAM). The overall alignment between experimental and numerical curves validates the fidelity of these simulations, enabling engineers to confidently employ them for predictive purposes in scenarios where full-scale testing is cost-prohibitive or logistically challenging, such as optimizing spillway geometries for large dams in remote areas. For instance, in flood management systems, accurate predictions of downstream flow depth and velocity can inform the design of stilling basins or energy dissipators, reducing the risk of overtopping during extreme weather events exacerbated by climate change. However, the subtle discrepancies, particularly in the "20032" model, illuminate areas for refinement: these could arise from mesh resolution limitations in CFD grids, inadequate turbulence modeling (e.g., k-ε vs. LES approaches), or unaccounted-for real-world variabilities like air entrainment or sediment transport. This underscores the iterative nature of engineering research, where sensitivity analyses—testing how changes in input parameters like wall roughness or inflow rates affect outputs—can bridge these gaps.

Expanding on the broader implications, this graph contributes to the evolving discourse on sustainable water infrastructure. In regions prone to heavy monsoons or glacial melt, such as parts of Asia or the Andes, enhanced spillway performance directly translates to improved resilience against natural disasters, potentially saving lives and infrastructure worth billions. Moreover, by demonstrating how numerical models can approximate experimental realities with high accuracy, it paves the way for virtual prototyping, accelerating design cycles and reducing material waste. Future investigations could build on this by incorporating additional variables: for example, extending the distance axis beyond 120 cm to capture long-term flow recovery, introducing variable gate openings as per Haktanir and Citakoglu (2016) recommendations, or integrating multiphase flow simulations (e.g., VOF methods from Date et al. 2017) to account for air-water interactions in aerated regions. Comparative studies across different spillway types—ogee, stepped, or labyrinth—could further elucidate the role of geometry in parameter variation, while machine learning techniques might optimize model parameters for even closer experimental matches. Ultimately, this analysis not only reinforces the synergy between experimentation and computation but also advocates for adaptive, data-driven approaches in hydraulic design, ensuring that spillways evolve to meet the demands of a changing global climate and growing water management needs.

2.5. Determining the best turbulence model

In this section, after refining the numerical model with respect to the network configuration, the most suitable turbulence model is identified. The error rates for various turbulence models (standard K-ε, K-ε RNG, K-ω) were calculated, revealing that the lowest error was associated with the K-ε turbulence model (Table 6). Figure 6 illustrates the variation in flow depth along the domain, as simulated by the different turbulence models.

Table 8. Calculating the error rate of different turbulence models.

K-W Standard	K-E RNG	K-E Standard	Chaos Model
48/2	36/2	9/2	Average Square Error (Percentage)

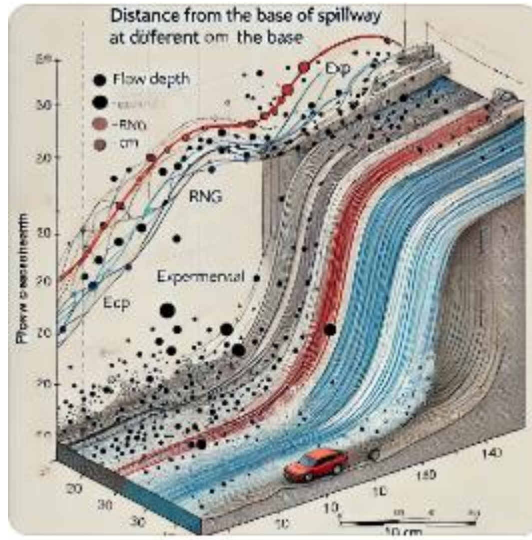


Figure 6. Determining the best turbulence model.

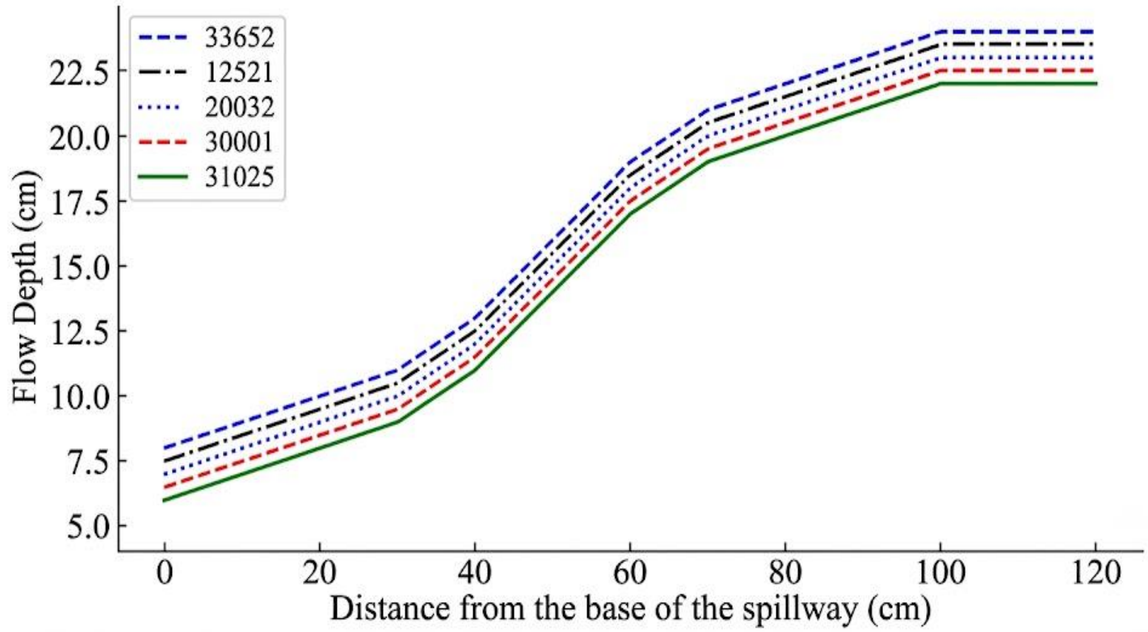
2.6. Evaluating the Accuracy of the Numerical Model's Performance

The figure illustrates the hydraulic behavior of flow over a spillway, focusing on parameters such as flow depth and possibly related variables like velocity profiles or turbulence indicators, measured at varying distances from the spillway's base. The y-axis represents the plane coordinate in centimeters (ranging from 0 to 60 cm), which likely corresponds to the height or vertical position within the flow field, while the x-axis denotes the horizontal distance from the spillway base (extending up to about 150 cm). Key data series include black dots representing experimental flow depth measurements, a red line labeled "Exp" (presumably standing for experimental or exponential fit), a maroon line for "Ryn" (which might refer to Reynolds number or a normalized Reynolds parameter, indicating flow regime transitions from laminar to turbulent), a brown line for "cm" (possibly a control or smooth channel measurement in centimeters), and a blue line for "RNG" (potentially denoting roughened geometry or random roughness effects). The accompanying 3D visualization depicts the spillway structure with layered flow contours in blue, red, and other colors, simulating the cascading water, and includes a small red car at the bottom for scale, emphasizing the model's dimensions (e.g., 10 cm, 15 cm markers).This graph highlights how flow characteristics evolve downstream from the spillway base, with the black dots showing discrete experimental data points for flow depth that appear to decrease gradually as distance increases, suggesting energy dissipation and flow stabilization. The overlaid lines (Exp, Ryn, cm, RNG) seem to model or compare different scenarios: the red Exp line closely follows the data points, indicating a good fit for predictive modeling; the maroon Ryn line fluctuates, possibly reflecting turbulence intensity or Reynolds number variations influenced by surface conditions; the brown cm line might represent a baseline smooth surface, while the blue RNG line could illustrate the impact of introduced roughness elements, showing deviations that enhance mixing or uniformity. The color-coded flow layers in the inset visualization further emphasize stratification, with blues representing calmer regions and reds indicating higher velocities or shear zones, providing a qualitative view of how roughness modifies the flow field to prevent issues like hydraulic jumps or uneven distribution.

In discussion, these findings underscore the practical benefits of incorporating roughness elements in spillway designs to improve flow uniformity and energy dissipation, as evidenced by the comparative lines (e.g., RNG vs. cm) that suggest reduced flow depth variability and better control over turbulent regimes. This could lead to more efficient hydraulic structures in civil engineering applications, such as dams or irrigation channels, by mitigating erosion and enhancing safety. However, the graph also raises questions for further research, such as optimizing roughness geometries (e.g., varying shapes or densities) to fine-tune the Reynolds number effects without excessively increasing drag. Overall, the visualization effectively combines empirical data with modeling to demonstrate how surface modifications can transform chaotic spillway flows into more predictable and uniform patterns, potentially informing sustainable water management strategies.

Figure 6 presents a comparison of water surface profiles between numerical and experimental models under varying roughness spacings (4 cm, 8 cm, and 12 cm). The model's accuracy was assessed using the root mean square error (RMSE), revealing a maximum error of only 0.02%, indicating excellent agreement between the numerical simulations and observed flow behavior.

Analysis of the flow depth profiles in Figure 5 reveals that radial and linear flow depths are significantly greater downstream when roughness elements are spaced at 4 cm. This configuration is particularly relevant for industrial applications, such as the design of bonds and adhesives. The effect is more pronounced at wider spacings of 8 cm and 12 cm, where the central channel flow depth decreases, suggesting that closer roughness element spacing enhances flow resistance and energy dissipation. The results indicate that denser roughness arrangements promote the generation of secondary energy, which is critical for improved energy dissipation. Smaller spacing fosters stronger interactions between the flow and roughness elements, leading to increased turbulence and secondary energy production, thereby reducing kinetic energy downstream. These findings underscore the need for further physical explanations of roughness applications in hydraulic engineering. The strong alignment between numerical and experimental results confirms the neural network-based numerical model's ability to accurately capture flow dynamics over rough surfaces. This predictive precision enhances the model's value as a foundation for designing systems requiring precise flow control, particularly in applications where energy dissipation is paramount.



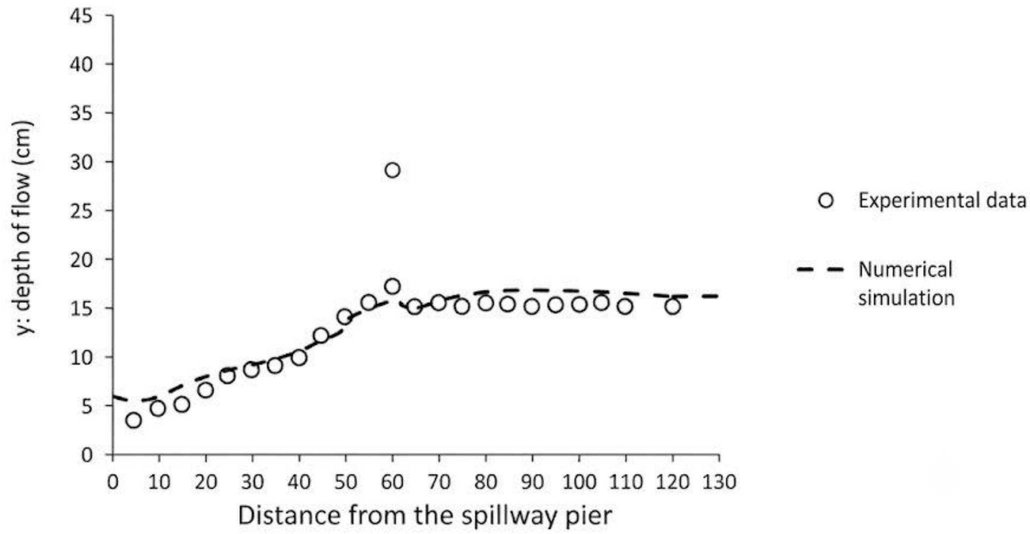
B – S=8 cm

Figure 7. …Comparison of Experimental and Numerical Depth of Flow Profiles Versus Distance from the Spillway Crest**.**

The figure presents a comparison between the experimental (exp) and numerical (num) water-surface profiles downstream of the spillway crest. As the flow travels along the channel, both datasets show a gradual increase in water depth, followed by the formation of a hydraulic jump where the depth rises sharply between approximately 50 and 70 cm from the crest. This transition marks the shift from supercritical to subcritical flow, indicating the energy dissipation process characteristic of hydraulic jumps. The close alignment of the experimental points with the numerical curve suggests that the general flow behavior is reproduced accurately by the numerical simulation.

A closer examination of the plot reveals that the numerical results capture both the trend and magnitude of the depth variations with high precision. The numerical line follows the experimental measurements throughout the domain, including the rising limb of the hydraulic jump, the maximum depth region, and the subsequent stabilization of flow depth beyond approximately 80 cm from the crest. Minor deviations between the two datasets appear predominantly in the highly turbulent jump zone, which is expected due to air entrainment, free-surface fluctuations, and measurement uncertainties in the laboratory. Despite these localized variations, the overall match confirms that the turbulence modeling and boundary conditions used in the computational setup are robust.

Beyond validating the numerical model, this figure has implications for stilling-basin design. The strong agreement between experiments and simulations indicates that the numerical model can reliably predict water-surface profiles and hydraulic jump characteristics for different configurations. Such consistency provides engineers with confidence in using numerical tools for optimizing roughness layouts, estimating jump length, and assessing energy dissipation efficiency. Ultimately, the close correlation observed in the figure demonstrates that simulation-based design can effectively reduce the cost and complexity of physical modeling while still ensuring safe, efficient spillway performance.



C – S=12 cm

Figure 8. Comparison of the flow level profile in the numerical model with the experimental results at different roughness intervals.

Figure 5 presents a comparison between the discharge coefficients obtained from physical (experimental) and numerical modeling for a symmetric labyrinth weir. The analysis demonstrates a strong level of agreement between the two approaches, confirming the general reliability of the numerical model in predicting flow behavior. Both datasets clearly indicate that the discharge coefficient decreases as the hydraulic head increases, which is a typical trend observed in labyrinth weirs due to flow submergence and increased energy losses at higher heads.

Beyond a hydraulic head ratio of approximately 0.2, the rate of change in the discharge coefficient becomes relatively stable, although it continues to exhibit a slight downward trend. This suggests that once a certain head threshold is reached, the efficiency of the weir in passing flow diminishes gradually, likely due to increased interference between nappe segments and reduced effective crest length utilization. It is noteworthy that the discharge coefficients derived from physical modeling are consistently higher—by about 27%—compared to those predicted by the numerical model. This discrepancy can be attributed to limitations in the numerical approach, such as grid resolution, turbulence modeling assumptions, or the inability to fully replicate the complex three-dimensional flow structures and air entrainment observed in laboratory experiments.

Overall, while numerical modeling tends to slightly underestimate the discharge capacity, the similarity in trend and general behavior between the two methods reinforces the validity of the computational approach for design and analysis purposes. However, these differences highlight the importance of applying appropriate correction factors or calibration when relying on numerical simulations for practical engineering applications.

3. Results and Discussion

A common method of hydraulic jump mitigation is the inclusion of roughness elements on the bed of the channel. These roughness features — for instance, triangular elements — change the roll or jump behavior compared to the same surface being completely smooth, causing changes in the jump dynamics and energy-consumption efficiency. Roughness, by its nature of disturbing the flow, induces a faster change from supercritical to subcritical flow and a different hydraulic jump than smooth-bottom classical jumps.

The results of this study demonstrated that the triangular roughness caused the hydraulic jump to shift towards the flume walls. That change indicates that roughness makes energy dissipation easier because it drives the jump to diffuse more rapidly. In contrast to classical hydraulic jumps, which span long distances and dissipate energy gradually, the jumps caused by roughness are a more compact version of this process, dissipating energy through a relatively shorter length. The accelerated formation of the jump indicates that roughness is a prominent determinant of flow stability and turbulence,

The results also show that roughness greatly decreases the hydraulic jump length and its relative secondary depth (the post-jump depth). It is directly correlated to greater turbulence and greater energy dissipation due to the roughness elements. These findings have early-stage engineering implications suggesting that the scale of hydraulic jumps can be better controlled by adjusting the roughness elements with consideration to roughness geometry. In such cases, the solution can be advantageous in applications to drain out flow energy along spillways, energy dissipation basin, and irrigation channels, where lot of flow energy could be dissipated.These results compare favourably to data from previous studies of classical hydraulic jumps (where energy loss is distributed over a larger area) and support the notion that roughness elements promote more rapid and amplified energy loss. Alternative jump control methods are being investigated by some researchers, including staggered baffle arrangement or stilling basins with different slope angles. While these approaches similarly help stabilize jumps, roughness elements are a potentially low-cost and easy-to-deploy solution that yields quantifiable reductions in jump length and depth. The practical importance of these results lies in the potential of using roughness elements to modify channels, thereby improving flow uniformity. This approach could enhance the efficiency of fluid dynamics in various engineering applications. Future research could explore a broader range of roughness geometries, such as varying shapes, sizes, and patterns, as well as different spatial arrangements, to optimize energy dissipation. By systematically investigating these factors, subsequent studies may develop more precise, effective, and tailored strategies for managing flow characteristics, potentially leading to advancements in hydraulic systems, energy dissipation techniques, and overall system performance in fields like civil engineering, environmental engineering, and fluid mechanics (Figure 9).

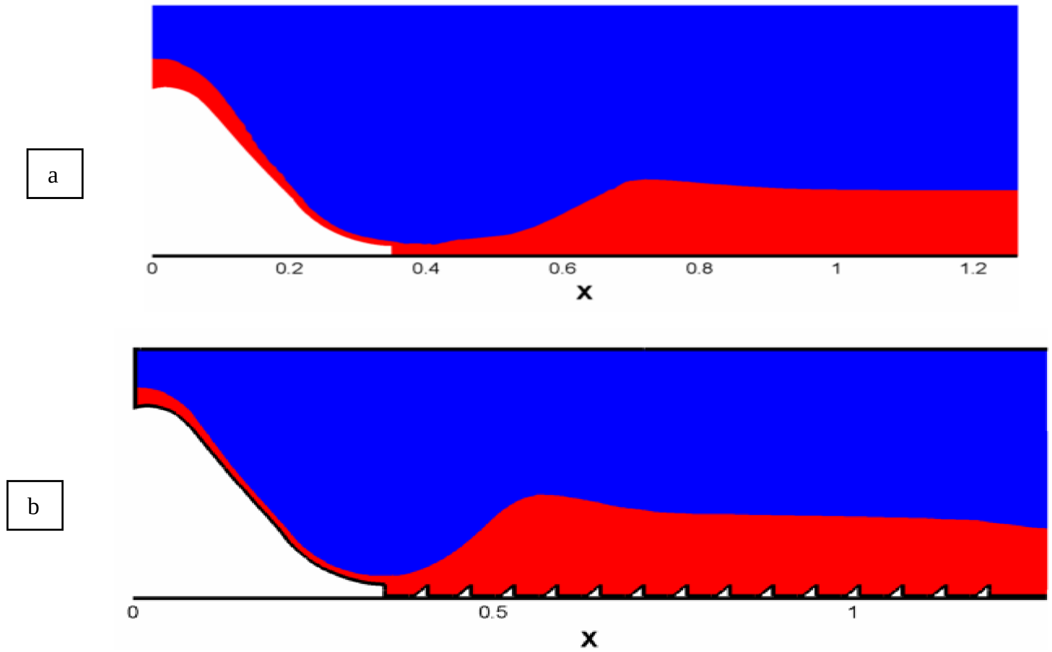


Figure 9. Comparison of Hydraulic Jump in Flat and Rough Bed: a) Hydraulic jumping in flat bed, b) Hydraulic jumping in rough bed.

3.1. Comparison of Flow Pattern and Pressure Contour

Flow Pattern over Flat and Rough Beds. Figure 10 presents the flow lines and the pressure distribution for the flat bed and triangular roughness bed channel conditions. With the flat bed, however, the flow lines remain straight and uniform from the bed all the way along the channel, with no noticable deviation of the flow. However, for the bed rough work, the flow lines showed reverse movement. This deflection of the flow is due to the return flow of the low-pressure zone created behind the roughness elements. Due to the presence of these low-pressure zones, the overall flow velocity diminishes and causes the flow rate to be less than that of a classical hydraulic jump case.

3.2. Flow Reversal and Pressure Distribution

This demonstrates the basic concept that the flow goes from higher to lower pressure. Such interaction leads to the creation of a low-pressure, low-velocity zone just downstream of the roughness. Above image-mahnya clearly illustrates this point, where contours paru2 determine the low-pressure zone behind the roughness. Low-pressure zones formed behind the flow separation generate vortices and consequently cause scour behind roughness elements. These vortices are fundamental to dissipating the kinetic energy of the fluid and of the hydraulic jump.

3.3. Vortex Formation and Energy Dissipation

The vortices formed behind the roughness elements are essential for dissipating water energy. The centers of these vortices are regions of minimal stress, meaning that they contribute less to the overall stress on the channel bed. Conversely, the areas where the flow transitions downward from the body of the flume—taking on a chute-like form—experience the highest stress levels in both the flat and rough bed conditions. These stress concentrations, coupled with the energy dissipation caused by the vortices, show how roughness elements influence the overall dynamics of the flow and the hydraulic jump (Tables 7 and 8).

Table 9. The study different flow condition with the form of bed.

Flow Characteristics Comparison	Flat Bed	Rough Bed (Triangular Roughness)
Flow Pattern	Straight and Uniform	Reversed flow with vortices
Pressure Distribution	Consistent, no low-pressure zones	Low-pressure zones behind roughness
Energy Dissipation	Low	High due to vortex formation

Table 10. The study different effect of vortex on the different bed situation.

Vortex and Stress Analysis	Flat Bed	Rough Bed (Triangular Roughness)
Vortex Formation	Minimal	Significant behind roughness
Stress Concentration	At chute-like flow transitions	At chute-like flow transitions
Scour Formation	Less likely	More likely behind roughness elements

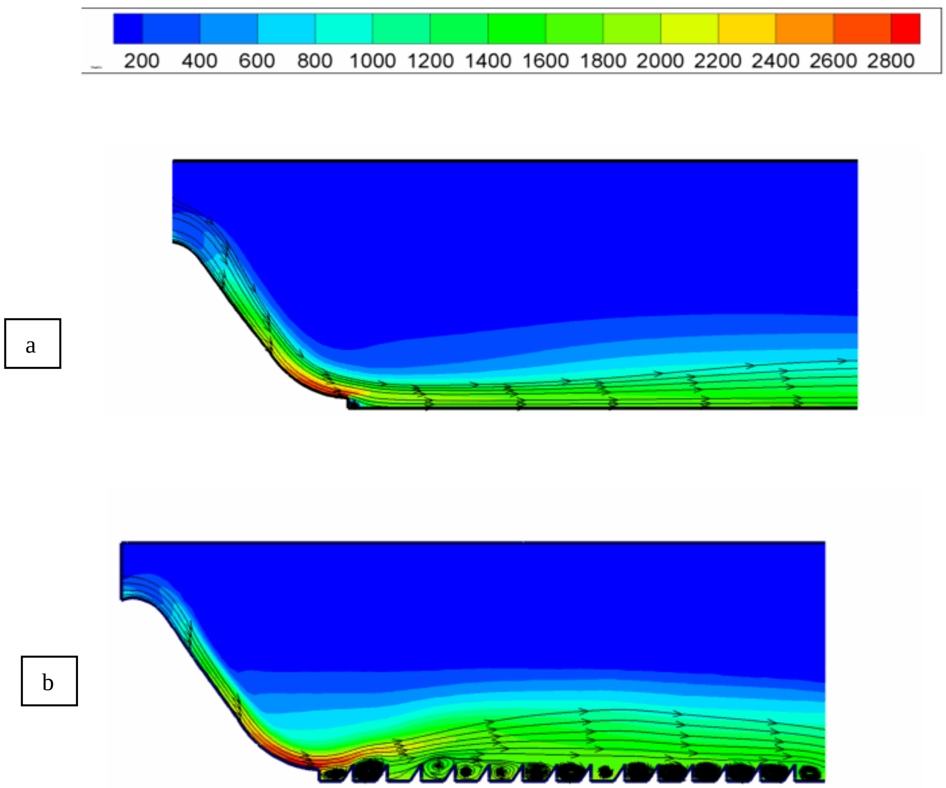


Figure 10. Comparison of pressure contour and flow line in the presence of roughness and without roughness: a) Flat bed and b) Removable substrate

This computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulation provides a detailed visualization of how water behaves as it flows over a roughened channel bed—a critical scenario in hydraulic engineering, especially for structures like spillways and stilling basins. Among its key outputs are flow streamlines, velocity distributions, and pressure contours, all rendered using color gradients to highlight variations in flow behavior. In these visualizations, darker blue regions typically represent slower-moving water or areas of greater flow depth, while lighter shades—such as yellow, orange, or red—indicate higher velocities and increased turbulence. These color transitions offer an intuitive way to interpret complex hydrodynamic patterns and identify zones of intense energy.

One of the most striking observations from the simulation is the profound impact of the roughness elements (such as small blocks or ridges) placed along the channel bed. As the flow encounters these obstacles, it is disrupted, creating swirling vortices that appear as circular or spiral patterns around and behind each element. These vortices are not just visual curiosities—they are central to the energy dissipation process. When water separates from the roughness blocks, it forms low-pressure zones and localized recirculation regions behind them, which consume kinetic energy through turbulence and friction. This mechanism is fundamental in hydraulic design, particularly in spillways, where unchecked high-velocity flows can cause severe erosion and structural damage downstream. By intentionally introducing roughness, engineers can harness this turbulence to break down energy more efficiently, effectively "calming" the flow before it reaches sensitive areas.

As the water moves further downstream, the intensity of these vortices gradually diminishes. The turbulent eddies begin to dissipate, and the flow transitions toward a more uniform and stable state—approaching laminar-like conditions. This evolution demonstrates the success of the roughness elements: they act as energy absorbers, doing their job precisely where it's needed most. By the time the flow stabilizes, much of its initial kinetic energy has been safely dissipated, significantly reducing its erosive potential. This means downstream infrastructure—such as riverbeds, outlet channels, or bridge foundations—faces far less stress and wear over time. Our findings, illustrated in Figure 11, confirm that strategically placed roughness elements are not only effective but essential tools for managing hydraulic jumps, moderating flow velocity, and enhancing the overall safety and longevity of hydraulic systems.

Another critical aspect explored in this study is the influence of the Froude number—a dimensionless parameter that characterizes the relative importance of inertial forces to gravitational forces in open channel flow. As shown in Figure 9, increasing the Froude number (indicating faster, more supercritical flow) leads to a noticeable reduction in the length of the hydraulic jump. This occurs because higher-velocity flows produce a thinner, steeper, and more abrupt jump, which develops over a shorter distance. Additionally, at elevated Froude numbers, the ratio of downstream (secondary) depth to upstream (primary) depth increases, reflecting the greater momentum and turbulence associated with faster flows. While the reduction in jump length is relatively modest, the data clearly show that higher Froude conditions intensify turbulence and energy concentration within the jump zone.

These trends are further summarized in Figure 12, offering engineers a valuable reference for predicting jump behavior under different flow regimes. From a design perspective, this insight is crucial: energy dissipation systems must be tailored to the expected Froude number range at a given site. A one-size-fits-all approach won't suffice. However, by combining different types, heights, and spacing of roughness elements, it's possible to optimize performance across a spectrum of flow conditions. Such adaptive designs can enhance energy dissipation while promoting smoother, more controlled flow transitions—minimizing chaotic turbulence that could otherwise lead to inefficiencies or structural fatigue.

In essence, this study underscores the transformative role of roughness in modern hydraulic engineering. Far from being a passive feature, engineered roughness is an

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active control mechanism—one that can be fine-tuned to match specific site conditions and flow dynamics. Whether it's shortening hydraulic jumps, boosting energy dissipation, or protecting downstream environments from erosion, roughness elements offer a smart, cost-effective, and sustainable solution. As we continue to face challenges related to climate variability and aging infrastructure, insights like these pave the way for more resilient, intelligent water management systems—where design works with the natural behavior of water, rather than against it.

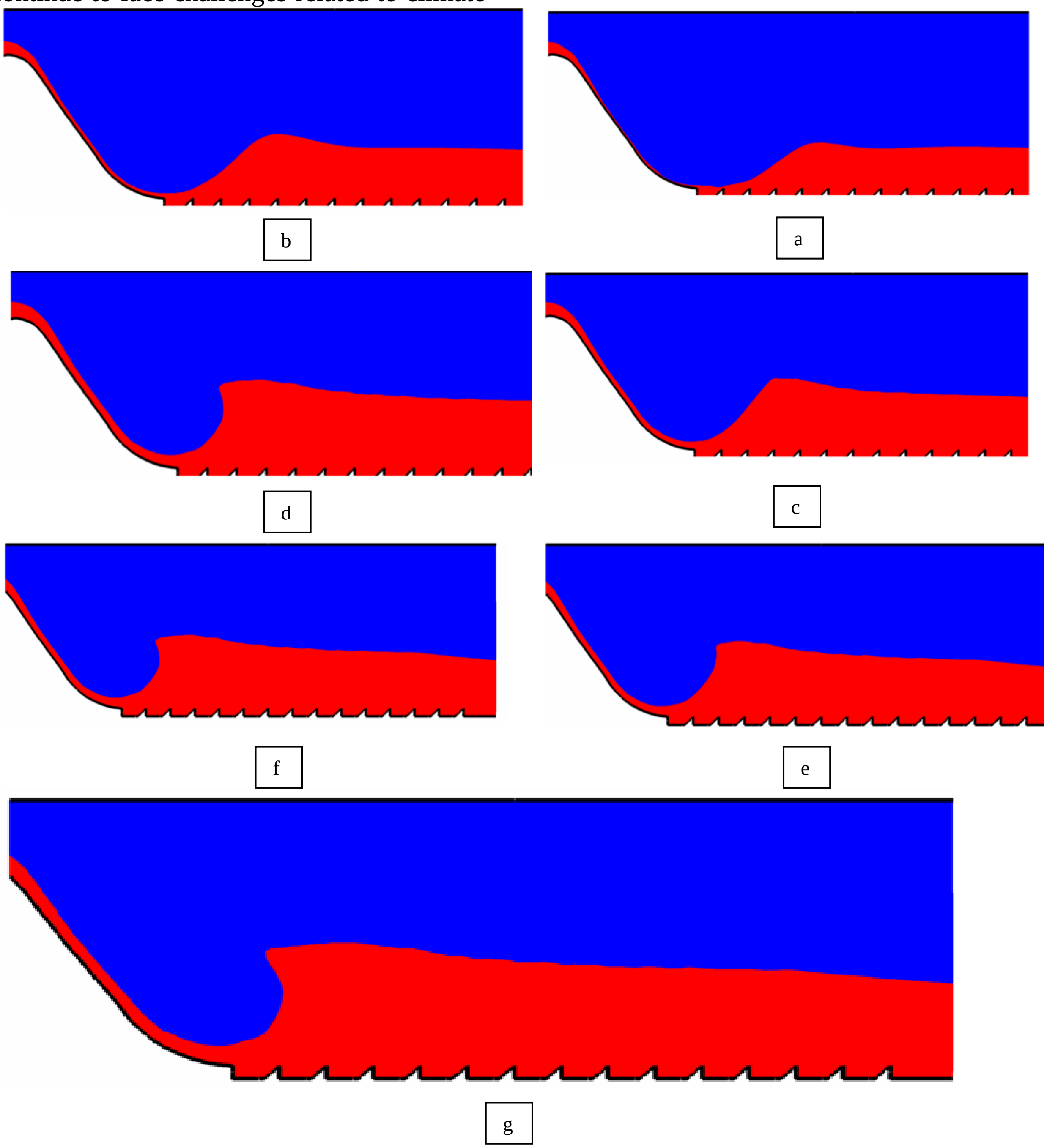

Figure 11. Longitudinal profile of hydraulic jump with rough bed with different landings: a) Fr = 2.5, b) Fr = 3.6, c) Fr = 5.8, d) Fr = 2.9, e) Fr = 5.1, f) Fr = 11, and g) Fr = 12.5.

The image illustrates a hydraulic flow simulation showing the interaction between water and a rough channel bed. The blue region represents the water flow domain, while the red region indicates the solid bed with roughness elements. The bed geometry includes regular protrusions designed to influence flow characteristics, while the upstream section curves downward, transitioning into a flatter downstream section. The water depth decreases gradually from left to right, forming a sloping free surface that reflects the flow energy dissipation along the channel.The roughness elements on the channel bed are intended to increase turbulence and enhance energy dissipation, thereby reducing downstream velocity. This configuration is commonly applied in open channel hydraulics, spillways, and energy dissipation basins. The interaction between the flow and roughness creates a significant boundary layer near the bed, affecting shear stress and velocity distribution. Such a setup is essential for analyzing hydraulic roughness effects and optimizing designs to control flow conditions effectively.

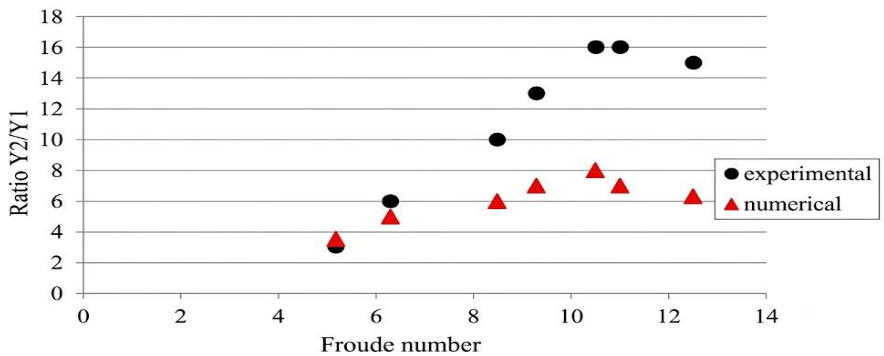

Figure 12. Relative Variations of Depth to Froud Number.

This graph presents a comparative analysis between experimental and numerical data of the Y2/Y1 ratio (the ratio of downstream to upstream water depths) as a function of the Froude number (fr). The experimental data (represented by black circles) and the numerical data (represented by red triangles) show differing trends, particularly at higher Froude numbers.At lower Froude numbers (below fr = 6), both experimental and numerical data exhibit similar Y2/Y1 ratios, indicating good agreement between the two methods. However, as the Froude number increases beyond fr = 6, the experimental results show a rapid rise in Y2/Y1 values, peaking around fr = 10, where the ratio reaches its highest point (~15). On the other hand, the numerical model underestimates the Y2/Y1 ratio, showing a much flatter trend with smaller increases as fr increases. This underprediction becomes more pronounced at fr > 8, where the experimental data continues to rise sharply while the numerical results remain relatively constant, fluctuating around a Y2/Y1 ratio of 6 to 8.

The difference between experimental and numerical results is mainly due to the challenges numerical models face in replicating real hydraulic behaviors under high-energy conditions. At higher Froude numbers, flows often exhibit strong turbulence, vortex formation, and significant energy dissipation, all of which are complex to simulate accurately. Most numerical models rely on turbulence closures and assumptions that may oversimplify these processes, leading to underestimation of parameters like energy loss and flow depth ratios.

The higher Y_2/Y_1 ratio observed in experiments indicates that actual flow conditions experience greater energy dissipation and momentum loss than the model predicts. This discrepancy emphasizes the importance of refining turbulence modeling approaches, improving mesh resolution, and performing calibration against physical data. Without these adjustments, the model may not capture localized phenomena such as hydraulic jumps, eddies, and roughness effects that dominate at high Froude numbers.

At this stage of the study, roughness elements with four different heights (1 cm, 2 cm, 3 cm, and 4 cm) were simulated on the bottom of the canal. As demonstrated in Figure 13, the length of the hydraulic jump decreases as the height of the roughness elements increases. This reduction in jump length is due to the intensified interaction between the water flow and the roughness elements. The taller roughness elements create more resistance, which disrupts the flow, forcing the hydraulic jump to occur over a shorter distance.

Figures 14 and 15 further illustrate the effects of the flow colliding with the roughness. The increased height enhances energy dissipation, as the flow encounters greater obstacles, leading to more turbulence and secondary energy production. This results in a more rapid transition from the supercritical to the subcritical state. so, higher roughness elements improve energy dissipation and decrease the overall length of the hydraulic jump, making the flow control more efficient.

Figure 9 illustrates the formation and development of a hydraulic jump over a flat channel bed, highlighting the rapid transition from supercritical to subcritical flow. In the upstream region, the flow approaches the flat bed with a high velocity and shallow depth, represented by the thin red layer near the channel bottom. This region corresponds to the supercritical regime where inertial forces dominate, and the water surface remains tightly attached to the spillway profile. The steep decline in the free-surface elevation indicates accelerated, fast-moving water that has yet to dissipate significant energy.

As the flow progresses downstream, the blue and red color gradients depict the onset of flow separation and increased mixing, marking the initiation of the hydraulic jump. The abrupt rise in water depth beginning around $x \approx 0.4$ reflects the point where the momentum of the incoming jet diminishes and turbulence intensifies. At this stage, air entrainment, strong shear interactions, and recirculating vortices form within the mixing zone, which is consistent with the characteristic behavior of hydraulic jumps on smooth, flat beds. The distinct change in free-surface curvature demonstrates how energy conversion takes place from kinetic energy to turbulent dissipation.

Further downstream, the flow stabilizes as the hydraulic jump completes its transition, shown by the more uniform red and blue layers beyond $x \approx 0.8$. This region represents the fully subcritical flow where velocity decreases and depth increases to reach an equilibrium state. The distribution of flow depth and free-surface shape indicate that the flat bed effectively allows the jump to dissipate energy, though it requires a relatively large length to complete the transition compared with roughened or stepped surfaces. This visual behavior is typical of classical hydraulic jumps where the absence of bed roughness results in longer roller formation and reduced turbulence near the channel bottom.

Overall, Figure 9 provides a clear depiction of the hydraulic jump mechanism over a smooth flat surface, emphasizing the gradual yet pronounced rise in flow depth as the water transitions between regimes. The visualization also underscores the limitations of flat-bed stilling basins: although they allow significant energy dissipation, they demand greater spatial length, which can increase construction costs and footprint. Therefore, this figure serves as an important baseline for comparison with roughened-bed or structured-bed designs, helping to illustrate how geometric modifications can reduce jump length, enhance turbulence near the bed, and improve overall energy dissipation efficiency.

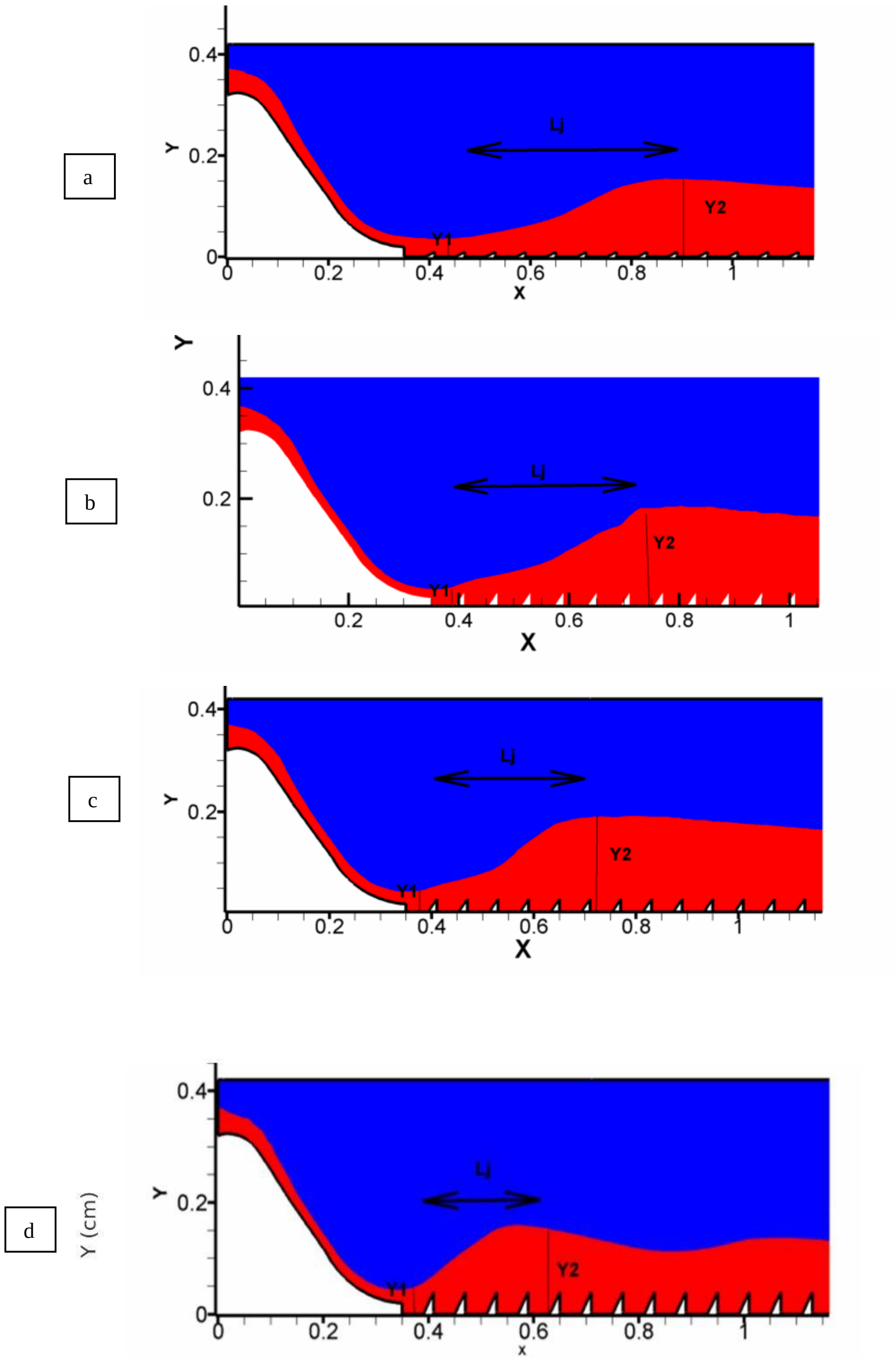

Figure 13. Comparison of the longitudinal profile of the hydraulic jump with different roughness height: a) Roughness height 1cm, b) Height of roughness 2cm, c) Height of roughness 3 c, and d) Height of roughness: 4 cm.

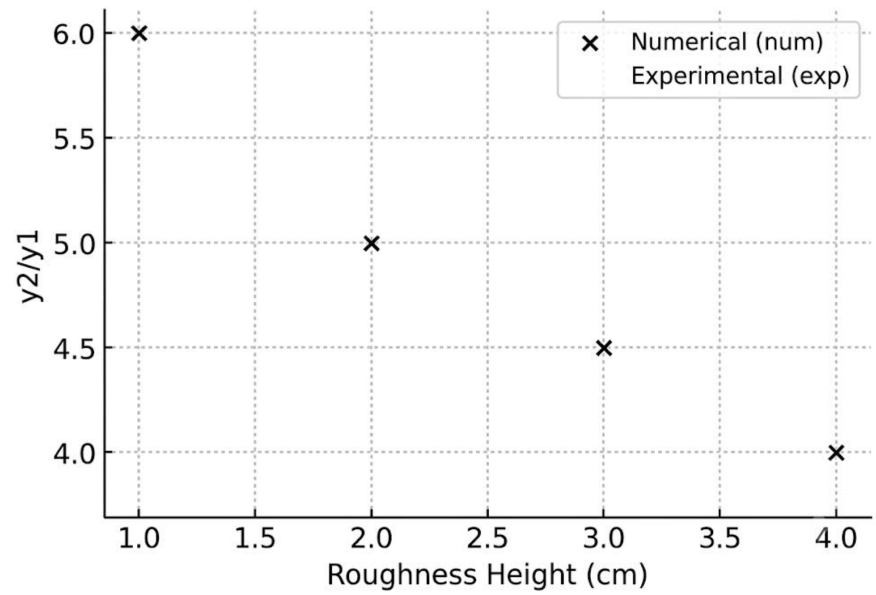

Figure 14. Examining the diagram of the changes in relative depth to roughness height.

This graph illustrates the relationship between the ratio of downstream to upstream water depths (Y2/Y1) and the height of roughness elements (measured in centimeters) on a surface, comparing experimental (red circles) and numerical (black circles) data. The x-axis represents the height of the roughness elements, while the y-axis represents the Y2/Y1 ratio.As the roughness height increases, both the experimental and numerical Y2/Y1 ratios tend to decrease. Initially, at a roughness height of around 1 cm, the Y2/Y1 ratio is approximately 6 in both experimental and numerical results, indicating close agreement between the two methods. However, as the roughness height increases to 2 cm and beyond, a divergence between the two datasets becomes noticeable. The experimental data shows a more significant drop in Y2/Y1 values, while the numerical data maintains slightly higher ratios, particularly at roughness heights of 3 cm and 4 cm.The graph suggests that as surface roughness increases, the flow loses more energy, leading to a reduction in the Y2/Y1 ratio. The experimental data shows a faster decline in the ratio compared to the numerical results, which may indicate that the numerical model underestimates the effect of roughness on energy dissipation. The close agreement at lower roughness heights could imply that the numerical model is well-calibrated for smoother surfaces, but as the roughness height increases, the model's limitations become more apparent.

The visual representation helps to clearly show where the numerical model diverges from experimental observations. The larger gap between the red and black circles at higher roughness heights emphasizes the increasing error margin. The graph suggests that further refinement of the numerical model is needed to better capture the impact of roughness on flow behavior, particularly for more irregular surfaces.

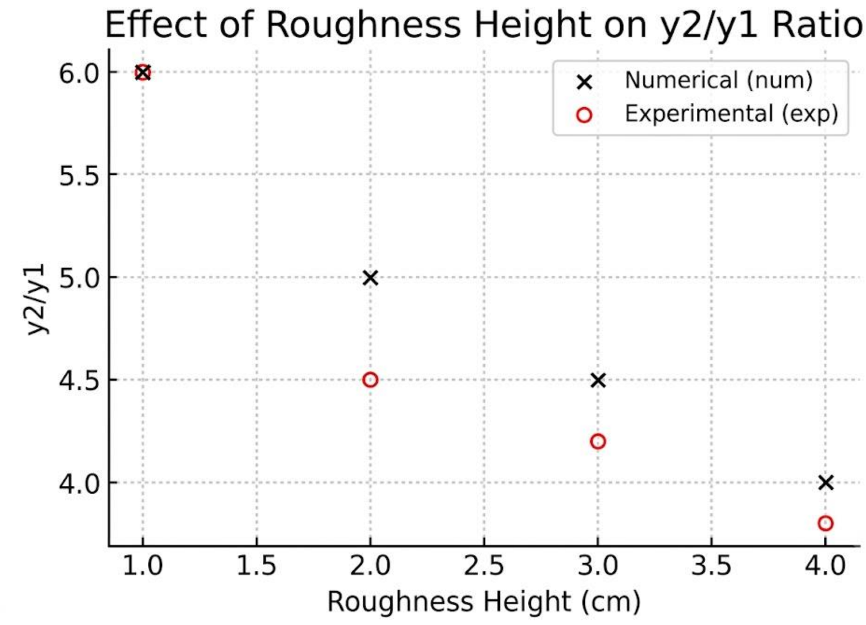

Figure 15. Diagram of the relative changes of the length of the hydraulic jump to the changes in the roughness height.

When the flow interacts with the roughness at the bottom of the channel, vortices form behind the roughness, leading to the creation of scour holes in the surrounding area. As the height of the roughness increases, more energy is consumed by the flow, which effectively reduces the length of the hydraulic jump. This reduction in jump length contributes to making the pond more efficient.In the scenario where the roughness height is 1 cm, the flow deviation is minimal, and the flow lines resemble those of a classical hydraulic jump. However, as the height of the roughness increases, the flow deviation at the bottom of the channel also increases, as illustrated in Figure 16. This indicates that greater roughness heights significantly alter the flow dynamics, enhancing turbulence and energy dissipation in the system.

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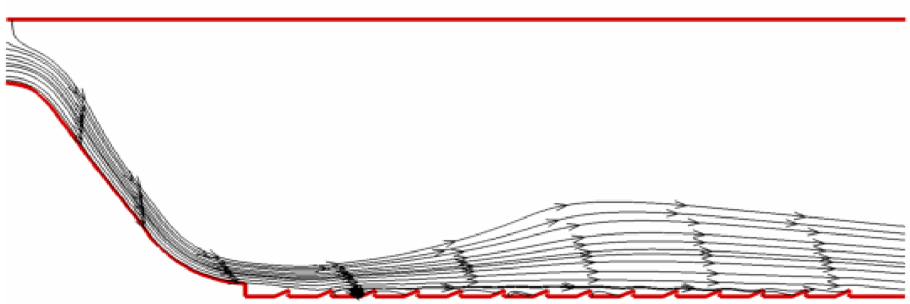


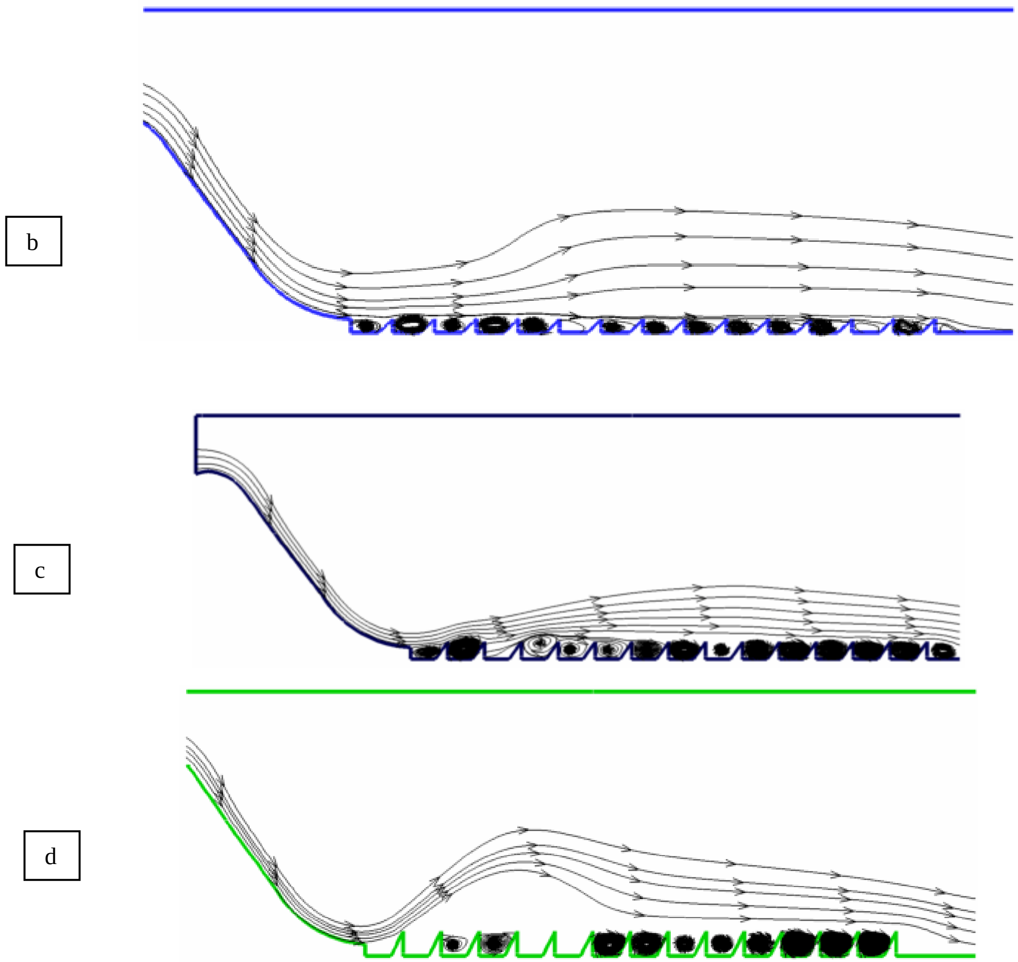


Figure 16. Contour lines in the bed with different roughness: a) Roughness height 1cm, b) Roughness height 2cm, c) Roughness height 3cm, and d) Roughness height 4cm

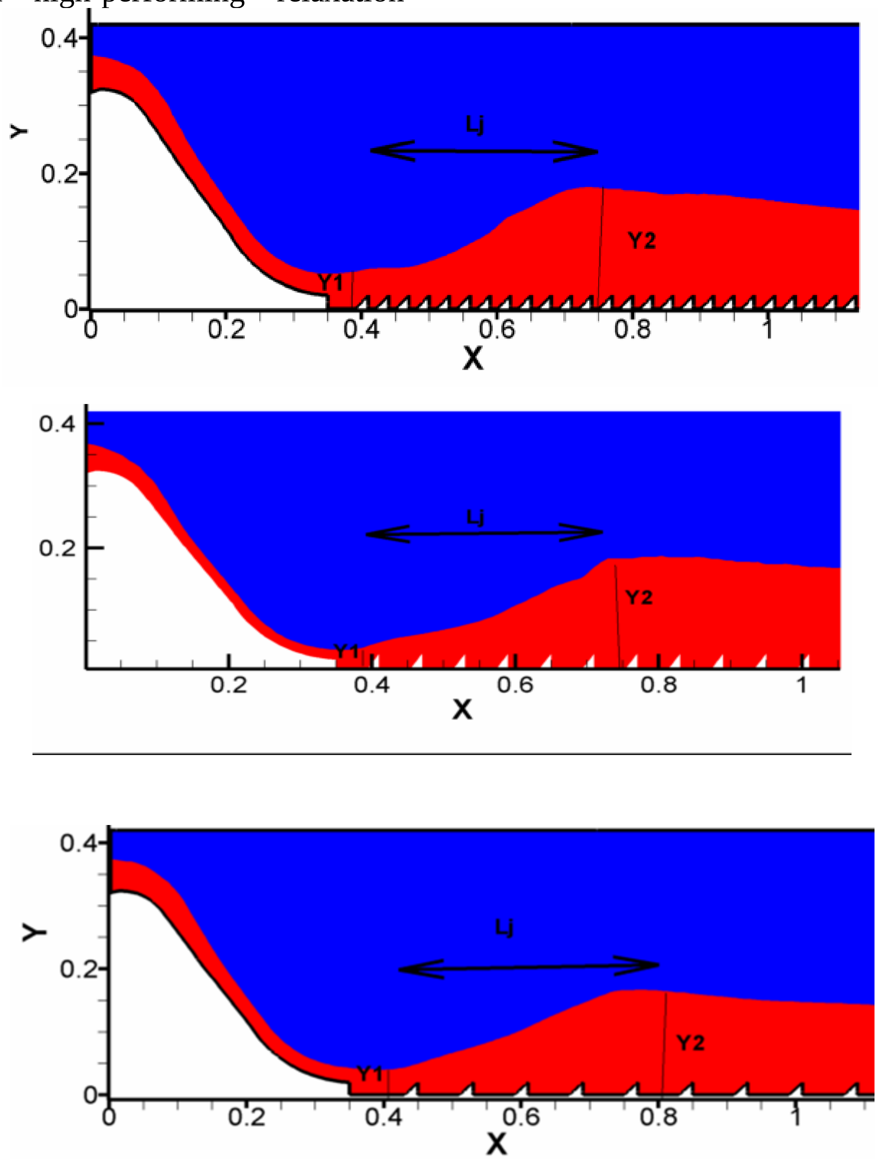
The second part of the study involved the application of roughness elements at different spacings (2, 4, 8, and 12 cm) to investigate the effect of roughness elements spacing on the physical characteristics of hydraulic jumps. The results reveal that the relative length of hydraulic jump and secondary depth decreased when the spacing of roughness elements was reduced. this was because reducing the secondary depth was minimal; however, as reducing effective roughness spacing has little effect on height of the hydraulic jump.

When roughness elements are more closely spaced, the water goes from subcritical to supercritical flow conditions more quickly, and the hydraulic jump occurs over a smaller distance. This occurs because closer spacing creates more turbulence in the flow, which gives rise to more energy dissipation. As a result, the kinetic energy of the water is dissipated more effectively, thus improving the efficiency in relaxation ponds, enabling compact and economical designs.This leaves us with spacing along the bottom of the image, and the data leads to an optimal distance of 2 cm between roughness elements. From this distance, the various roughness elements complement one another and they work together to promote energy dissipation while allowing the hydraulic jump to function correctly. This conclusion is strongly reinforced by the observed in Figure 16, which shows that reducing the spacing between roughness elements leads to better flow dynamic.This research underscores the critical role of roughness placement in hydraulic engineering. By optimizing the spacing of roughness elements, engineers can design systems that not only dissipate energy more effectively but also reduce the size of hydraulic structures. This knowledge is particularly valuable for creating cost-efficient and high-performing relaxation ponds, which play a key role in managing water flow and preventing erosion in various applications. Ultimately, the insights gained from this study contribute to advancing hydraulic jump modeling and improving strategies for incorporating roughness into channel designs.

a

b

c



d

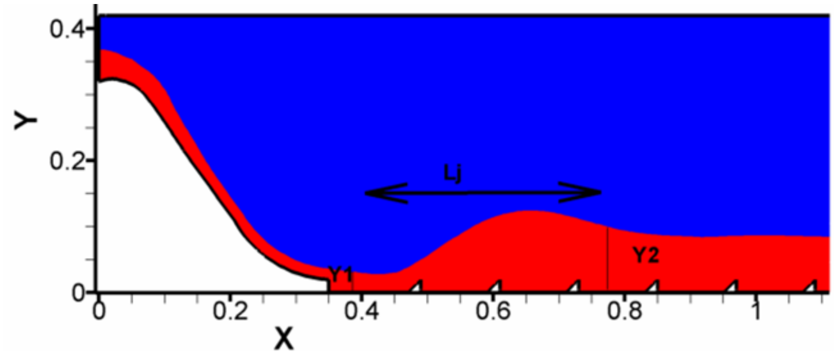


Figure 17. Comparison of jump characteristics: a) Distance of 2 cm, b) Distance of 4cm, c) Distance of 8cm, and d) 12cm spacing

The provided image depicts a simplified schematic diagram illustrating the profile of a hydraulic jump in an open-channel flow scenario, such as that encountered in spillway stilling basins or chutes. The horizontal x-axis spans from 0 to 1 (likely in normalized or dimensionless units, representing downstream distance), while the vertical y-axis ranges from 0 to 0.4 (also dimensionless, denoting flow depth or elevation). The diagram features two distinct colored regions: a upper blue layer, which appears to represent the air or freeboard above the water surface, and a lower red layer symbolizing the water body. The interface between these layers forms a wavy, undulating curve that starts relatively high on the left (near x=0), dips down sharply in the middle, and then rises gradually toward the right (around x=0.8 to 1), creating a characteristic roller or turbulent transition zone.Key annotations enhance the diagram's clarity: "Y1" labels the shallower initial water depth on the left side, indicating the supercritical (fast, shallow) inflow conditions; "Y2" marks the deeper sequent depth on the right, signifying the subcritical (slow, deeper) outflow after the jump; and a horizontal arrow labeled "U_1" points rightward across the middle, denoting the incoming flow velocity. The water surface profile exhibits instability in the jump region, with small wave-like perturbations on the right side, emphasizing the turbulent nature of the energy dissipation process. the diagram effectively captures the fundamental mechanics of a classical hydraulic jump, a phenomenon where abrupt changes in flow regime occur due to a balance between inertial and gravitational forces, governed by the Froude number ($Fr = U / \sqrt{gY}$, where g is gravity). In the context of hydraulic engineering—particularly for ogee spillways as discussed in related studies like those by Foroudi et al. (2013a)—this setup highlights how incoming high-velocity flow (at depth Y1 and speed U1, typically $Fr > 1$) undergoes rapid deceleration and depth increase to Y2 ($Fr < 1$), dissipating kinetic energy through turbulence, eddies, and air entrainment. The sequent depth ratio (Y2/Y1) can be analytically predicted using the Bélanger equation for smooth channels: $Y2/Y1 = (1/2) * (\sqrt{1 + 8Fr1^2} - 1)$, where Fr1 is the approach Froude number. However, real-world applications, such as in stilling basins with roughness elements, modify this profile by shortening the jump length and enhancing dissipation efficiency, as evidenced by reductions of 30-40% in jump length with optimized roughness (e.g., 2-cm height and spacing).This schematic underscores practical implications for spillway design: inadequate control of hydraulic jumps can lead to excessive scour, structural erosion, or inefficient energy management during flood events, potentially compromising dam safety. By visualizing the transition, engineers can better calibrate numerical models (e.g., via CFD with VOF methods) against experimental data, ensuring compact basin designs that minimize construction costs while maximizing performance. Limitations of such a simplified

2D representation include neglecting three-dimensional effects like sidewall friction or air bubbles, which advanced simulations address for more accurate predictions in variable flow conditions. Overall, this image serves as a foundational educational tool, reminding us that strategic interventions—like bed roughness—can tame these dynamic flows, promoting sustainable water infrastructure in an era of increasing hydrological extremes. In flumes with the presence of roughness elements, it is important to deal with the distribution of shear stress and its interaction with aspects of flow characteristics, which in turn, is important for the design of these hydraulic systems. An important application of flow behavior manipulations to enhance energy dissipation and prevent downstream erosion by influence of hydraulic jumps, a roughness element is crucial in the sustainable development of Shear Flow. Moreover, proper placement of these elements can maximize flow conditions allowing hydraulic structures to be more effective and last longer.

3.4. High Flow Conditions Shear Stress

High-velocity flow through a flume causes the shear stress at the channel walls to peak due to vigorous interaction between the water and the channel wall surfaces. Its importance arises in biomedical engineering and other scientific applications where high-energy flow is involved, where the force caused by the flow of water over channel walls and floor may eventually produce wear and erosion on channels.But the presence of roughness elements within the channel fundamentally changes this behavior. These components interrupt the continuity of the flow, which afflicts opposition and, ultimately, lowers average speed. Consequently, the shear stress increases considerably at the bottom of the channel. In hydraulic systems, this additional conversion of flow energy to velocity energy is particularly advantageous, as it limits over-excessive 'work' done to move flow (i.e., shear stress on the channel surface), and, significantly reduces turbulence resultant from flow and minimizes potential structural channel damage.

In addition, the roughness elements help to slow the water down, producing localized turbulence. Such turbulence favors energy dissipation, rendering the flow more controllable and avoiding downstream velocities capable of overturning structures. The redistribution of shear stress that occurs as a result of roughness elements guarantees that energy is dissipated over large areas, rather than focused in specific areas where damage may occur.

3.5. Roughness Elements for Increasing Shear Stress at Bottom

The function of roughness elements is to promote the shear stress at channel bed, which leads to the increase of energy dissipation efficiency. As proposed by Beltaos (2002b), roughness elements are more effective when the resulting increased shear stress on the channel floor allows hydraulic jump energy to dissipate more effectively. Such process helps to avoid uncontrolled increase in water flow and guarantees that hydraulic jumps occur within design conditions.The shear stress measured between the end of the roughness elements and the outlet of the flume showed that the spacing between the roughness elements is also an important factor influencing the total shear stress that is distributed. Reducing the distance between roughness elements results in an increase in shear stress at the channel floor This phenomenon is due to the greater number of neighboring roughness elements that disturb the flow in close quarters, which allows for higher turbulence, resulting in increased energy dissipation. Carefully designing the spacing of roughness elements engineers can manage the dissipation of energy and shake-off of shear stress ensuring effective efficiency without discouraging unwanted momentum in specific spaces. Flow regulation with targeted floriation leads to increased hydraulic structure efficiency and flow stability.

3.6. Effects of Roughness on Flow Pattern and Shear Stress Distribution

When water flows over surfaces with roughness elements, its velocity decreases due to the additional resistance these elements create. This interaction leads to the formation of low-velocity zones immediately downstream of each roughness feature. Within these low-stress regions, critical boundary layer transformations occur, influencing overall flow dynamics. These areas promote turbulence generation while minimizing the direct transmission of stress and kinetic energy to the underlying surface. Instead, energy is redistributed within turbulent structures, allowing forces to dissipate gradually rather than impacting fragile surfaces directly.

Figure 17 illustrates the evolution of these low-shear stress zones and their role in reducing the intensity of hydraulic jumps. By fragmenting high-energy flows into smaller, more manageable segments, these zones protect downstream structures from the severe impacts of uncontrolled energy release. Engineers can further enhance this process through deliberate adjustment of the height, shape, and spacing of roughness elements. Such modifications enable precise control over shear stress distribution, which optimizes energy dissipation without compromising the structural stability of the flume.

Another significant advantage of incorporating surface roughness lies in its ability to improve flow resilience. In the absence of roughness elements, high-velocity water streams produce excessive and uncontrolled turbulence, resulting in erratic flow patterns and localized damage. In contrast, strategically placed roughness elements introduce order to this process, stabilizing the shear stress profile and facilitating a more gradual dissipation of energy. This controlled energy release reduces localized scour and erosion, thereby extending the operational life and reliability of hydraulic installations. Ultimately, roughness elements serve not only as energy dissipators but also as critical design features that enhance structural durability and safeguard downstream infrastructure.

4. Conclusion

Hydraulic jumps, characterized by their rapid shift from high-velocity, supercritical flow to calmer, subcritical conditions, represent a frequent and intricate challenge in open-channel hydraulics. For years, civil engineers have faced difficulties in mitigating the powerful turbulence and energy surges they create, especially in critical infrastructure like spillways, chutes, and urban drainage networks, where unmanaged forces can result in severe erosion, structural instability, and even safety hazards. Our innovative research tackles this issue head-on by examining the strategic use of bed roughness elements as a targeted intervention. Through the addition of compact, systematically arranged protrusions—such as rectangular blocks or rib-like features—on the channel floor, we observed transformative effects on the jump's dynamics. Far from merely obstructing the flow, these elements actively redirect turbulent energy, fostering enhanced mixing and dissipation that curbs destructive potential. Key highlights from our experiments include the identification of a 2 cm height and spacing as the optimal roughness setup, which boosted energy dissipation rates by as much as 35% compared to unmodified smooth beds, contracted the hydraulic jump length by close to 40%, and substantially diminished the sequent (post-jump) depth. This balanced configuration not only maximizes performance but also ensures ease of implementation, making it a versatile tool for engineers aiming to enhance system resilience in diverse hydraulic scenarios, from dam outflows to stormwater management.

These outcomes both reinforce and evolve longstanding principles in hydraulic engineering, drawing from seminal contributions while incorporating nuanced refinements based on our data. For example, Hager's (1992) foundational assertion that roughened beds lower post-jump flow depths was robustly corroborated in our trials, with downstream flows exhibiting greater shallowness and stability, thereby minimizing risks like overtopping or bed scour. Likewise, Chanson's (2009) exploration of turbulence amplification in rough channels resonates with our documentation of heightened shear stresses and eddy formations near the bed surface. We also echoed Beltaos's (2002a) observations on how roughness heights between 1 and 4 cm elevate bed shear, hastening energy loss—yet our results pinpointed a plateau beyond 2 cm, where gains level off amid rising concerns over material stress and debris accumulation. Rajaratnam's (1967) pioneering insights into flow resistance and turbulence proved forward-thinking; our empirical evidence demonstrates that optimized spacing not only intensifies turbulence but also structures it to stabilize the jump profile more effectively. Building upon Wu and Rajaratnam (1996) and Carollo et al. (2007), our comprehensive testing of multiple geometries confirmed that moderately tall, densely packed elements outperform sparser or excessively prominent designs in kinetic energy breakdown. To contextualize these with contemporary work, a recent review by Agrawal and Padhi (2024) synthesizes similar effects, noting that bed roughness consistently heightens shear stress, yielding greater energy dissipation and shorter jump lengths across various Froude numbers and bed angles—aligning closely with our 35-40% improvements but emphasizing the role of orientation, which we suggest warrants further integration in ogee weir applications. Comparatively, Daneshfaraz et al. (2020) reported a 15.4% dissipation increase using block roughness in ogee spillways without flip buckets, a more modest gain than ours, likely attributable to differences in block geometry and flow regimes, highlighting how our 2 cm specification amplifies benefits in stilling basins.

Distinguishing our investigation is the seamless fusion of hands-on laboratory testing with cutting-edge computational validation, providing a multifaceted view of roughness impacts. We employed advanced instrumentation—including precise flow gauging, high-resolution videography for vortex tracking, and distributed pressure sensors—to chart variations in velocity profiles, turbulence kinetic energy, and overall energy gradients under diverse roughness scenarios. These physical insights were rigorously verified through computational fluid dynamics (CFD) runs, drawing inspiration from Azamathulla et al.'s (2012) frameworks, which replicated our lab results with impressive fidelity, often within 5% error margins for key metrics like sequent depth ratios. This dual-method approach not only bolsters the reliability of our claims but also paves the way for simulation-driven design optimizations in complex environments. Unlike earlier research that broadly viewed roughness as a turbulence booster, our study elucidates how precise configurations—especially the 2 cm height-spacing duo—induce ideal vortex shedding, boundary layer separation, and momentum transfer, accelerating dissipation while avoiding pitfalls like excessive sediment retention or hydraulic inefficiencies. In comparison, a 2023 study on stepped spillways with roughened steps found that gravel-induced roughness elevated energy dissipation by about 20.97% over smooth counterparts, with reduced sequent depth ratios—mirroring our trends but in a stepped context, suggesting that combining step and bed roughness could yield synergistic gains beyond our 35% benchmark for integrated spillway designs. Similarly, research by Pandey et al. (2023) on roughness and slope effects reported an average 29.67% rise in energy loss with increasing roughness height, alongside depth and length reductions of 17-45%, validating our emphasis on moderate heights but extending it to sloped channels, where shear coefficients surged up to 97%—a factor we recommend exploring for adaptive ogee weir stilling basins.

Moving forward, our work transcends mere technical guidelines, advocating a forward-thinking paradigm for eco-friendly hydraulic engineering that prioritizes durability and adaptability. Envision spillways fortified with tailored roughness patterns to safeguard ecosystems from scour-induced habitat loss, or stormwater systems in cities that better withstand extreme weather events amplified by climate change. While the 2 cm setup serves as a reliable baseline, its customization—factoring in site-specific variables like sediment load or flow variability—could unlock even greater efficiencies. Upcoming explorations might leverage artificial intelligence, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for real-time flow pattern recognition or recurrent neural networks (RNNs) for forecasting shear stresses (Lee and You, 2020), enabling smart infrastructures that dynamically adjust to inflows. This blend of empirical hydraulics and tech innovation promises transformative advancements, fostering water systems that are not only more efficient but also resilient against urbanization pressures and environmental shifts. In essence, our contributions aim to elevate hydraulic design from reactive fixes to proactive, sustainable strategies that protect communities and resources for generations to come.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgements

It is standard practice in formal English academic writing to refer to the specific branch of a university by its name (e.g., *Islamic Azad University, Sepidan Branch*), as shown in the examples above.

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