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Additional Information

## ARTICLE TEMPLATE

# Numerical modelling for analysing drainage in irregular profile pipes using OpenFOAM 

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## ARTICLE HISTORY

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#### Abstract

Different methods of two-dimensional and three-dimensional numerical resolution models have been used to predict the air-water interaction in pipe systems in the early 21st century, where reliable and adequate results have been obtained when compared with experimental results. However, the study of the drainage process in pressurized systems with air admitted through openings has not been studied using this type of model due to the complexity that this represents. In this research, a twodimensional numerical model is developed in the open-source software OpenFOAM; this model represents the drainage of an irregular pipe with air admitted by an air valve, defined by a structured mesh. A validation of the numerical model related to the air admitted by the variation of the air valve diameter is also performed.


## KEYWORDS

Drainage, numerical model, admitted air, air valve, Volume of Fraction.

## 1. Introduction

The drainage of pipeline systems are periodic manoeuvres performed during the maintenance and repair stages of pipe sections and accessories to ensure the adequate transport of water to its destination (Fuertes-Miquel et al. 2019). During the discharge of the water, the air entrapped inside the pipeline systems exhibits thermodynamic behaviour, causing volumetric expansion generated by the absolute pressure drop in the system. This pressure drop can cause collapse of the installation, depending on the height and type of backfill and the stiffness of the pipe (Laanearu et al. 2012; Fuertes-Miquel et al. 2019; Coronado Hernández 2020; Wu et al. 2021). In view of this situation, different failures in pipes and/or pressure conduits due to pressure changes in entrapped air pockets have been reported in the literature, which have led to ruptures, collapse of conduction and sewer systems and failures at the structural level (Espert et al. 1991; Zhou et al. 2002, 2004; Vasconcelos-Neto 2005; Cabrera et al. 2008; Pozos-Estrada et al. 2015). To control negative pressures, air valves are installed, which facilitate rapid draining of the installation (Coronado-Hernández et al. 2017).

The numerical resolutions of the 2 D and 3 D models were used to simulate the hydraulic and thermodynamic behaviour of the water and air phases, respectively (Ho and Riddette 2010; Muralha et al. 2020). Recently, two-dimensional and threedimensional numerical models that predict pressure patterns and water and air velocities for filling operations in pipes with air valves and for drainage process with entrapped air have been proposed. Liu et al. (2011) created a Volume of Fraction (VOF) model applying a numerical solution for the analysis of overpressures generated in the air entrapped in pipes during the filling processes. Zhou et al. (2011) implemented two-dimensional and three-dimensional numerical models, where each model can adequately reproduce the pressure oscillation patterns by applying the VOF model. Wang et al. (2016) conducted a study to analyse the water-gas separation column, verifying the behaviour based on the cavitation phenomena through velocity contours and vapour volume fraction, applying a two-dimensional numerical resolution. Besharat et al. (2016) compared the results of air pocket overpressures of mathematical models and experimental models with the pressure results of 2 D numerical models, in which different mesh structures were applied for comparing convergence criteria of calculations and computational times. Martins et al. (2016) analysed the transient changes in velocity and pressure due to valve closure to evaluate the effects generated by pressure surges using a three-dimensional numerical resolution model. Martins et al. (2017) predicted air pocket pressure and velocity patterns for a pipeline system under rapid filling conditions using three-dimensional numerical models. Besharat et al. (2018) compared experimental results and a mathematical model with a two-dimensional numerical model, analysing air pocket pressure patterns and water drainage velocity associated with an irregular pipe without admitted air, also analysing the impact of the backflow air for different opening degrees of the drainage valves at the discharge points. Besharat et al. (2019) conducted an investigation associated with the analysis of drainage in pipes without admitted air, implementing 2D numerical models, where patterns of air pressure inside the pipe are compared. The results were also used to predict the physical behaviour of the air-water interface during drainage process.

Research associated with the implementation of numerical models for drainage in pipes with admitted air is currently scarce due to the difficulty of proposing numerical solutions that are stable and that guarantee excellent results, in addition to the challenges generated by the simulation of air valves. In this research paper, a twodimensional numerical model using the open-source software OpenFOAM is proposed to simulate the rapid drainage of an irregular pipe with entrapped air and with an air valve that guarantees the air admitted into the system, with the aim of demonstrating the numerical accuracy of these models under different air pocket size conditions. A change of section is defined for the simulation of the air valve using a geometrical aspect ratio taking into account the two-dimensional conditions (Aguirre-Mendoza et al. 2021). Finally, a validation of the numerical model is performed to determine the influence of the size of the air valve diameter during the drainage process.

## 2. Materials and methods

For the numerical model, the case of an irregular pipe system composed of a main pipe with diameter equal to 51.4 mm is used as reference. This system is composed of two branches $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$, joined together, composed of 1.5 m long sections inclined at $30^{\circ}$ with respect to the horizontal axis, which are connected with horizontal pipes with length equal to 1.5 m . The drainage is performed by two pipes with an internal
diameter of 23.6 mm and a length of 0.35 m , which at outlets there are two ball valves ( $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ ) with a nominal diameter of 25 mm . At the upstream end, there is an air valve with a known diameter, which admits air into the system (Figure 1).

Five cases where an air valve with an inlet diameter equal to 9.375 mm and different air pocket sizes were considered to evaluate its influence. At the upper end, a pressure transducer was installed, and in the horizontal pipe (right), Ultrasonic Doppler Velocimetry (UDV) was installed to measure the water velocities during the occurrence of the transient phenomenon. Table 1 presents the information of the cases analysed.


Figure 1. Experimental diagram

Table 1. Specifications of the test cases.

| Case | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Air pocket size $(\mathrm{m})$ | null | 0.54 | 0.92 | 1.32 | 2.12 |
| Air valve diameter $(\mathrm{mm})$ | 9.375 | 9.375 | 9.375 | 9.375 | 9.375 |

### 2.1. Fundamental equations

The analysis of the air-water interaction has become a challenge in numerical modelling (Bombardelli 2012; Fuertes-Miquel et al. 2019), considering that air and water have totally different physical and thermodynamic properties (Fuertes 2001). The complexity of analysing the air-water interaction increases considering the changes in flow regimes from laminar to turbulent that occur in the water phase (Ghorai and Nigam 2006; Muralha et al. 2020). The fluids in pipeline systems with air pockets inside and with admitted air are susceptible to abrupt changes in velocity in complex areas, such as contractions and ball valves, which lead to the formation of turbulent processes that are difficult to predict in numerical modelling. During the drainage process, subsonic flow occurs in the air valve. A two-dimensional numerical model has the advantage of quickly simulating the interaction of multiphase (air-water) flows with less computational memory requirement (Zhou et al. 2011; Besharat et al. 2016, 2018).

So it has been an appropriate alternative to develop models that require less computational time. The main challenge of the implementation of the numerical model to represent the drainage of pipes with entrapped air and air valves is the search for the equilibrium between a good approximation of the numerical results to the experimental results and an optimization of the computational time.

The simulation of the drainage process was performed with the open-source software OpenFOAM v1912 using the compressibleInterFoam solver. This computational solver is capable of simulating the two fluids (air-water) in the condition of immiscible
non-isothermal compressible fluids using a method of interface capturing based on the VOF phase fraction (Hirt and Nichols 1981). The fundamental equations for the solution of the numerical model are the Navier-Stokes equations, which consider a mixed density ( $\rho_{m}$ ) and mixed viscosity ( $\mu_{m}$ ) for each cell analysed (Eqs. (1) and (2)).

$$
\begin{gather*}
\nabla \cdot\left(\rho_{m} \mathbf{u}\right)=0  \tag{1}\\
\frac{\partial\left(\rho_{m} \mathbf{u}\right)}{\partial t}+\nabla \cdot\left(\rho_{m} \mathbf{u u}\right)=-\nabla p+\nabla \cdot\left[\mu_{m}\left(\nabla \mathbf{u}+\nabla \mathbf{u}^{T}\right)\right]+\rho_{m} \mathbf{g} \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

Where $\mathbf{u}$ is the velocity vector, $p$ is the absolute pressure of the fluid, $T$ is the temperature, and $\mathbf{g}$ is the gravitational acceleration vector.
$\rho_{m}$ and $\mu_{m}$ are defined as a function of the air fraction $\left(\alpha_{a}\right)$. When $\alpha_{a}=1.0$, it indicates that the analysed cell is completely filled with air, and when $\alpha_{a}=0.0$ it represents the condition of the cell being completely filled with water. Equations for modelling the density and viscosity of a cell are presented below:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \rho_{m}=\alpha_{a} \rho_{a}+\left(1-\alpha_{a}\right) \rho_{w}  \tag{3}\\
& \mu_{m}=\alpha_{a} \mu_{a}+\left(1-\alpha_{a}\right) \mu_{w} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Where $\rho_{a}$ and $\rho_{w}$ correspond to the densities of air and water, respectively, and $\mu_{a}$ and $\mu_{w}$ to the dynamic viscosities of air and water, respectively.

### 2.2. Turbulence model

The control of turbulence processes has been a complex factor to which several investigations have been dedicated due to the difficulty of predicting turbulence with certainty from a numerical point of view. A numerical model that simulates the behaviour of fluids in a turbulent regime is susceptible to obtaining arbitrary values (Menter 1994). To avoid the problems associated with arbitrary values due to turbulent phenomena, turbulence models are added. To adequately represent the turbulence processes in the numerical model, the $k$ - $\omega$ SST turbulence model was used, which merges the best characteristics of the turbulence models of two equations: the $k-\epsilon$ model (Launder and Spalding 1983), and the $k$ - $\omega$ standart model (Wilcox 1988). This model is suitable in the presence of aerodynamic flows and where adverse pressure gradients are present (Menter 1994, 2009). The turbulence model is represented by the following system of equations:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial(\rho k)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial\left(\rho u_{i} k\right)}{\partial t}=P_{k}-\beta^{*} \rho k \omega+\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left[\left(\mu+\sigma_{k} \mu_{t}\right) \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_{i}}\right] \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial(\rho \omega)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial\left(\rho u_{i} \omega\right)}{\partial t}=\alpha \frac{1}{\nu_{t}} P_{k}-\beta \rho \omega^{2}+\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left[\left(\mu+\sigma_{\omega} \mu_{t}\right) \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_{i}}\right]+2\left(1-F_{1}\right) \rho \sigma_{w 2} \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_{i}} \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_{i}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $k$ is the turbulent kinetic energy, $\omega$ is the dissipation frequency, $F_{1}$ is a blending function, $\rho$ and $u_{i}$ correspond to the density and velocity of the specific flow, respectively; $\mu$ and $\mu_{t}$ correspond to the laminar and turbulent dynamic viscosity, respectively; $\nu_{t}$ is the turbulent kinematic viscosity. The term $P_{k}$ is given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{k}=\mu \frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\left(\frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The constants of the turbulence model $k-\omega S S T$ are arranged through equations with the blending function, as written in the following equations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\alpha=\alpha_{1} F_{1}+\alpha_{2}\left(1-F_{1}\right) \\
\beta=\beta_{1} F_{1}+\beta_{2}\left(1-F_{1}\right) \\
\sigma_{k}=\sigma_{k 1} F_{1}+\sigma_{k 2}\left(1-F_{1}\right) \\
\sigma_{\omega}=\sigma_{\omega 1} F_{1}+\sigma_{\omega 2}\left(1-F_{1}\right) \tag{11}
\end{gather*}
$$

where the constants of the turbulence model $k-\omega S S T$ according to Menter (2009) are defined with the following values: $\alpha_{1}=0.555, \alpha_{2}=0.44, \beta^{*}=0.09, \beta_{1}=0.075$, $\beta_{2}=0.0828, \sigma_{k 1}=0.85, \sigma_{k 2}=1.0, \sigma_{\omega 1}=0.5$, and $\sigma_{\omega 2}=0.856$.

The turbulence model works with wall functions for the two variables of the model $k-\omega S S T$, These wall functions are adequately adapted for different conditions of the dimensionless distance function $(y+)$, and replace the solution of the turbulence models by a semi-empirical formulas based on the wall-law (Spalding 1961; Menter and Esch 2001; Blazek 2015).

### 2.3. Numerical schemes

The numerical modelling schemes were defined through a first-order time discretization, defined and implicit, applying a linear interpolation scheme and a surface normal gradient scheme with non-orthogonal explicit correction for the numerical model. The Gradient and Laplacian schemes were defined based on secondorder linear Gaussian integration methods and a second-order undefined-conservative Gaussian scheme, respectively. The Mesh-Wave method was used to calculate the wall distances. The divergence schemes were defined in first-order Gaussian integration
methods. Table 2 summarizes the schemes used in the numerical models based on OpenFOAM User Guide Software (Greenshields 2018).

Table 2. Numerical schemes of the model.

| Parameters | Schemes | Numerical behavior |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Time | Euler | First order, bound, implicit |
| Gradient | Gauss Linear | Second order, unbounded |
| Divergence | Gauss Upwind | First order, bound |
| Laplacian | Gauss Linear | Second order, unbounded |
| Normal gradient | Corrected | Explicit, non-orthogonal |
| Interpolation | Linear | Second order, unbounded |

### 2.4. Mesh and geometric domain

The mesh is a fundamental component in the solution of the numerical model, which must meet certain physical criteria to ensure a valid solution. The mesh is composed of multiple cells that represent small finite volumes connected by their vertices and faces. The mesh structure will allow the numerical model to define a convergence criterion and a degree of stability from the point of view of spatial discretization.

For the entire geometric domain of the numerical model, a structured mesh was used, which is used in simple geometries to obtain adequate numerical precision. The meshing used should guarantee a reduction in the computational memory required due to structural connectivity between cells and the ease of calculation methods to perform iterative processes (Ali et al. 2017). In the near-wall zone, a gradual refinement was performed to capture with greater accuracy the numerical values generated in the viscous sublayer. Additionally, cells were refined in the areas where abrupt changes in velocity were occurred.

The ball valves $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ were represented by dynamic mesh, through the mesh motion function, which guarantees a rotation defined tabulating the rotation data vs time, considering manual opening of the ball valves during the draining process.

On the other hand, to adequately represent the section changes generated in the air valve and the contraction in the final sections in the two-dimensional numerical model, a slot with geometric aspect ratio was applied between the diameters associated with changes in section and the main diameter of the pipe (Aguirre-Mendoza et al. 2021). This geometrical aspect ratio guarantees an adjustment of the mass flow conditions in a two-dimensional analysis during abrupt section changes such as contractions and expansions. The aspect ratio is represented by the following equation.

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{c, n m}=\left(\gamma \frac{D_{c}}{D_{p}}\right) D_{c} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $D_{c, n m}$ corresponds to the contraction diameter applied to the twodimensional model. $D_{c}$ and $D_{p}$ correspond to the experimental diameters associated with the contraction and the main pipe, respectively. $\gamma$ is an adjustment factor to adapt the mass flow conditions to the functions of the two-dimensional numerical model. Values of $\gamma$ between 0.9 and 1.0 guarantee an admissible error in numerical results (Aguirre-Mendoza et al. 2021). A value of 0.95 is used as adjustment factor.

The geometric domain was decomposed into 29909 cells with an average size of 0.003 m . Figure 2 represents the geometric domain of the numerical model and its spatial
distribution.

### 2.5. Initial and boundary conditions

It is defined that the numerical model has initial velocity values equal to zero ( $u=$ $0 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ ) at the inlet, outlet, and walls. The pressure of the air pocket at the inlet and outlet is initially equal to the atmospheric pressure $\left(p=101325 \mathrm{~N} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$, since the system is exposed to the environment. The velocity condition is defined as a function of the absolute pressure in the inlet and outlet, and a noSlip condition in the walls. The pressure conditions at the inlet and outlet work under a function of absolute pressure, which depends on the atmospheric pressure and the pressure exerted by the fluids dynamics, and the pressure condition in the walls is defined as that generated by the displacement of the fluids. The initial temperature of the entire system was $T=20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ at room temperature during the experiments. Table 3 details the boundary conditions defined by the OpenFOAM software, which are adequately fit to the experimental conditions.


Figure 2. Decomposition of the geometric domain of the two-dimensional numerical model with mesh and boundaries.

Table 3. Boundary Conditions - OpenFOAM.

| Variables | Inlet | Outlet | Walls |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p\left(\mathrm{~N} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$ | totalPressure | prghTotalPressure | fixedFluxPressure |
| $u(\mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s})$ | pressureInletOutletVelocity | pressureInletOutletVelocity | noSlip |
| $T(\mathrm{~K})$ | totalTemperature | inletOutlet | zeroGradient |
| $k\left(\mathrm{~m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right)$ | turbulentIntensityKineticEnergyInlet | inletOutlet | kqRWallFunction |
| $\omega\left(\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}^{3}\right)$ | turbulentMixingLengthFrequencyInlet | inletOutlet | omegaWallFunction |

## 3. Analysis of results and calibration model

The different cases were executed with time steps equal to 0.01 s for a time of 7.0 s. For the simulations, a portable PC with an AMD Ryzen 53500 U processor with a maximum turbo frequency of $3.7 \mathrm{GHz}, 4$ cores and 8 threads, and 8 GB of RAM was used. All the cases proposed to evaluate the numerical model that represents the different drainage tests of the irregular pipeline considered fully opened ball valves $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ with gradual and increasing opening. Simultaneously, with an opening time of
1.6 s , the openings of the ball valves allowed drainage at the two ends of the irregular pipe, expansion of the air pocket and admission of air through the air valve.

One of the methodologies for estimating the percentage approximation of the results of the numerical model is the determination of the relative error between the experimental results and the results of the proposed numerical model. For the above, Equation (13) was used.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{r}=\left|\frac{x_{\text {test }}-x_{n . m .}}{x_{\text {test }}}\right| * 100 \% \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $\epsilon_{r}$ is the relative error, $x_{\text {test }}$ is the value of the experimental test, and $x_{n . m}$. is the comparative value corresponding to the numerical model. For the determination of the relative error of each test, values of pressure and length of drained water column of the experimental tests was compared with those of the numerical model in different instants of time, with time steps of 0.1 s , and an average relative error was estimated between each measured pattern.

### 3.1. Subatmospheric pressures

Figure 3 shows the pressure patterns obtained from the numerical model for the different cases. The results show an adequate fit of the numerical models with the respective tests, with relative errors between $0.07 \%$ and $0.17 \%$ (Table 4), where the minimum subatmospheric pressure heads are between 10.15 and 10.29 m. Figure 3a shows that Case 1 (null air pocket size) reaches a minimum absolute pressure of 10.15 m at a time of 1.66 s . Subsequently, due to the action of the admitted air, the absolute pressure pattern begins to increase gradually until reaching the atmospheric condition again. Figure 3e shows the comparison of the pressure patterns of the experimental test and the numerical model corresponding to Case 5 , where the subatmospheric pressure head reaches a minimum value of 10.29 m in a time of 1.66 s . The pressure differences occur inversely as the size of the initial air pocket changes in the different cases, where the smaller air pocket generates greater air pressure differences of the air pocket. This pressure drop during the opening times of the ball valves in each case was linear due to the effects generated by the manual opening of ball valves $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$.

Table 4. Relative error of pressure patterns results (Tests vs. Numerical Models).

| Case | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\epsilon_{r}$ | $0.10 \%$ | $0.08 \%$ | $0.17 \%$ | $0.12 \%$ | $0.07 \%$ |

### 3.2. Drainage velocity of water columns

Figure 4 shows that the numerical values of the model do not fit adequately during the initial time, corresponding to the opening time of the ball valves. This is because, in the experimental measurements, the UDV had deficiencies in detecting the displacement of water during drainage; however, from a time of 1.6 s to complete drainage, the results of the numerical model fit appropriately to those obtained experimentally. The drainage velocities of the numerical model reached peak values between 0.18 and 0.41 $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ between 1.66 and 1.68 s .


Figure 3. Comparison of pressure patterns for Cases 1 to 5 .


Figure 4. Comparison of velocity patterns for Cases 1 to 5 .

### 3.3. Water column length

Figure 5 shows the variation in the length of water columns 1 and 2 in the two pipe branches $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$, respectively. During the drainage of the water columns, the values of $L$ decrease as a function of time; however, when the water column reaches the horizontal sections, part of the water is retained since the air-water interface in that area is parallel to the axis of the horizontal pipe sections. Overall, drainage in the different cases are adequately associated with the experimental tests with relative errors between $2.1 \%$ and $3.7 \%$ (Table 5).

Figure 5a shows the displacement of water columns 1 and 2 of Case 1. The water columns decrease, reaching the horizontal sections at 6 s each. On the other hand, Figure 5 e, corresponding to Case 5 , shows that the initial lengths of water columns 1 and 2 are 2.73 and 2.53 m , respectively, where both water columns reach the horizontal sections in 3 s . The simultaneity of the drainage in the two pipe branches is due to the motion of similar meshes that simulate the openings of ball valves $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ in the numerical model.


Figure 5. Comparison of water column patterns variation for Cases 1 to 5 .

Table 5. Relative error of water column length results (Tests vs. Numerical Models).

| Case | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\epsilon_{r}$ | $3.7 \%$ | $2.3 \%$ | $2.7 \%$ | $2.1 \%$ | $2.1 \%$ |

## 4. Validation of the numerical model

To demonstrate the robustness of the numerical model, a sixth case (Case 6) was simulated for an air valve with a diameter of 3.175 mm , which was not calibrated during the simulations. Case 6 has an initial air pocket of 0.92 m (equal to the air pocket size of Case 3) to compare the pressure patterns. To simulate Case 6, the dimensions corresponding to the inlet of the air admitted within the geometric domain were adjusted. Figure 6 shows that the pressure pattern results of the numerical model of Case 6 fit adequately to the experimental test, with a relative error in the numerical results of $0.22 \%$.


Figure 6. Comparison of the pressure patterns of Case 6.

From a physical point of view, the absolute pressure of the air pocket reaches a minimum value of 9.85 m in 1.66 s ; subsequently, there are slight oscillations in the pressure of the air pocket, with a recovery of pressure in the following seconds. This numerical model associated with Case 6 has a smaller-diameter air valve than Cases 1 to 5 , which generates critical subatmospheric pressures, and consequently, a slowing of the emptying process.

Case 6 with an air valve of diameter equal to 3.175 mm was simulated under the same conditions of initial air pocket size ( 0.92 m ), degree and opening time of ball valves similar to Case 3, which has an air valve with a diameter of 9.375 mm . Figure 7 clearly shows the air-water interaction in the drainage process at different instants of time for Cases 3 and 6 , where it is shown that the displacement of the water columns is faster in Case 3 than in Case 6 .

It is important to highlight the importance of air valve diameter size. Good sizing of the air admission devices directly influences the control of the thermodynamic process of air pocket expansion and the mitigation of subatmospheric pressures. Additionally, it was possible to demonstrate the influence of the pressure of the air pocket on the drainage velocity of the water columns since the displacement of the water phase is directly related to the pressure conditions of the air pocket as it is considered a compressible fluid.

## 5. Conclusions

The two-dimensional numerical model adequately simulated the air-water interaction in the drainage processes of an irregular pipe with air admitted under different air pocket sizes and for air valve diameters ( 3.175 and 9.375 mm ). Each modelled case


Figure 7. Contours of the air-water interaction - Case 3 vs. Case 6 .
adequately predicts its respective experimental tests, obtaining appropriate relative errors for the validation of its numerical results. Controlling air admitted through the air valves in the numerical model influenced the rapid expansion of the air pocket and the progressive recovery of the pressure of the air pocket, and it leads to rapid drainage of the irregular pipeline. Controlling drainage rate and the subatmospheric pressure patterns are influenced by the adequate sizing of the opening diameter of the air valve.

The two-dimensional numerical model allows a simplified analysis that guarantees less computational time and good numerical approximations. The use of the compressibleInterFoam solver in the OpenFOAM software was adequate to analyse the water-air interaction process by considering air and water as compressible fluids, a condition that resembles real conditions. On the other hand, the $k-\omega S S T$ turbulence model was properly adjusted for the analysis of the air-water interaction in near and far-wall zone of the two-dimensional numerical model and in the air valve where vortices occur due to the phenomenon of turbulence due to the admitted air. Based on the above, the following points associated with the aspects of the numerical model can be concluded:

- Two-dimensional numerical resolution models are a useful alternative in the analysis of drainage processes in pipeline systems with admitted air, allowing adequate results to be obtained.
- The simulation of the admitted air in numerical resolution models that simulate emptying pipes requires adequate turbulence models that adjust to the presence of subsonic aerodynamic flows.
- The air-water interaction can be visualized in detail for the different admitted air conditions associated with the different air valves, where it is shown that the drainage process tends to be slower for air valves with smaller intake diameters.


## Nomenclature/Notation

$D_{c, n m} \quad=$ contraction diameter - numerical model (m)
$D_{c} \quad=$ contraction diameter - experimental test (m)
$D_{p} \quad=$ main pipe diameter - experimental test (m)
$F_{1} \quad=$ blending function (-)
$\mathrm{g} \quad=$ gravitational acceleration vector $\left(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right)$
$k \quad=$ turbulent kinetic energy $\left(\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right)$
$L \quad=$ length of water column (m)
$L_{1} \quad=$ pipe branch - left
$L_{2} \quad=$ pipe branch - right
$P_{k} \quad=$ shear stress (Pa)
$p \quad=$ absolute pressure $\left(\mathrm{N} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$
$T \quad=$ temperature ( ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ )
$t \quad=$ time (s)
$\mathbf{u} \quad=$ velocity vector $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$
$u \quad=$ velocity ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ )
$V_{1} \quad=$ ball valve - left
$V_{2} \quad=$ ball valve - right
$y^{+} \quad=$ distance function $(-)$
$\alpha_{a} \quad=$ fraction of air volume ( - )
$\gamma \quad=$ unit weight of water $\left(\mathrm{N} / \mathrm{m}^{3}\right)$
$\epsilon_{r} \quad=$ relative error (\%)
$\mu \quad=$ dynamic viscosity $\left(\mathrm{Ns} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$
$\nu \quad=$ kinematic viscosity $\left(\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}\right)$
$\rho \quad=$ density $\left(\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}\right)$
$\omega \quad=$ dissipation frequency $(1 / \mathrm{s})$
Subscripts
$i \quad=$ refers to the spatial component in $i$
$j \quad=$ refers to the spatial component in $j$
$a \quad=$ refers to air (e.g., air density)
$w \quad=$ refers to water (e.g., water density)
$m \quad=$ refers to the mixture between air and water (e.g., mixed density)
$t \quad=$ refers to a turbulent condition (e.g., turbulent dynamic viscosity)

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