



Statistical Description on the Role of Turbulence and Grain Interference on Particle Entrainment from Gravel Beds

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1 STATISTICAL DESCRIPTION ON THE ROLE OF TURBULENCE AND GRAIN 2 INTERFERENCE ON PARTICLE ENTRAINMENT FROM GRAVEL BEDS

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4 **Abstract**

5 A complete understanding of the role of grain-scale particle-flow interaction in sediment
6 entrainment and transport has still not been achieved in spite of recent technological advancement
7 in measurement capabilities. In this study the initial motion of natural sediment particles in a gravel
8 deposit was detected and combined with simultaneous local measurements of the velocities on a
9 horizontal plane located above the bed surface using a three-component stereoscopic PIV. A series of
10 experimental tests with increasing low values of boundary shear stress were conducted. The
11 acquisition system allowed coupling between streamwise and vertical near-bed velocity and the
12 entrainment of more than 900 individual grains. Initial analysis agreed with previous observations on
13 the predominance of sweeps (Quadrant IV) and to a lesser extent of outward interactions (Quadrant
14 I) in entraining gravel particles. However, the latter were found to move sediments just as efficiently
15 as sweeps impacting on particles that had long periods of rest and so were exhibiting higher levels of
16 stability. This behavior suggests that sweep-induced lift based on Bernoulli's principle does not
17 entirely explain the generation of vertical forces on highly stable bed particles. Closer inspection of
18 the data revealed that many entrainments were correlated to occasions when stable bed grains
19 interacted with grains travelling in their close vicinity. Around 30% of the entrained population was
20 observed to initiate motion in this type of situation. For this subsample of entrainment events
21 outward interactions were found to be comparatively more effective than for the non-interference
22 case, while the relative contribution of sweeps exhibited an opposite trend.

23 **Keywords:** Quadrant Analysis, Entrainment, Turbulence.

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24 INTRODUCTION

25 It is broadly recognized that grain entrainment occurs when pressure gradients around a surface
26 particle generate drag and lift forces of sufficient magnitude and duration that exceed some critical
27 threshold thus dislodging grains from their rest position. The turbulent nature of the local flow field,
28 although organized in repeating and coherent flow patterns (Kline et al. 1967), and the evidence that
29 the forces that resist motion are not a simple function of the submerged grain weight (Kirchner et al.
30 1990) are two key elements that render the entrainment of sediments in rivers an intermittent and
31 almost random process as documented by Drake et al. (1988). The pioneering studies by Einstein
32 (1950), Sutherland (1967) and Grass (1970) have contributed to the development of modeling
33 approaches that described particle entrainment using probabilistic concepts (e.g., Cheng and Chiew
34 1998; Papanicolaou et al. 2002; Wu and Chou 2003; Hofland and Battjes 2005), and technical
35 capabilities achieved in the last two decades have now created the possibility to test such concepts.
36 Recently, two additional aspects were experimentally investigated that characterize physical
37 interactions at the sediment-flow interface. First, it was clarified that the duration of the
38 hydrodynamic forces, not only their magnitude, is important in determining whether a grain will be
39 entrained, thus arguing that a threshold criterion would be better described by an impulse rather
40 than a force balance (Diplas et al. 2008; Celik et al. 2010; Valyrakis et al. 2010). Second, while most
41 past investigations have assumed turbulent flow and bed particle arrangement to be statistically
42 independent, evidence was found that they have dependence (Papanicolaou et al. 2001; Dey et al.
43 2011a; Tregnaghi et al. 2012a).

44 There still exist questions on the relative contribution that different types of coherent flow
45 structures, defined through the decomposition of the Reynolds Stress into four quadrants, hereafter
46 denoted as Q-I, Q-II, Q-III and Q-IV (Lu and Willmarth 1973), actually play in terms of particle
47 entrainment. While Sutherland (1967) formerly recognized the importance of flow structures on the
48 initial motion of sediments, Heathershaw and Thorne (1985) and Nelson et al. (1995) were among
49 the first who experimentally demonstrated a quantitative correspondence between turbulent bursts

50 and the dislodgment of particles from the bed surface. Both studies reported that the pickup of
51 sediments was found to be correlated to the instantaneous value of the streamwise velocity (Q-I and
52 Q-IV events), although sweeps (Q-IV) were considered to be predominant due to their higher
53 frequency of occurrence. More recently, Dwivedi et al. (2011a) established that sweeps were
54 associated with higher-magnitude lift and drag forces than those associated with outward
55 interactions (Q-I), thus suggesting the latter were of less importance in supplying bedload flux.
56 Similar conclusions can be found in Dey et al. (2011b), however earlier observations by Heathershaw
57 and Thorne (1985) revealed that outward interactions, although weaker and less frequent than
58 sweeps, are still capable of causing sediment movement at intermediate (i.e., not extreme) values of
59 the local velocity fluctuations.

60 These findings partly reflect a lack of a complete understanding of the processes that generate
61 hydrodynamic forces on grains. While it is quite well accepted that the instantaneous drag force
62 strongly correlates well with the instantaneous streamwise velocity (Schmeeckle et al. 2007), the
63 mechanism contributing to the lift term lacks such a complete understanding. Detert et al. (2010)
64 found that high-speed fluid patterns were associated with pressure-drop events, which is consistent
65 with the suggestion that sweeps are the dominant cause of bedload flux. On the other hand,
66 Schmeeckle et al. (2007) reported that the vertical force was not dominantly determined by Bernoulli
67 pressure differences across the particle as they measured poor correlation between the streamwise
68 velocity and lift force, as observed also by Dwivedi et al. (2011b) for low particle exposures. This
69 uncertainty is dramatically increased by the evidence that the rate of grain entrainment is highly
70 sensitive to very modest changes in flow conditions for near-threshold conditions (Nelson et al. 1995;
71 Sumer et al. 2003).

72 In all these studies velocity or force measurements were made at a single point or on a solitary
73 particle having fixed or unnatural pocket geometry. No spatial observations were made of the fluid
74 velocities linked to the initial grain motion over natural beds, and little attention was given to the
75 role of local surface irregularities in the response of different grains to turbulent events generating

76 similar-magnitude drag and lift forces. This concept was first illustrated by Grass (1970) explaining
77 that the entrainment of particles is more likely to occur as the overlap increases between the
78 probability distributions of the hydrodynamic forces and of the resisting forces opposing to motion.
79 Evidence was provided by Papanicolaou et al. (2001), who obtained single-point velocity
80 measurements directly correlated with the movement of a ‘target’ particle displaced over three
81 different regularly-packed surfaces. They demonstrated that these different arrangements affected
82 significantly the frequency and magnitude of turbulent events and, in turn, the probability of
83 sediment entrainment. Further observations by Dey et al. (2011b, 2012) confirmed that near-bed
84 turbulence parameters exhibited dissimilar patterns caused by differences in bed conditions.

85 The experiments described in the present note were focused on providing a more complete
86 explanation of the range of individual grain entrainments observed from deposits of natural gravel
87 and on the specific influence of the local flow field. The experiments were designed so that grain
88 entrainments could be clearly identified and linked to simultaneous measurements of the near-bed
89 local flow field. The statistical analysis of grain motion data and fluctuations of the local flow field
90 was coupled with information on the relative stability of bed particles, estimated based on the
91 recorded duration of their resting periods and on direct observations of the interference generated
92 by particles travelling in the close vicinity of grains that were entrained.

93 **EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT AND PROCEDURE**

94 A 12-m-long and 0.46-m-wide tilting laboratory flume was used for the experiments. The initial 1.5-
95 m-long reach contained a static gravel surface, the remaining flume length was filled with river gravel
96 with mean size $d_{50} = 5.0$ mm and standard deviation $\sigma_g = 1.3$ mm, creating a well-mixed deposit with
97 no appreciable bed forms. No sediment was artificially fed into the flume and the bed was gradually
98 water-worked by the flow thus removing unnatural grain pocket geometries. All the measurements
99 were collected within 30 minutes from the start of the experiment before degradation occurred and
100 the surface particle arrangement significantly changed. The same procedure ensured that similar
101 water-working conditions were established in all tests, which were run with constant relative

102 submergence by setting the water depth to $h_u = 100$ mm. Tests with increasing boundary shear stress
103 levels were achieved by adjusting the slope and flow rate to attain uniform flow. Conditions ranging
104 from close to the threshold of motion to up to 1.5 times the critical Shields' parameter $\tau_c^* = 0.057$
105 (Shields 1936) were used. Table 1 shows the main hydraulic parameters for the three tests analyzed,
106 namely T1, T2 and T3.

107 A stereoscopic two-camera PIV (Particle Image Velocimetry) system was used allowing for the
108 reconstruction of the three-component velocity vector on a horizontal plane above the bed. This was
109 combined with a synchronized third camera devoted to grain tracking. The recording system
110 measured above a bed area of 220 mm by 40 mm located on the centerline of the flume 6.70 m from
111 the inlet as illustrated in Figure 1a. The size of the observation area was selected as a compromise
112 between attaining a sediment-size spatial image resolution and detecting a statistically significant
113 number of grains over a representative area of the bed surface. A glass sheet was located at the
114 selected water depth to prevent image distortion due to water surface oscillations. The floating
115 panel was designed such as to produce negligible interference as it was typically immersed by < 2
116 mm and caused no larger surface waves in the wake than those generated by the free water surface,
117 without significantly affecting the flow in the near bed as discussed by Detert et al. (2010). Although
118 variations in turbulence intensity cannot be excluded, data presented in next sections reveal typical
119 features of unaltered flows over rough boundaries.

120 The two PIV cameras-2 and -3 recorded image pairs in double-frame mode (time delay between
121 frames $\Delta t_L = 2$ ms) of neutrally buoyant seeding particles ($d_p = 200 \mu\text{m}$, $\rho_p = 995 \text{ kg/m}^3$) at a frequency
122 $f_R = 45$ Hz. Two pulsed lasers (Nd:YAG) with expanding optics generated a high-intensity light sheet
123 approximately $\Delta Z_L = 3$ -mm-thick located parallel and at $Z_L = 8$ mm above the original sediment bed.
124 The vertical position of the field of view was selected such as to avoid disturbances with the bed
125 roughness elements and with the bedload flux which was observed to form roughly one-diameter-
126 thick layer, but well within the wall-shear layer. The thickness of the light sheet was adjusted so as to
127 obey the 1/4 rule (Adrian 1991), i.e. the maximum vertical displacement of seeding particles was less

128 than about $0.25 \cdot \Delta Z_L$ to minimize out-of-plane loss of particles. Each image pair was divided into
129 interrogation areas that corresponded to a physical area of approximately 4.3×4.3 mm, with a 75%
130 overlap resulting in a square mesh grid comprised of $N_G = 35 \times 185 = 6475$ nodes, corresponding to a
131 velocity measurement spatial resolution of 1.1 mm in both the streamwise and lateral directions.
132 Figure 1b depicts the location of the velocity measurements over the sediment background in order
133 to illustrate the spatial location of the velocity vectors compared to the position of the bed particles.
134 Due to geometrical constraints, the opening angle between the two PIV cameras was approximately
135 32 degrees, this resulted in the measurement precision of the out-of-plane component to be less
136 accurate compared to typical error estimates reported by, e.g., Dwivedi et al. (2011) for two-
137 component PIV. Details of the reconstruction geometry and relevant error analysis are reported in
138 the Appendix.

139 The bed grain camera-1 was synchronized with the PIV recording system and focused on the
140 sediment bed surface in order to detect individual grain motion. The bed was illuminated by a white
141 strobe light that was triggered at the leading edge of the second laser pulse such as the image of the
142 bed was captured at the time of the second PIV frame. Individual grain entrainment, movement and
143 deposition were identified by direct inspection of the image sequences. The grain diameter d and the
144 position of the grain centroid (X_G, Y_G) along its motion was determined through the identification of a
145 bounding box around the grain at each time step. Initial inspection of the images revealed that a
146 significant proportion of grains (approx 30%) were observed to be entrained due to collision with or
147 interference by other moving grains, while some grains were observed to leave their rest position a
148 few frames (around a few hundredths of a second) after the passage of a moving grain in their
149 vicinity (i.e., within 1-diameter distance).

150 In total 18000 frames for the three experiments (corresponding to approximately 2 minutes for
151 each test) were processed resulting in nearly 900 identified entrainment events. Closer inspection of
152 bed images revealed that some grains were considered at rest while they were actually re-arranging
153 their positions by shaking and rolling around their center, thus not fully achieving a proper condition

154 of rest. A threshold equal to 0.2 s (corresponding to 10 frames) was imposed as the minimum rest
155 time to exclude these 'biased' entrainment events from the statistics. The next section discusses how
156 grain displacements were associated with the near-bed flow field by correlating individual
157 entrainment events to the 'instantaneous' velocity vector fluctuations measured at the closest
158 position of the projection of the grain centroid on the laser plane, i.e. at (X_G, Y_G, Z_L) .

159 ANALYSIS OF NEAR-BED FLOW AND GRAIN ENTRAINMENT

160 Double-averaged Turbulence Intensity and Conditional Reynolds Shear Stresses

161 The PIV dataset includes the time series of the streamwise, lateral and stream-normal velocity
162 components (namely u , v and w) that are also distributed over the whole area of observation. Each
163 component x can be decomposed as $x = \langle \bar{x} \rangle + \tilde{x}'$, where $\langle \bar{x} \rangle$ is the double-averaged mean and \tilde{x}' is
164 the fluctuating term over finite time and spatial scales. A summary of the double-averaged mean and
165 of the root mean square (*RMS*, or standard deviation for zero mean) of the fluctuating term, \tilde{x}'_{RMS} , is
166 presented in Table 2 for each velocity component. Given the relatively long velocity time series with
167 imposed uniform flow depth, the size of the area of observation, and the statistically homogenous
168 irregularities of the bed surface (i.e., uniformly-distributed sediment with no bed forms developed
169 during the experiments), it can be reasonably assumed that over the X and Y coordinates
170 $\langle \bar{x} \rangle \cong \bar{x}(X, Y)$ and $\tilde{x}' \cong x'(X, Y)$ where \bar{x} is the time-averaged mean and x' the time-fluctuating
171 term at a given position. This assumption is found to hold as the *RMS* of the difference $(\tilde{x}' - x')$ is less
172 than about 8% of the *RMS* of \tilde{x}' for all the three velocity components and for all tests. For
173 comparison, values of \tilde{u}'_{RMS} are slightly less than 1.7-1.8 the shear velocity, which is consistent with
174 vertical profiles of time-averaged turbulence intensity proposed by Kironoto and Graf (1994) and
175 following approximations by Nikora and Goring (2000) at normalized distance from the mean bed
176 approximately $Z_L/h_U \approx 0.10$. The ratio $\tilde{v}'_{RMS}/\tilde{u}'_{RMS}$ that characterizes flow anisotropy is close to 0.70 as
177 proposed by Nezu and Nakagawa (1993), while $\tilde{w}'_{RMS}/\tilde{u}'_{RMS}$ slightly overestimates the theoretical
178 value of 0.55, which is possibly due to the larger error associated with the vertical component. The

179 relevant *RMS* of the time-fluctuating terms u'_{RMS} , v'_{RMS}/u'_{RMS} , and w'_{RMS}/u'_{RMS} were found do exhibit
 180 the same characteristics and values at all measurement points but varied within a limited range.

181 Following on the quasi-ergodic approximation of the turbulent scale decomposition, a quadrant
 182 analysis was performed at each position (X, Y) , in order to isolate the contributions to the Reynolds
 183 shear stress from outward interactions (Q-I), ejections (Q-II), inward interactions (Q-III) and sweeps
 184 (Q-IV), and to quantify the role of individual structures that mostly contribute to the entrainment of
 185 sediments. The time-fluctuating terms of streamwise and vertical components, u' and w' , were
 186 calculated by subtracting the time-averaged terms, \bar{u} and \bar{w} , to the local instantaneous velocities at
 187 each point (X, Y) of the PIV grid. Figure 2a shows the joint frequency distribution of u' and w' for run
 188 T1, which is given by the superimposition of the N_G distributions obtained at each point of the grid,
 189 thus including into a single plot all turbulent events that occurred either over the recording period or
 190 over the area of observation. This allowed a direct comparison with the frequency distribution of the
 191 u' and w' pairs associated with entrainment events that occurred at times and at locations that were
 192 undetermined a priori, by contrast with previous published works that examined the behavior of a
 193 single target particle at a known location prior to entrainment. The figure depicts the anticipated
 194 negative correlation associated with the Reynolds stress and the tilting of the distribution into
 195 quadrants II and IV, which is typically encountered in flows over rough boundaries with uniformly-
 196 size roughness elements (e.g., Nelson et al. 1995; Papanicolaou et al. 2001). The analysis confirmed
 197 the predominance in duration of ejections and sweeps, which together account for approximately
 198 the 60% of time occupied by the sequence of turbulence events (Table 3), where the relative
 199 duration T_i for each type i of structure is estimated as (Nikora and Goring 2000):

$$200 \quad T_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_j \lambda_j \quad (1)$$

201 where $\lambda_j = 1$ if $|u'w'| > H(\tilde{u}'_{RMS} \tilde{w}'_{RMS})$ and $\lambda_j = 0$ otherwise; N = number of measurements; H = hole-
 202 size parameter, with $H = 0$ for comparison with previous studies. For consistency with the current
 203 analysis, the product of the *RMS* of the time-spatial fluctuations is selected as a scale parameter.

204 The spatial resolution of the PIV grid enabled the collection of the three-component velocity data
 205 at a maximum distance of 0.7 mm from the grain's centroid projection on the laser plane for the
 206 entire duration of its motion. The time series of the velocity data were extracted from the PIV flow
 207 field records up to the instant in which the grain was entrained by the flow. This was determined by
 208 examining the records of images from the grain camera-1, and then tracking the particle motion back
 209 to the time of first detected particle movement. The most representative velocity values for the
 210 entrainment events were selected based on previous observations by Nelson et al. (1995) who found
 211 higher correlation with velocities measured approximately 0.1 s before transport occurred. Denoting
 212 with t_{start} the time when the grain was observed to initiate its motion, the velocity measurements
 213 were extracted at $t_{start} - 2\Delta t$, $t_{start} - \Delta t$, and t_{start} , where $\Delta t = 1/f_R = 0.022$ s. In the present experiments
 214 the duration of a bursting event was approximately $t_E = 0.05$ s (compares well with, e.g., Nikora and
 215 Goring 2000; Dey et al. 2011b), i.e. $t_E \approx 2\Delta t = 0.044$ s. Figure 2b illustrates the distribution of
 216 entrainment events associated with the u' and w' pairs computed as the average value over the
 217 period $2\Delta t$ preceding the event. This is superimposed to the curves delimiting the hyperbolic hole
 218 regions which are defined for consistency with the present approach as:

$$219 \quad |u'w'| = H(\tilde{u}'_{RMS} \cdot \tilde{w}'_{RMS}) \quad (2)$$

220 for the hole size parameter H ranging from 0 to 8. In order to enhance the accuracy of the match
 221 between the type of flow structure and the relevant particle motion, all entrainment events were
 222 excluded that were associated with flow velocities falling within the range $|w'| < \pm\epsilon_w$ and $|u'| < \pm\epsilon_u$,
 223 where ϵ_w and ϵ_u are the random error estimates of the vertical and streamwise components
 224 respectively (see Appendix). The diagram shows a predominance of sweeps and, to a lesser extent, of
 225 outward interactions in generating sediment motion. The frequency of occurrence of the four types
 226 of coherent structures associated with an entrainment event is reported in Table 3. The proportion
 227 of Q-I and Q-VI events that entrain grains is higher than their relevant proportion in the flow. Nearly

228 50% of flow events associated with entrainment is caused by sweeps with outward interactions
 229 causing more bedload entrainments than the combination of all ejections and inward interactions.

230 Figure 3b compares the conditional relative magnitude $|S_{i,H}|$ of each type i of structure within the
 231 fluid with the conditional relative magnitude of the structures associated with an entrainment event,
 232 where (Nikora and Goring 2000):

$$233 \quad S_{i,H} = \frac{1}{\langle u'w' \rangle N} \sum_j (u'_i w'_i) \lambda_j \quad (3)$$

234 with $\langle u'w' \rangle$ being the scaling shear stress term averaged over the area of observation (Table 2), and
 235 N the number of measurements or of detected particle entrainments. Figure 3a supports previous
 236 reporting that for weakly mobile beds within the wall-shear layer ($Z_U/h_U \approx 0.10$) the opposing events
 237 are approximately balanced, with both interactions becoming less significant for $H > 4$, while sweeps
 238 and ejections vanishing for $H > 8$ (Dey et al. 2012). Approaching closer the top of the bed particles
 239 ($Z/h_U \approx 0.02$, data not available in this study) would reveal increasing relative magnitude of Q-IV
 240 events, with the contributions from Q-I and Q-III events becoming more feeble. However, Figure 3b
 241 shows an alternate conclusion in that the higher the value of $|S_{i,H}|$ the more likely for a particle to be
 242 entrained, as in this latter case outward interactions become relatively more important, although
 243 sweeps still predominate. Denoting now E_i as the fraction of sediment entrained by the i -type
 244 structure, we define the ratio $\eta_i = E_i/T_i$ as the entrainment efficiency. Comparison between this and
 245 previous studies reported in Table 3 provides evidence that although sweeps move more sediment
 246 than outward interactions, individually, the latter exhibit comparable or even higher efficiencies.

247 **Conditional Turbulence Intensity and Grain Stability and Interference Effects**

248 High streamwise velocity fluctuations have been previously recognized to play a major role in grain
 249 entrainment. However results reported in this and in previous research are conflicting with other
 250 more recent works that see sweeps as the dominant mechanism as they are not only more frequent
 251 but also because are capable to generate larger form drag and lift due to Bernoulli pressure

252 difference on a particle (e.g., Detert et al. 2010; Dwivedi et al. 2011a; Dwivedi et al. 2011b). Here the
253 conditional turbulence intensity of the flow structures leading to an entrainment event is correlated
254 with additional information on the relative stability of and on the interference effects on the bed
255 particles that were entrained during the period of observation.

256 Visual examination of records of images from camera-1 and direct observations during the
257 experiments revealed that grain motion became apparent in isolated spots or in the form of
258 intermittent clusters of few particles, while general mobilization of the so called active layer was
259 never attained. The detected mobile population was found to have periods of rest, t_{REST} , before re-
260 entrainment following a decaying exponential distribution with mean rest time $\mu_{REST} \approx 3.5-4.0$ s, with
261 less than 10% of the sample resting on the bed for times longer than approximately 10-12 s. As Wu
262 and Yang (2004) observed that the mean resting time was longer for the more sheltered particles to
263 the flow, following a similar argument led us to identify those particles with longer resting periods as
264 having a higher ability to oppose the destabilizing action exerted by the flow. Closer image inspection
265 revealed that a significant number of grains, including approximately 30% of the entrained
266 population, initiated their motion immediately after the passage of other particles travelling in their
267 close vicinity. Such an entrainment occurrence could be caused by grain collision, however the
268 frequency of the acquisition system did not allow the actual moment of impact to be observed. This
269 type of event was defined as a grain-to-grain interference.

270 Figure 4a displays the variation of the conditional turbulence intensity u'_{RMS} with the hole-size
271 parameter H as a function of the resting period ($t_{REST} \geq t^*$, with t^* threshold selected based on the
272 probability distribution of the sample) of the entrained particles for coherent structures of type I
273 (outward interactions) and of type IV (sweeps) associated with an entrainment event without grain
274 interference (the no interference case). An interesting feature is that $u'_{RMS,IV}$ increases up to 20-25%
275 for longer rest times ($t_{REST} \geq 8$ s) compared to the whole examined population (corresponding to t_{REST}
276 ≥ 0.2 s), suggesting that sweeps dislodge the more stable particles by producing larger form drag and
277 Bernoulli's lift. On the other hand $u'_{RMS,I}$ does not exhibit any significant signature with varying the

278 rest time, i.e. with varying the forces opposing to the motion of bed particles, resulting that the
 279 normalized difference of the streamwise turbulence intensity between Q-IV and Q-I, defined as
 280 $\Delta u'_{RMS} = (u'_{RMS,IV} - u'_{RMS,I}) / \bar{u}'_{RMS}$, increases up to 50% for $t_{REST} \geq 8$ s (see Figure 4b). Sweeps were found to
 281 maintain fairly constant or slightly decreasing efficiency ($\eta_{IV} = 1.50$ to 1.60) in removing the more
 282 sheltered particles by strengthening those forces that are commonly associated with higher
 283 streamwise velocity fluctuations. This is consistent with the mechanism described by Dwivedi et al.
 284 (2011a). Unexpectedly, the entrainment efficiency of outward interactions was found to increase for
 285 longer particle rest times, with η_I ranging approximately from 1.35 up to 1.70 for $t_{REST} \geq 8$ s (see Table
 286 4). The result has no obvious explanation, thus the same analysis was performed for the conditional
 287 turbulence intensity due to the vertical component. Figure 5a depicts a reverse behavior compared
 288 with the former case as $w'_{RMS,IV}$ tends to decrease for longer resting periods, which indicates a
 289 suppression of the wake term contributing negatively to the total lift and counteracting the effect of
 290 Bernoulli's lift as discussed by Dwivedi et al. (2011b). Conversely $w'_{RMS,I}$ is seen to slightly increase
 291 with the time of rest, causing the difference of the relative vertical turbulence intensity between Q-IV
 292 and Q-I, namely $\Delta w'_{RMS} = (w'_{RMS,IV} - w'_{RMS,I}) / \bar{w}'_{RMS}$, to slowly reduce by up to -40% for $t_{REST} \geq 8$ s (Figure
 293 5b). Whether this evidence can provide sufficient justification for the observed increase of
 294 entrainment efficiency for outward interactions is not readily apparent and it will be discussed in
 295 more detail in the next section.

296 A similar analysis was carried out only for those grains that were seen to initiate motion after
 297 interference caused by other moving particles. Table 4 shows the entrainment efficiency for coherent
 298 structures of type I (outward interactions) and of type IV (sweeps) as a function of t_{REST} . Compared
 299 with the no interference case no correlation was observed between $w'_{RMS,IV}$ and $w'_{RMS,I}$, respectively,
 300 and the resting periods of the particles (data not presented). The only observed significant signature
 301 was an increase of $w'_{RMS,IV}$ and $w'_{RMS,I}$ with respect to the relevant 'no interference' events, with both
 302 intensities ranging from 0.15 m/s for $H = 0$ to 0.25 m/s for $H = 4$. The entrainment efficiencies of both

303 types of structures remain relatively constant up to $t_{REST} \geq 4$, for longer rest times outward
 304 interactions become more and more effective while sweeps become less efficient. The analysis
 305 further validates the predominance of sweeps, which combined together with outward interactions
 306 account for more than 75% of the entrainment events. However, outward interactions are seen to
 307 contribute globally more effectively compared with the no interference case, with relative
 308 proportion of entrained sediment E_I increasing from 26.9% to 31.3%; conversely sweeps are less
 309 effective with relative proportion of entrained sediment E_{IV} reducing from 47.1% to 43.7%.

310 **DISCUSSION**

311 The evidence that particles having longer resting periods are associated with increasing $u'_{RMS,IV}$
 312 combined with reduced $w'_{RMS,IV}$ is consistent with the mechanism suggested in recent studies that
 313 sweeps induce dislodgment of particles by causing larger combined form drag and Bernoulli's lift
 314 compared with outward interactions. This does not provide sufficient justification for regarding
 315 sweeps as the only dominant structure inducing the entrainment of bed particles. Following on
 316 Grass' concept of overlapping probabilities their relative stability also plays a major role (e.g.,
 317 Bottacin-Busolin et al. 2008; Tregnaghi et al. 2012b). A large fraction of less stable particles are
 318 moved by forces that have sufficiently larger magnitude than those generated by the mean flow but
 319 relatively smaller than the relevant extreme values, which, in turn, lead both sweeps and outward
 320 interactions to attain comparable entrainment efficiencies. A more subtle result is the observed
 321 increase of the efficiency of outward interactions with increasing particle stability. A possible
 322 explanation is that the vertical force is not adequately predicted solely by Bernoulli pressure
 323 differences.

324 According to Schmeeckle et al. (2007), an approximation of the hydrodynamic force \mathbf{F}_H exerted on
 325 the particle by the fluid can be obtained from the momentum balance of a particle:

$$326 \quad \mathbf{F}_H = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_D A |\mathbf{U}| \mathbf{U} + \rho_s V C_L \cdot \mathbf{U} \times \boldsymbol{\Omega} + \rho_s V \left\langle \frac{D\mathbf{U}}{Dt} \right\rangle_v \quad (4)$$

327 where A and V are the projection area and the volume of the particle, respectively; \mathbf{U} and $\mathbf{\Omega}$ the total
 328 velocity and vorticity of the fluid; C_D and C_L empirical drag and lift coefficients; D/Dt and $\langle \cdot \rangle_V$ denote,
 329 respectively, material derivative and average over the particle volume. The three terms on the right-
 330 hand side are the hydrodynamic drag, the hydrodynamic lift, and a force that arises from the
 331 acceleration of the fluid. Further assumptions on dominant terms lead the vertical components of
 332 the first two forces of Eq.(4) to be approximated as (van Radecke and Schulz-DuBois 1988):

$$333 \quad F_{H,z} = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_D A \bar{u} \cdot w + \rho_s V C_L \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial Z} \cdot u \quad (5)$$

334 Here the first term on the right-hand side represents the quasi-steady lift due to vertical velocity
 335 fluctuations (namely the wake-induced lift) and the second term is Bernoulli's lift. Dwivedi et al.
 336 (2011b) demonstrated that the latter has significantly higher magnitude compared with the wake-
 337 induced lift, however both Schmeckle et al. (2007) and Dwivedi et al. (2011b) claimed the
 338 concurrence of both positive and negative lift fluctuations at times of increased streamwise velocity,
 339 which contrasts with the simple model given by Eq.(5). They argued that either the acceleration force
 340 or the form lift produced by particle shape, which is not accounted for in Eq.(4), were supposedly
 341 responsible for such departure.

342 If a turbulent structure produces high pressure on the bottom of the particle and a low pressure
 343 on the top, the vertical acceleration force is large and a high-lift event will occur, although any
 344 discussion on this term is rather speculative at this stage as no clear experimental evidence can be
 345 found in previous studies. Noting that

$$346 \quad \left\langle \frac{Dw}{Dt} \right\rangle_V = \left\langle \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} + v \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y} + w \frac{\partial w}{\partial Z} \right\rangle_V \quad (6)$$

347 one may argue that the coherence of the flow structure limits the effects of the local acceleration
 348 $\partial w / \partial t$ over the time scale of the turbulent event, and that the highest convective acceleration of w is
 349 expected towards the vertical direction. Although mathematically non-negative at the bed, for $Z > 0$

350 the term $w \partial w / \partial Z$ is positive during both upward accelerating (Q-I) and downward decelerating (Q-
351 IV) fluxes, while it gives a negative contribution for upward decelerating or downward accelerating
352 movements of the fluid mass. This would provide at least qualitative justification for the evidence
353 that opposing trends of $w'_{RMS,IV}$ and $w'_{RMS,I}$, respectively, with the variation of the particle rest time
354 are associated with opposing trends of the relevant entrainment efficiencies. This is further
355 supported by the observation that interfering particles cause an increased turbulence intensity of the
356 vertical fluctuations, which may be responsible of the counteracting effects due to the acceleration
357 force for sweeps and outward interactions, respectively, resulting in an increasing efficiency gap. In
358 their experiments Nelson et al. (1995) created strong gradients in the flow by introducing a backward
359 step upstream the measurement point. In presence of the step, they found that outward interactions
360 increased their effectiveness in moving grains. Here grain interference has similar effects to those
361 due to the upstream flow separation induced by the backward step, which for the most interfering
362 case led to entrainment efficiencies $\eta_I = 2.45$ and $\eta_{IV} = 1.45$ (Run 1 in Nelson et al. 1995). Similar high
363 (Q-I) and low (Q-IV) values were found also in the experiments by Heathershaw and Thorne (1985),
364 here reported in Table 3 for comparison, where interference effects were possibly amplified by the
365 presence of poorly sorted sediment, with the largest particles facilitating the dislodgment of the
366 more sheltered fine particles causing local vertical accelerations of the fluid mass.

367 **CONCLUSIONS**

368 Experiments were carried out linking the near-bed flow field and individual entrainment events from
369 a gravel deposit under weak sediment transport conditions. Results confirmed earlier observations
370 on the predominance of sweeps (Q-IV) and to a lesser extent of outward interactions (Q-I) in
371 dislodging gravel particles, although approximately 30% of the observed entrainment events were
372 caused by a grain-to-grain interaction. Clear signatures in the turbulence intensity validated previous
373 findings on the correlation between sweeps and entrainment events based on the current
374 understanding of the forces that are most likely to generate particle motion. However, the reported
375 discrepancies with the hypothesis that sweeps are the prevailing mechanism are explained through

376 the evidence of concurrent factors: (1) similar to the Grass' concept of overlapping probabilities, a
377 significant fraction of less stable particles are moved by smaller hydrodynamic forces than their
378 relevant extreme values; (2) there is no clear consensus that Bernoulli's lift can entirely explain the
379 formation of vertical forces, while evidence is given in this study that force that arises from the
380 acceleration of the local mass of fluid may also play a role; (3) moving particles can induce
381 interference effects by producing an increased turbulence intensity of the vertical fluctuations
382 potentially associated with the vertical fluid acceleration and the occurrence of high lift events able
383 to trigger sediment motion. Such a grain interference phenomenon has counteracting effects on
384 sweeps and outward interactions, respectively, resulting in the latter to comparatively increase their
385 relative efficiency, which would explain previous experimental observations leading to similar results
386 as those reported in this study.

387 **Appendix**

388 The reconstruction geometry of the image acquisition system is here represented by a pinhole
 389 camera model having angle of view $2\vartheta_x = 10$ degrees and sensor size $(D_x, D_y) = 1600 \times 300$ pixels,
 390 resulting in:

$$391 \quad D = \frac{D_x/2}{\tan \vartheta_x} \quad (7)$$

392 and

$$393 \quad 2\vartheta_y = \arctan \frac{D_y/2}{D} \quad (8)$$

394 where D is the sensor distance from the lens and $2\vartheta_y$ is the angle of view in the Y -direction (Fig. 6).
 395 Denoting with $d = (dx, dz)$ the distance of the lens from the field of view, the size of the area of
 396 observation along the streamwise and crosswise directions is given as:

$$397 \quad L_x = 2[dx - dz \tan(\alpha - \vartheta_x)] \quad (9)$$

398 and

$$399 \quad L_y = 2d \tan \vartheta_y \quad (10)$$

400 The two PIV cameras were mounted at a distance $d = 1456$ mm from the bed with an opening angle
 401 $2\alpha = 32$ degrees, such as that the area of observation of each camera was 259-mm-long and 48-mm-
 402 wide. This extension was then reduced to the intersection of the sampling areas of the two camera
 403 views corresponding approximately to 220x40 mm. The minimum detectable displacement along the
 404 X -direction, Δx_{min} , resulted in the maximum uncertainty associated with the streamwise component
 405 given as:

$$406 \quad \varepsilon_u = \pm \frac{\Delta x_{min}}{\Delta t_L} = \pm \frac{dz}{\Delta t_L} \tan \left(\alpha + \arctan \frac{\Delta x_p}{D} \right) \mp \frac{dx}{\Delta t_L} \quad (11)$$

407 where $\Delta x_p = 0.15$ pixels is the estimated sub-pixel accuracy of the cross-correlation algorithm (Raffel
 408 et al. 2007), and $\Delta t_L = 2$ ms the time between laser pulses. The error estimates for the three velocity
 409 component are then $\varepsilon_u = \pm 12.4$ mm/s, $\varepsilon_v = \pm 11.9$ mm/s and $\varepsilon_w = \pm 43.5$ mm/s respectively, where:

$$410 \quad \varepsilon_v = \pm \frac{\Delta y_{\min}}{\Delta t_L} = \pm \frac{d \cdot \Delta x_p / D}{\Delta t_L} \quad (12)$$

411 and

$$412 \quad \varepsilon_w = \pm \frac{\Delta z_{\min}}{\Delta t_L} = \pm \frac{dz}{\Delta t_L} \mp \frac{dx}{\Delta t_L} \tan \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha - \arctan \frac{\Delta x_p}{D} \right) \quad (13)$$

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497

Table 1. Hydraulic Parameters for the three tests. S = slope of the flume; Q = steady flow discharge; U = depth averaged flow velocity; $R_E = R_H U / \nu$ = flow Reynolds number, with R_H = hydraulic radius; $u_s = (g R_H S)^{0.5}$ = shear velocity, with g = acceleration due to gravity; $\tau^*_0 = \tau_0 / g(\rho_s - \rho) d_{50}$ = Shields parameter, where τ_0 = boundary shear stress and ρ_s and ρ = density of sediment and water respectively; $R_{E,D} = d u_s / \nu$ = grain Reynolds number; Q_s = sediment discharge.

Test	S [%]	Q [l/s]	U [m/s]	$R_E (10^5)$ [-]	u_s [m/s]	τ^*_0 [-]	$R_{E,D}$ [-]	Q_s [g/s]
T1	0.65	44.8	0.97	0.78	0.074	0.068	370	3.1
T2	0.77	48.1	1.05	0.84	0.080	0.080	400	3.4
T3	0.83	49.8	1.08	0.86	0.083	0.086	420	4.0

Table 2. Summary of double-averaged mean and of the root mean square (*RMS*) of the fluctuating terms.

Test	$\langle \bar{u} \rangle$ [m/s]	$\langle \bar{v} \rangle$ [m/s]	$\langle \bar{w} \rangle$ [m/s]	\tilde{u}'_{RMS} [m/s]	\tilde{v}'_{RMS} [m/s]	\tilde{w}'_{RMS} [m/s]	$(u' - \tilde{u}')_{RMS}$ [m/s]	$(v' - \tilde{v}')_{RMS}$ [m/s]	$(w' - \tilde{w}')_{RMS}$ [m/s]	$-\langle \overline{u'w'} \rangle$ [m ² /s ²]
T1	0.70	0.003	0.000	0.130	0.080	0.104	0.011	0.004	0.008	0.0041
T2	0.74	-0.002	-0.001	0.124	0.078	0.095	0.009	0.002	0.007	0.0044
T3	0.75	-0.013	-0.005	0.132	0.079	0.100	0.005	0.002	0.004	0.0051

Table 3. Relative duration T_i (average from all tests) and relevant occurrences of entrainment E_i associated with individual flow structures for the three tests and average from all tests ($\eta_i = E_i / T_i$).

Type of structure	Flow events T_i [%]				Entrainment events E_i [%]				Efficiency η_i [-]		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	T1	T2	T3	All	(1)	(2)	(3)
Q-I	19.8	20.8	16.3	21.5	28.7	26.0	27.8	28.0	1.42	1.98	1.28
Q-II	29.3	29.7	35.3	33.5	18.2	9.4	18.0	16.6	0.57	0.43	0.76
Q-III	19.3	21.4	17.3	15.4	8.8	10.4	8.4	9.0	0.45	0.52	0.57
Q-IV	31.0	28.7	31.3	29.7	44.3	54.2	45.8	46.4	1.50	1.24	1.37

(1) This study; (2) Heathershaw and Thorne (1985); (3) Nelson et al. (1995); (4) Papanicolaou et al. (2001)

Table 4. Efficiency versus rest time for coherent structures of type I (Outward Interactions) and of type IV (Sweeps).

Rest time $t_{REST} \geq t^*$ [s]	No grain interference			Grain interference		
	η_{IV} [-]	η_I [-]	η_{IV} [-]	η_I [-]	$w'_{RMS,IV}$ [m/s]	$w'_{RMS,I}$ [m/s]
$t^* = 0.2$ s	1.52 (47.3%)	1.36 (26.9%)	1.41 (43.7%)	1.58 (31.3%)	0.159-0.248	0.143-0.225
$t^* = 1.0$ s	1.62	1.38	1.40	1.84	0.156-0.248	0.143-0.216
$t^* = 2.0$ s	1.53	1.51	1.45	1.81	0.144-0.225	0.150-0.216
$t^* = 4.0$ s	1.51	1.52	1.39	1.80	0.141-0.237	0.153-0.222
$t^* = 6.0$ s	1.45	1.61	1.26	1.91	0.138-0.237	0.155-0.236
$t^* = 8.0$ s	1.47	1.69	1.21	1.99	0.138-0.249	0.152-0.234

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508 Figure 3. (a) Variation of the relative magnitude $|S_{i,H}|$ with hole-size parameter H for each
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511 Figure 4. (a) Variation of turbulence intensity u'_{RMS} with the hole-size parameter H as a
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517 Figure 5. (a) Variation of turbulence intensity w'_{RMS} with the hole-size parameter H as a
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520 interference). (b) Normalized difference of turbulence intensity measured at entrainment
521 events for outward interactions and sweeps as a function of the rest period of the
522 entrained particles ($t_{REST} \geq t^*$).

523 Figure 6. Basic stereoscopic imaging configuration using angular lens displacement.

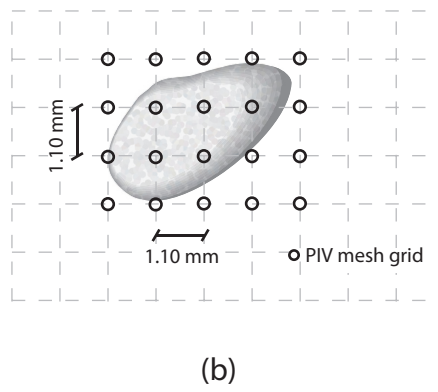
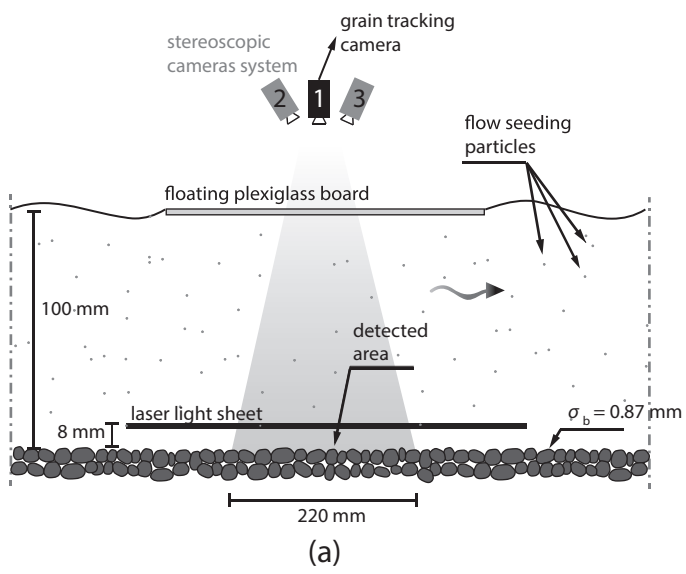


Figure 1

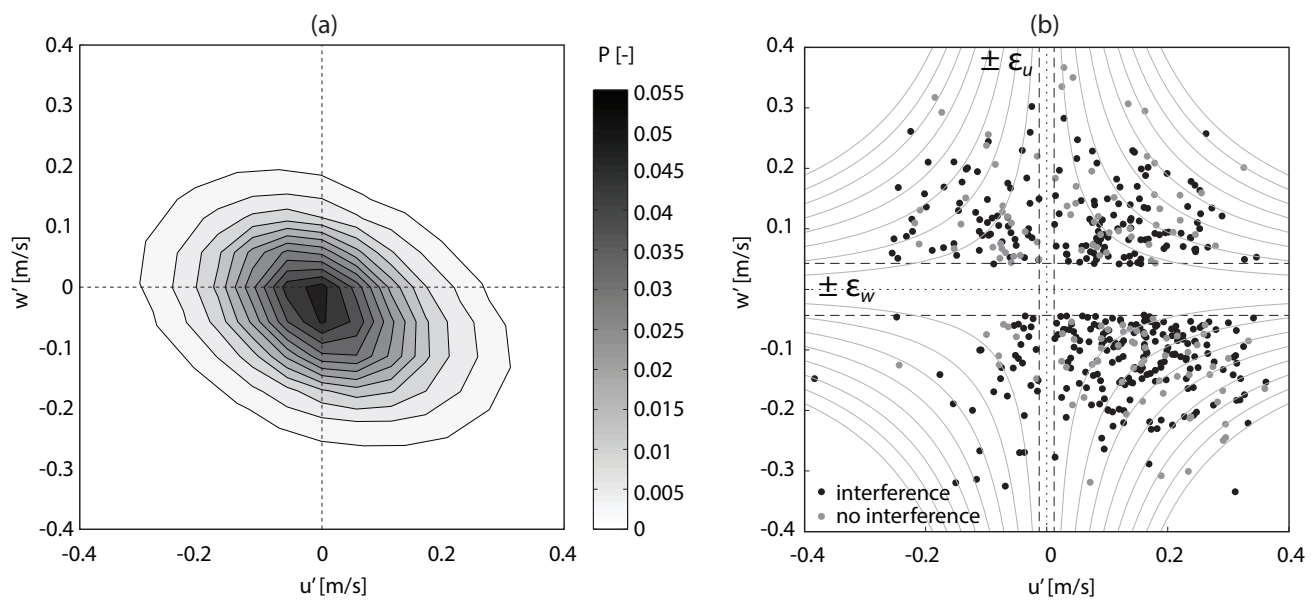


Figure 2

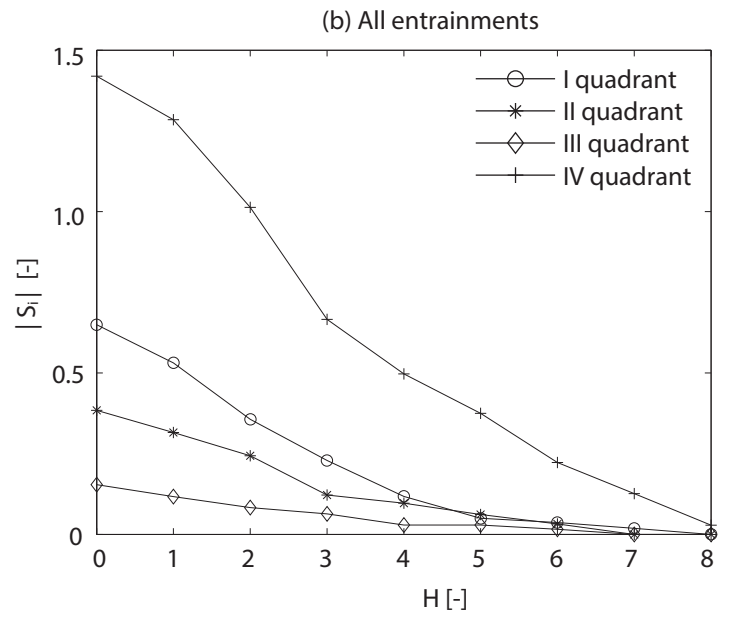
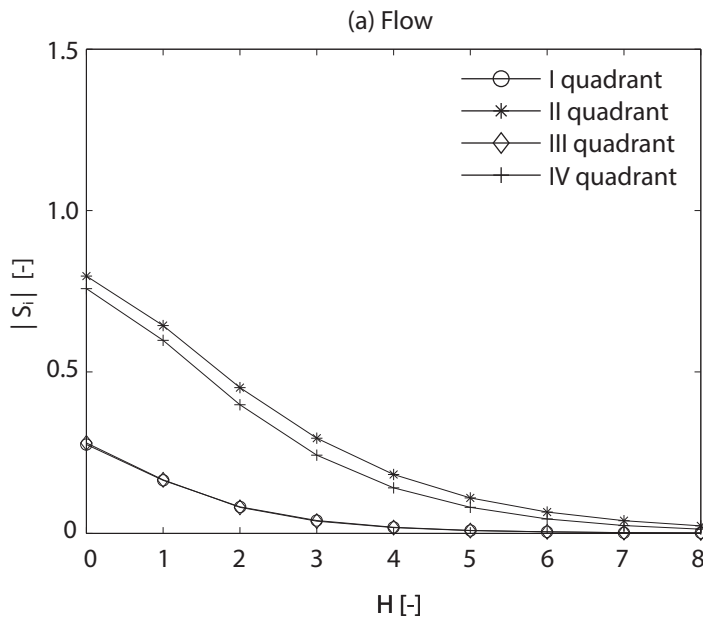


Figure 3

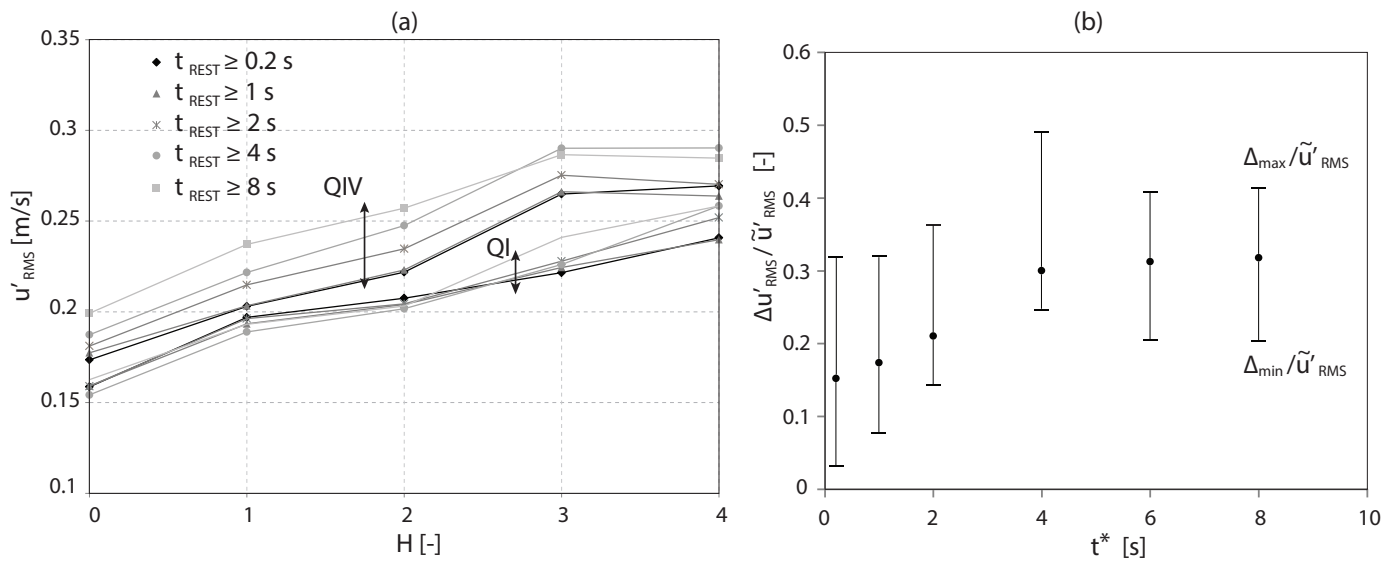


Figure 4

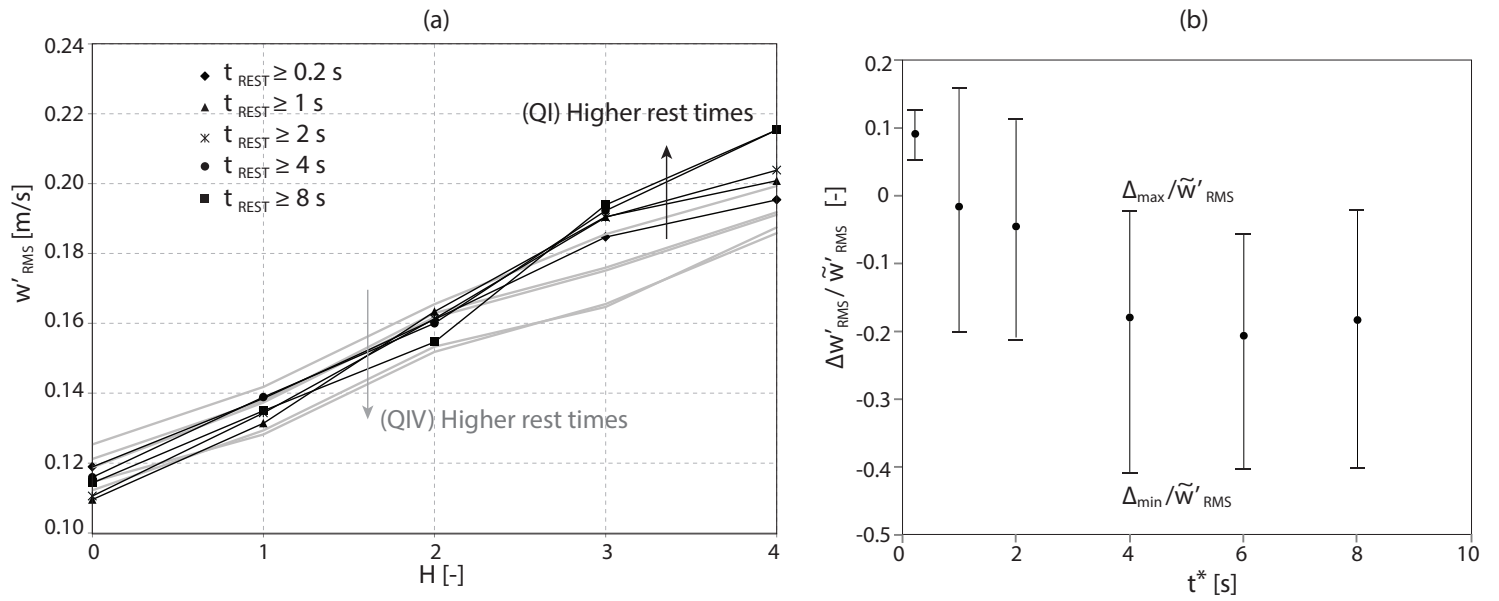


Figure 5

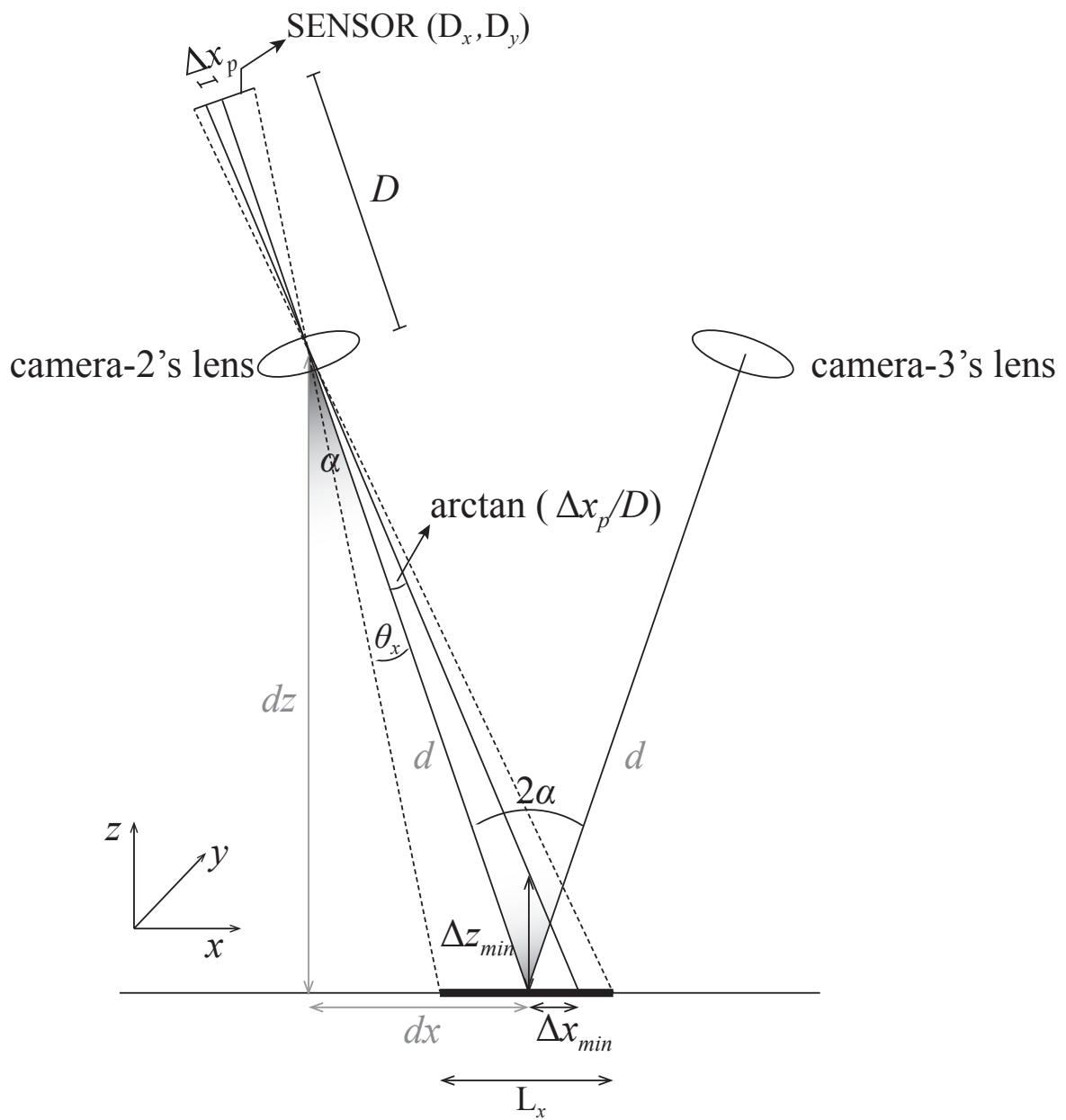


Figure 6