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2	A rainfall simulator using porous pipes as drop former			
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12				
13	Highlights			
14	Design of a drop-former rainfall simulator using porous pipes			
15	Easier to build and maintain than rainfall simulators using capillaries			

• Performances in the range of previous designs

17 Abstract

A drop-former rainfall simulator was designed and tested. Its novelty is the use of porous pipes instead of capillaries. Compared to rainfall simulators using capillaries, this feature makes easier its building and maintenance. Rainfall intensity can be selected by simply setting the water supply pressure. The rainfall simulator was able to deliver rainfall intensities between 24 and 75 mm/h for a pressure range of 0.25-1.40 bar. As other drop-former rainfall simulators, the rainfall kinetic energy (expressed in J.m⁻².mm⁻¹) and drop size do not depend on
the rainfall intensity. Tested on a 0.25 m² area, larger format could be build.

26

27 Keywords:

28 Rainfall simulator, drop former instrument, raindrop, kinetic energy

29

30 **1. Introduction**

Rainfall simulators are widely used in surface hydrology and in soil science (Iserloh et al., 2013; Kesgin et al., 2018; Nielsen et al., 2019). While they come in many variations, there are two basic types of rainfall simulators: nozzle-based and drop-former (Iserloh et al., 2013).

35 The present paper describes a drop-former simulator. While drop-former 36 simulators typically make use of capillaries (needles, holes or small tubes), the 37 present design uses porous-pipes to generate the drops.

38 While our laboratory have used for years an oscillating-nozzle simulator (Foster et 39 al., 1979), an experiment required (1) a continuous rainfall over a surface of 40 0.25 m², and (2) that rainfall intensity could be changed without altering the other 41 rainfall properties (kinetic energy, drop size). Aware of the complexity of 42 (1) building a regular drop-former rainfall simulator (with its hundreds to thousands 43 of capillaries per square meter) and (2) maintaining it (especially the clogging of 44 the capillaries) over long periods, we came with a new design that replace the 45 capillaries with porous pipes.

46 After detailing the design of the porous-pipe rainfall simulator, its performances are
47 evaluated and its use is discussed.

48 **2. Materials and methods**

49 **2.1 Design**

50 The design of the present porous-pipe rainfall simulator is part of the drop-former 51 rainfall simulator category. Basically, the capillaries and their specifically-designed 52 water supply are replaced by porous pipes connected to a manifold pipe.

53 Porous pipes are cheap and commonly used in gardens and horticulture for 54 irrigation. They are similar to water hoses, and can be bought in any garden shop. 55 They may come in different brands and specifications. The one used here is made 56 of a rubber-like material, with an outside diameter of 16 mm and an inside 57 diameter of 13 mm.

58 For our simulator, 25 sections of porous pipe of 0.9 meter long are used (Fig. 1). 59 They are lined up parallel to each other, with an inter-pipe spacing of 24 mm. One 60 end of the porous pipe section is blocked with a stopper, while the other end is 61 connected to a manifold pipe.

The porous pipes are placed under a one meter square sheet of expanded metal, and attached to the sheet with plastic tie straps every 20 mm. The sheet of expanded metal provides both a rigid frame and attachment holes for the tie straps. The tie straps are key in achieving a homogeneous spatial distribution of the drops: they collect the water coming out of the pipes and are the location where falling drops are formed.

The manifold is connected to a water pump. A digital manometer is installed on the manifold to allow for pressure monitoring and adjustment of the rainfall intensity. Like in Ulrich et al. (2013) and Mayerhofer et al. (2017), a fine mesh (square 3 mm openings, wire diameter of 0.5 mm) is placed 65 cm below the drop former device. This mesh has two purposes: breaking the big drops into smaller drops, and avoiding the drops to constantly fall onto the exact same location of theexperimental surface.

The porous pipes of the rainfall simulator are set 6.60 m above the experimentalarea.

77 2.2 Rainfall properties assessment

36 pluviometers (cylindrical beakers of 64.5 mm in diameter and 110 mm in height) are used to assess the intensity and spatial variability of the rain inside a central area of 50 cm by 50 cm, which is the size of the test bench to be used in subsequent experiments. The collected amount of water is measured by weighting the pluviometers. The uniformity coefficient of Christiansen is calculated (Iserloh et al., 2013).

84 For the drop size and the rainfall kinetic energy, an optical disdrometer is used 85 (Laser Precipitation Monitor, Thies clima, part number 5.4110.00.XXX). This 86 disdrometer senses the drops crossing a laser beam and reports their number, 87 sizes and falling speeds every minute. It is located in the center of the test area. During preliminary tests, an underestimation of the rainfall intensity by the 88 89 disdrometer was found, as previously reported (Prata de Moraes Frasson et al., 90 2011; Angulo-Martinez et al., 2018). Hence, kinetic energies are linearly 91 compensated based on the differences between disdrometer intensity and 92 pluviometer intensity.

Rainfall properties are assessed at four water pressures (0.25, 0.50, 0.86, and
1.40 bar). Three replicates were carried out for the 0.86-bar pressure to assess the
reproductibility of the rainfall intensity.

96 **3. Results and discussion**

97 For the range of pressure 0.25–1.40 bar, rainfall intensity varied between 24 and 98 75 mm/h (Table 1). The dependency of the intensity to the water pressure was 99 mostly linear, making it easy to reach a prescribed intensity. The variability of the 100 rainfall intensity was about 10% between replicates, which is in the usual range for 101 rainfall simulators (Iserloh et al., 2013). The uniformity coefficient of Christiansen is 102 always above 90%, which is in the higher range compared with other rainfall 103 simulators (Iserloh et al., 2013). The spatial variability of rainfall intensity showed a 104 gradient along the direction of the porous pipes (Fig. 2): compared to the mean 105 value, the intensity was lower by 7% on the half of the test surface located to the 106 manifold side, and higher by 7% on the half of the test surface located on the 107 stopper side. This gradient was mostly independent of the rainfall intensity.

The simulator produced droplets with a mean weighted diameter of 3.0 mm. This value did not change with the rainfall intensity. This is typical of drop-former rainfall simulators which, by design, cannot alter their drop size (except by changing the wire mesh).

The drop velocities were independent of the rainfall intensity (data not shown). Drop-former rainfall simulators generates drops with an initial zero velocity. During their fall, drops interact with the wire mesh and accelerate due to gravity. Hence their final velocity depends simply of their size and falling height.

Rainfall kinetic energies were in the range of 18-23 J.m⁻².mm⁻¹ (Table 1). These values are quite close, meaning that the kinetic energy of the rain did not depend on the rainfall intensity. This was expected because (1) drop sizes and velocities were constant whatever the water pressure, and (2) the kinetic energy is expressed by millimeter of rainfall. The obtained kinetic energies are higher that in the previously-reported range (Iserloh et al., 2013), owing to the larger drop fallheight.

Overall, the results are in accordance with the expected behavior of a drop-former rainfall simulator, validating the present design for further use. The present design allows changing the rainfall characteristics independently: rainfall intensity depends on the water supply pressure, while the drop size and kinetic energy depends on mesh size and falling height. This feature could be advantageous to study the sensitivity of processes (such as particle splash or herbicide transfer) to the different rainfall properties.

130 Upon designing and using this simulator, we encountered several issues that131 should draw attention:

- The porosity of the hose roll may not be constant along its length. It may
 depends on the batch and on the brand. Hence, after testing, some 0.9 m
 sections have been discarded.
- On start-up, the rainfall intensity may be lower than expected: the porous
 pipes need to be moistened before they provide a constant water flow.
 Hence, the simulator needs to be run for a few minutes before being fully
 functional. By contrast, the rainfall stops instantaneously when the water
 supply pipe is disconnected from the pump.

• As underlined earlier, the intensity is lower on the manifold side than on the stopper side. If this rainfall intensity gradient is too high compared to the requirements, two manifolds could be used, supplying water from both sides of the porous pipes.

• For a given pressure, rainfall intensity decreases over the course of several weeks. This could be due to aging and clogging of the porous pipes (Teeluck and Sutton, 1998). With a few exceptions, such as Battany and 147 Grismer (2000), clogging is rarely mentioned in publications about drop-148 former rainfall simulators. However, this issue is well-known to users. 149 Clogging results in a decrease of the rainfall intensity and an increase of its 150 spatial variability. For the present design, such inconvenience could be slow 151 down by adding a water filter (Teeluk et al., 1998). Such an effect should be 152 monitored, and, if significant, porous pipes can be easily replaced with new 153 ones. While clogging occurs with porous pipes as with needles, it is much 154 easier and faster to change the 25 porous pipes of the present design that 155 the hundreds of capillaries of previous designs.

Overall, the porous-pipe rainfall simulator allows to generate a continuous rain, with drops of significant size, velocity and kinetic energy, having a random distribution of the impact points, for a significant range of rainfall intensities, and a limited spatial heterogeneity over a square surface of 0.25 m².

Potentially, the current design may be extended to provide rainfall over larger surfaces. This may be achieved by using longer or more numerous sections of porous pipes. As a reference, drop-former rainfall simulators exist for areas of 0.06 m², using 49 capillaries (Kamphorst, 1987) to areas of 6 m², using 4800 capillaries (Huang et al., 2016). We believe large drop-former rainfall simulators could advantageously use porous pipes instead of capillaries.

166 **4. Conclusions**

A rainfall simulator based on porous pipes was designed and tested. It can generate rainfall intensities between 24 and 75 mm/h. Rainfall intensity can easily be preset by choosing the water supply pressure. Rainfall kinetic energy (expressed in J.m⁻².mm⁻¹) and drop size do not depend on the rainfall intensity. The given advises will make easier its building and use. Compared to rainfall 172 simulators using capillaries, design and maintenance are easier. Tested on a 0.25-

173 m² area, it could be expanded to larger surfaces.

174

175 **Competing interests:** authors declare no competing interests.

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230 Table 1: Rainfall properties at different water pressures.

231

232 List of figures

- 233 Fig. 1. Scheme of the rainfall simulator.
- For clarity, the sheet of expanded metal is not drawn. Not to scale.

235

Fig. 2. Spatial variability of rainfall intensity at different water pressures.

237

Pressure	Intensity	Kinetic	Coefficient
		energy	of uniformity
(bar)	(mm/h)	(J.m ⁻² .mm ⁻¹)	(%)
0.25	23.9 ± 2.5	18	92
0.50	36.0 ± 3.5	Not measured	93
0.86	49.0 ± 5.2	23	92
1.40	74.5 ± 6.9	23	92

240 Table 1: Rainfall properties at different water pressures.



259 Fig. 1. Scheme of the rainfall simulator.

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Fig. 2. Spatial variability of rainfall intensity at different water pressures.

262 The manifold is located to the left.