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Key Points:

- Elastic radiation of analogue experimental volcanic subsonic to supersonic jets was compared against high-speed shadowgraph analysis
- We quantified variation in the spectral features, energy partitioning and jet structure due to differences in conduit roughness
- Different behavior in subsonic versus supersonic regime was observed due to distinct dominating noise sources at different roughness

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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The Effect of Conduit Walls Roughness on Volcanic Jets and Their Seismo-Acoustic Radiation: An Experimental Investigation

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Abstract To explore the effect of conduit roughness on volcanic jet dynamics and on the related seismo-acoustic radiation we performed a series of shock-tube experiments using pipes with variable inner surface fractal dimension D . Variable starting pressure produced subsonic to supersonic jets visualized using high-speed shadowgraph and recorded with an array of accelerometers and microphones. At all starting pressures, increasing D increases the energy transfer from the gas to the conduit walls, decreasing the jet exit velocity (Mach number) and, for supersonic cases, the related shock-cell spacing, and increasing the seismic to acoustic radiation amplitude ratio. The roughness-induced changes in jet velocity and turbulence affect the dominant sources of the jet noise and modulates the spectral properties of the acoustic signals. From our study we show that conduit wall roughness is an important and yet largely neglected factor in the dynamics of explosive volcanic eruptions and their monitored geophysical signals.

Plain Language Summary Volcanoes are amongst the most fascinating and mysterious subjects of science, for they allow no direct observation of what is happening within the conduit during eruptive activity. Indirect observations (such as measurements of the sound and vibration accompanying eruptions) are routinely performed for monitoring and research purposes. Laboratory studies mimicking the eruptive processes in small-scale devices, are of great support for correctly interpreting such data. As such, we investigated the effect of the irregularity of conduit surface, amongst the most relevant and poorly known variables characterizing the eruptive processes, on volcanic jets and on their seismic and acoustic signals. We performed a series of laboratory experiments using conduits with different roughness of the internal surface and various starting pressures. Microphones and accelerometers, capable of measuring conduit sounds and vibration, respectively, in synch with high-speed camera were used to constrain the characteristics of the generated subsonic and supersonic jets. Results show that conduit roughness controls: (a) the relative amplitude of seismic and acoustic signals; (b) the velocity, turbulence and properties of the sound of these jets. Our results will shed light on the link between observation at the surface and dynamic evolution of conduit geometry at depth.

1. Introduction

Explosive volcanic eruptions generate jet flow by the impulsive release of gas and pyroclasts mixtures in the atmosphere (e.g., Matoza et al., 2009; Wilson, 1976). The dynamics of volcanic jets control eruption evolution, its hazards, and the seismo-acoustic signals used to monitor it (e.g., Haney et al., 2018; Matoza et al., 2013; Prejean & Brodsky, 2011), but how such dynamics are affected by the flow of the gas-pyroclasts mixture in the conduit is still unclear.

Impulsive discharge of gas from a pressurized reservoir generates a compressive wave, followed by the formation of vortex rings and a trailing jet, with specific acoustic signatures (e.g., Pena Fernandez et al., 2020). At the shear layer between the jet and the surrounding static fluid, turbulent mixing generates large and fine scale vorticity ensuing turbulent mixing noise. In supersonic jets the mismatch between static pressure inside and outside the jet produces quasi-periodic shock-cells that interact with the turbulence structure in the shear layer, producing a characteristic broadband shock noise and screech tones (e.g., Norman & Winkler, 1985; Peña Fernández &

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Sesterhenn, 2017; Tam et al., 2008). Jet noise from volcanoes possesses additional complexities, due to the multiphase nature of the released fluid and to the complexity of crater and conduit morphology, with implications on the directivity of the radiated acoustic signals (e.g., Genco et al., 2014; Matoza et al., 2013; Pena-Fernandez et al., 2020; Taddeucci et al., 2012, 2014). Additionally, exploring the nature of volcanic jets and of jet noise requires addressing the audible components of the acoustic signals that have been recently the object of a renewed interest (e.g., Goto et al., 2014; Matoza et al., 2019, 2022; Rowell et al., 2014; Taddeucci et al., 2021). Yet fundamental source parameters can be derived from the observation of jet noise features of volcanic explosion; as an example Mach flow number (hence jet velocity) and vent diameter have been inferred from the observation of jet noise and high-speed video of vortex ring originating from gas-rich jets at Stromboli (Italy; Taddeucci et al., 2021).

Laboratory jets have indicated that the initial condition of the jet influences the downstream development (hence structures) through the entire flow field (e.g., George, 1989; Mi et al., 2001). High values of conduit length to diameter ratio, as in volcanic explosion occurring at depth, increase the thickness of the initial shear layer: for fixed diameters, the higher the length of the pipe the higher the initial thickness of the shear layer (e.g., Jothi & Srinivasan, 2009). Similarly, the geometrical properties of jet nozzle have been shown to modulate jet structures: amongst others the arrangement of chevrons at the nozzle (e.g., Bridges & Brown, 2004; Heeb et al., 2016), the geometry of the exit vent (e.g., Cigala et al., 2017; Schmid et al., 2022; Swanson et al., 2018), pipe surface roughness at the micron scale (e.g., Jothi & Srinivasan, 2013). Clearly, it is of paramount importance to map the effect of complex volcanic geometries on observable parameters through well-constrained aeroacoustics laboratory studies.

Here, for the first time we investigate through laboratory experiments how surface roughness of conduit walls reflects on volcanic jet properties and the related seismo-acoustic radiation. We performed a set of laboratory shock-tube experiments mimicking volcanic jets dynamics, by changing the pressure of the high-pressure reservoir and the roughness of the conduit surface, quantified by means of fractal dimension. The structure of the jet and the accelerometric and acoustic related wave field are investigated using high-speed imaging and through an array of accelerometric and acoustic sensors.

2. Experimental Methods

2.1. Experimental Setup

The experimental setup (Figure 1) consists of a shock tube composed by (a) a high-pressure reservoir, that is, a cylindrical polyethylene tube (78 cm long, 3.8 cm inner diameter, $8.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3$ inner volume), pressurized using compressed air at 2×10^5 , 4×10^5 , 6×10^5 , 7×10^5 , and 8×10^5 Pa, corresponding to pressure ratios (reservoir pressure divided by ambient pressure) of $P = 2, 4, 6, 7,$ and 8 ; (b) an electrovalve allowing for rapid pressure release (<0.005 s); (c) the experimental analogue conduit, open to the atmosphere (80 cm long, 3 cm average inner diameter, $5.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3$ average inner volume). The opening of the electrovalve generates a shock wave that pressurizes the air in the analogue conduit, from which, depending on P , a subsonic or supersonic jet is released into the atmosphere whilst radiating elastic energy to the surrounding medium. To vary conduit surface roughness, we used three home-build epoxy pipes with the internal surface characterized by a different fractal dimension D : 2 (smooth surface), 2.18, and 2.99 (Spina et al., 2019, 2022; Giudicepietro et al., 2021 for further details).

The seismo-acoustic radiation was recorded along the conduit by accelerometers and in the atmosphere by microphones, respectively. A triaxial (frequency: 2 to 7 KHz sensitivity: 10 mV/g) and two monoaxial PCB Piezotronics accelerometers (frequency: 0.5 to 10 KHz sensitivity: 100 mV/g) were placed in two slots along the conduit wall at ca. 7 (slot A) and 40 cm (slot B) below the outlet. The monoaxial accelerometers were alternated to the triaxial accelerometer, which was always located in slot B. We used two microphones: a PCB Piezotronics ICP 378B02 (frequency: 7 Hz to 10 KHz sensitivity: 50 mV/Pa in the band 7 Hz to 10 KHz (± 1 dB) and ± 2 dB in the range 3.75–20,000 Hz) and a GRAS 40AN (frequency: 0.5 Hz–20 KHz sensitivity: 50 mV/Pa) located at 30 cm left and right of the vent respectively (positions J and K). To avoid acoustic signal saturation, only for experiments with $D = 2$, an additional dataset of acoustic signals was acquired at a distance of 1 m (position L and N for the left and right side of the vent respectively; not included in Figure 1) and later corrected to the reference distance of 30 cm from the vent. Both accelerometric and acoustic signals were recorded at 200 KHz. In the rest of the paper only acoustic data from positions J and L and the accelerometric data from the monoaxial sensor

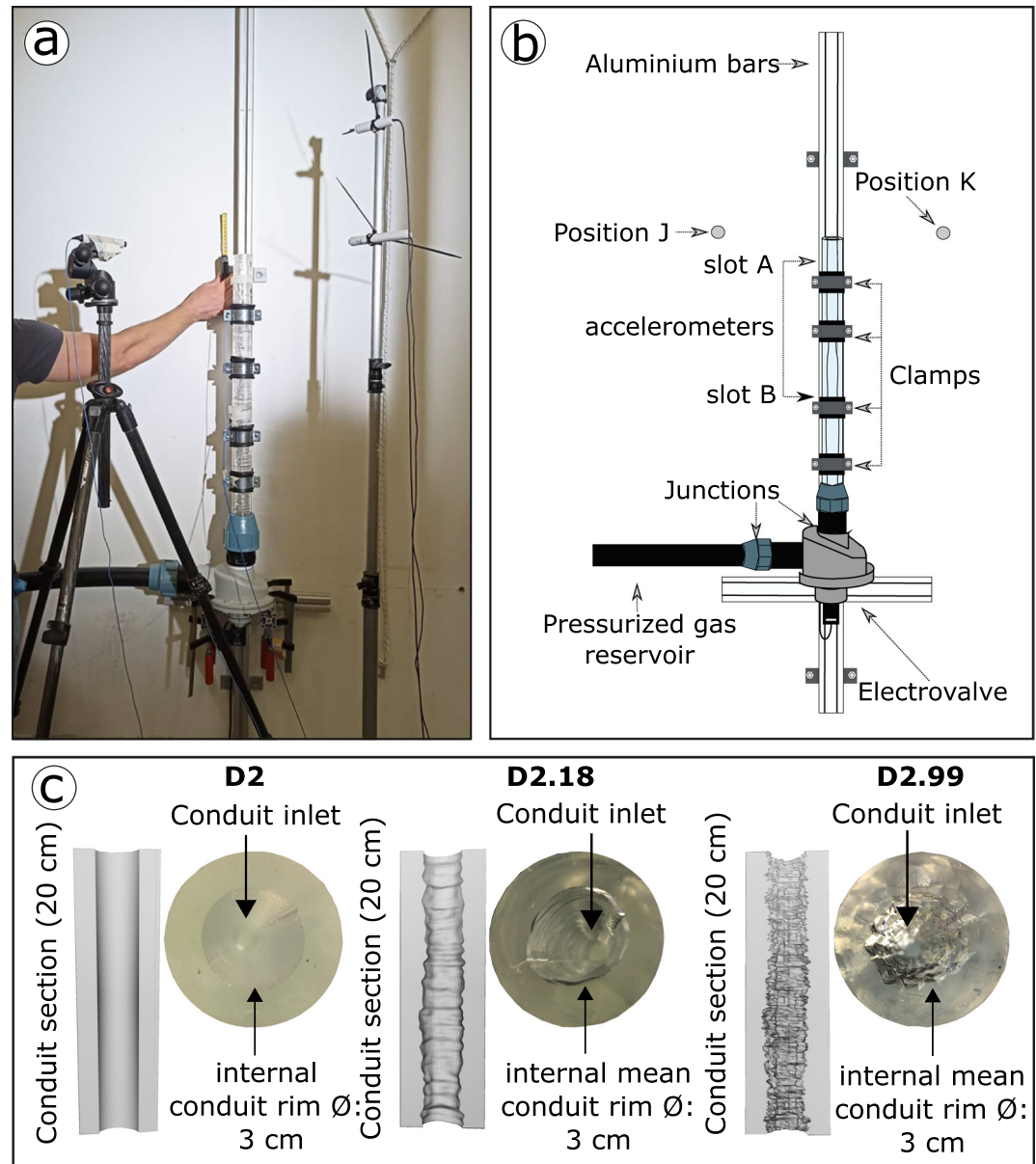


Figure 1. Experimental setup. (a) Picture and (b) schematic sketch; (c) longitudinal sections (20 cm long, left-hand image) and top views (right-hand image) of the fractal analogue conduits.

in slot B are shown, the other measurements providing congruent results (Figures S1–S6 in Supporting Information S1). A high-speed camera (NAC MEMRECAM HX-3) synchronized with accelerometric and acoustic sensors filmed the conduit outlet and the lower part of the jet at 30–50 KHz using shadowgraph and, for $P = 8$, Schlieren imaging (Davies, 1981) and background subtraction (Supporting Information S1). We performed more than 150 experiments spanning 15 different starting conditions in terms of D and P . Repeated experiments confirmed the full reproducibility of the observations. The experiments were not performed in an anechoic chamber; and acoustic reflections from the surroundings possibly entered the late part of our recordings. To limit this effect, as specified in Section 2.2, we mostly did not account for the coda waveforms of acoustic and accelerometric signals. Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1 displays examples of acoustic and accelerometric waveforms of subsonic ($P = 2$) and supersonic ($P = 8$) jets for $D = 2$. Velocity and displacement waveforms obtained by integration of a subsonic and supersonic accelerometric event are shown in Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1.

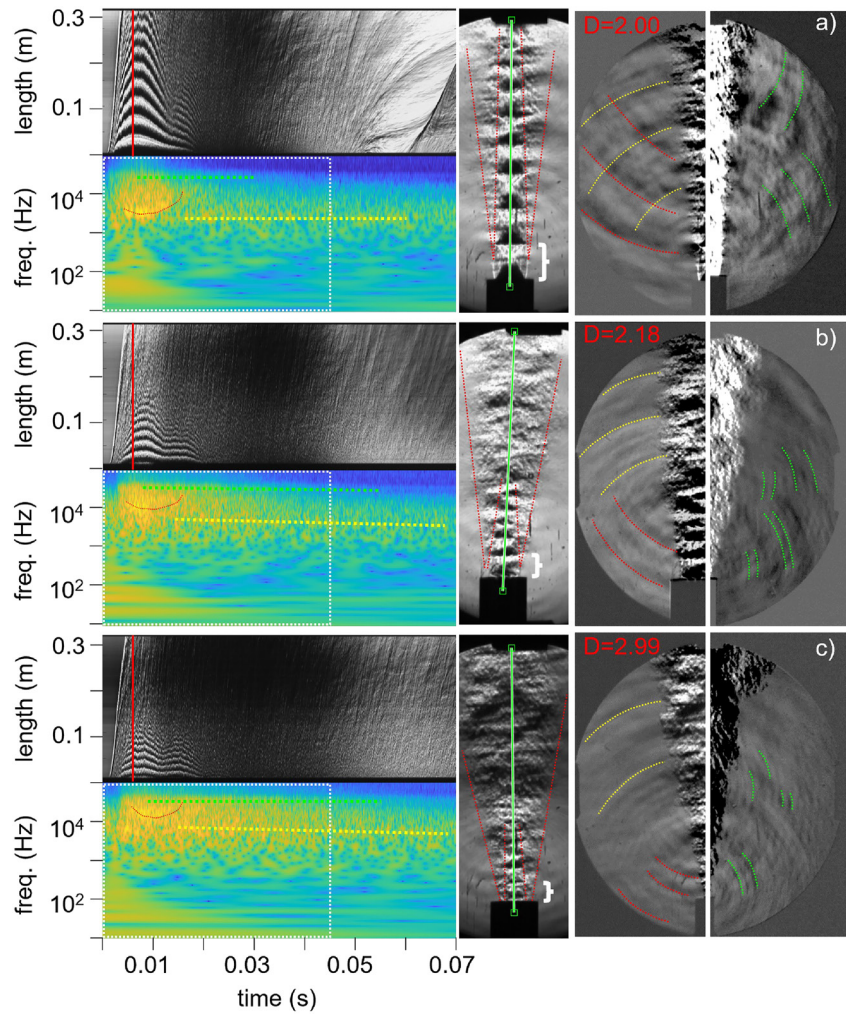


Figure 2. Acoustic and high-speed Schlieren characterization of analogue volcanic jets for smooth ($D = 2.00$), (a) or fractal ($D = 2.18$ and $D = 2.99$, (b and c) respectively) conduits at $P = 8$. Each figure shows: (i) kymographs from Schlieren high-speed videos of the experiments, showing jets evolution over time along the jet centerline line (left-hand panels, top) and the relative wavelet periodogram of the acoustic radiation with highlighted the broadband shock noise (BBSN, red), the low-frequency component of the turbulent mixing noise (TMN, yellow), and the high-frequency component of both BBSN and TMN (green) (left-hand panels, bottom, white dashed box is the time interval used to compute temporal and spectral parameters shown in Figure 4). (ii) still frame of the Schlieren high-speed video 5.3 ms after the onset of the jet (red line in kymographs), showing the supersonic jets with their shock structure (white brackets mark L_s), the jet centerline (green line), and the inner and outer boundaries of the jet shear layer (dotted red line) (central panels); and (iii) the different components of the acoustic radiation in the horizontal and vertical Schlieren projection after background subtraction (BBSN, red; TMN, yellow; high-frequency BBSN and TMN, green) (right-hand- panels). The external conduit diameter, equal to 5.3 cm, provide a spatial reference.

2.2. Analytical Methods

Acoustic and accelerometric signal processing was performed in a 0.045 s-long window encompassing the bulk of the experiment (dotted white box in Figure 2). We evaluated the RMS amplitude in the temporal domain. The temporal evolution of the spectral properties of the signals was characterized by wavelet periodograms. For each column (i.e., time step) of the periodogram (Figure 2), we extracted the frequency corresponding to the maximum spectral amplitude; then we computed the maximum frequency value obtained within the window. We also evaluated the RMS amplitude ratio between the acoustic and accelerometric signals, as a proxy for energy partitioning. For the series of experiments performed in position L and N , the pressure (p_{red}) at the reference distance (r_{red}) was obtained from the actual distance r and pressure p_x as follows (Johnson & Ripepe, 2011):

$$p_{red} = p_x * (r/r_{red}) \quad (1)$$

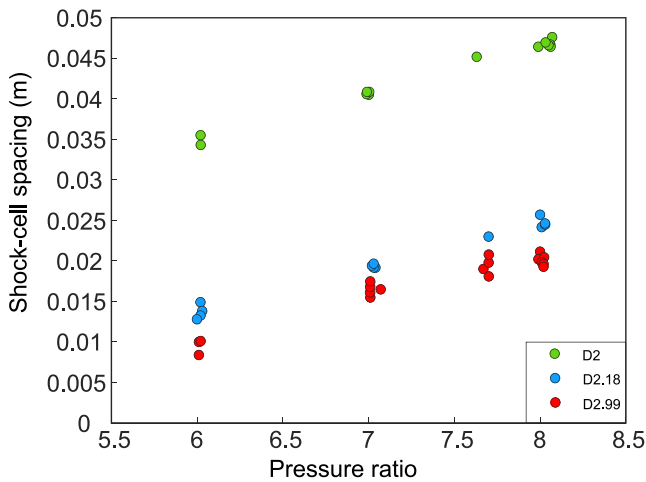


Figure 3. Shock cells spacing (L_s) as a function of pressure ratio for different conduit roughness D .

Equation 1 implies a pressure amplitude decay as $1/r$, an assumption that is valid only in the far field, that is, at distance $r \gg \lambda/2\pi$, with λ defined as the acoustic wavelength. For our set of measurements performed at a source distance of $r = 1$ m, we can assume far field conditions (hence Equation 1) are valid for frequencies above 100 Hz.

The elastic emissions of the experimental jets were compared against visual observation and kymographs of the high-speed shadowgraph videos. From these, we also measured the maximum spacing between shock cells (L_s) when visible.

3. Results

Visually, the onset of the jet is marked by the propagation of acoustic waves and the formation of a vortex ring, followed by the structuring of the jet itself and its waning, according to the evolution of starting jets (Peña Fernández et al., 2020). Acoustic waves radiate first from the conduit outlet, then from the vortex ring, and finally from the jet itself (Movies S1 and S2). At $P \geq 6$ experimental jets are clearly supersonic, and the vortex ring is preceded by a shock wave and followed by the formation of an under-expanded jet with

shock cells whose L_s increases for about 5 ms and then gradually decreases. In the supersonic cases, L_s and peak acoustic frequency display specular trends over time, the former increasing while the latter decreases and vice versa (Figure 2). Increasing D results also in decreasing L_s (Figure 3) and shock cell stability and in faster growth of the shear layer downstream of the jet (increasing jet spreading angle). With increasing D , the acoustic radiation in $P = 8$ experiments increases its peak frequency, and the upstream directed component decreases considerably (Figures 2 and 4, Movie S3).

Rough conduit walls leave their fingerprint also on acoustic and accelerometric signals. The RMS amplitude of both acoustic and accelerometric signals increases with increasing P . For $P > 6$ acoustic amplitude decreases

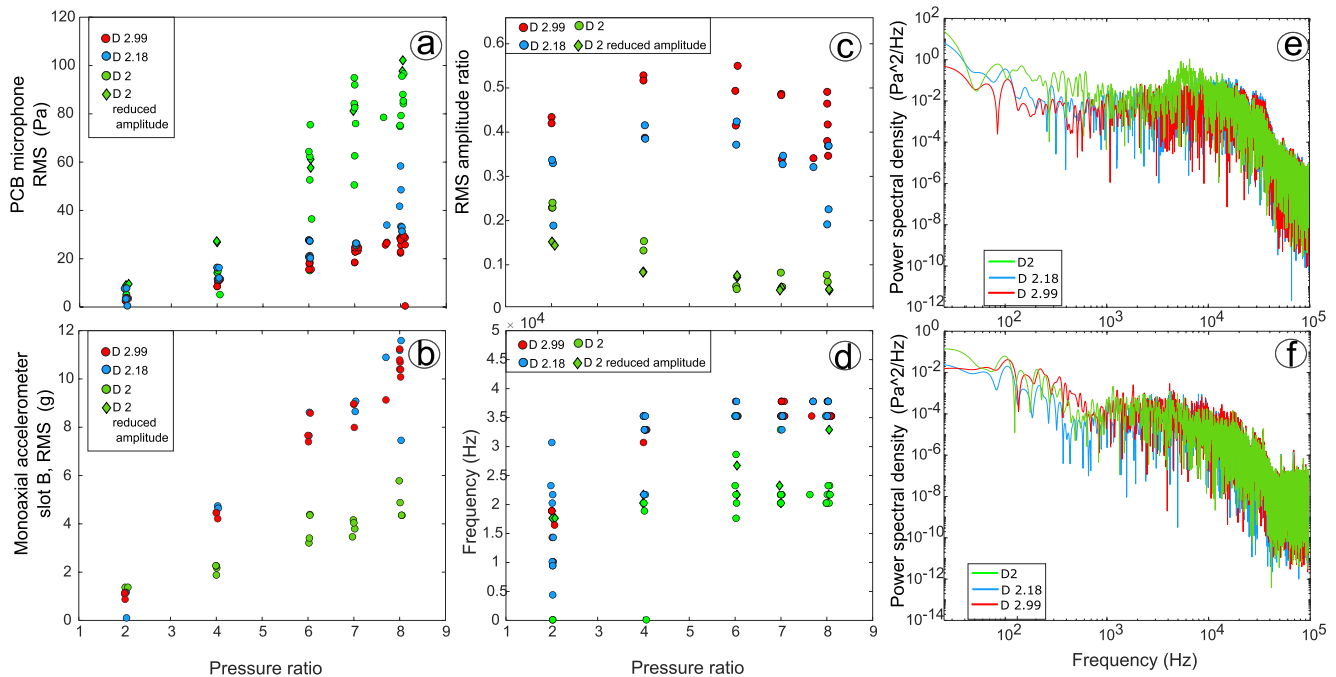


Figure 4. Acoustic and accelerometric radiation as a function of initial pressure ratio P and fractal dimension D . (a) Acoustic amplitude (RMS) of microphone in position J and L (diamonds; amplitude reduced to 30 cm); (b) accelerometric amplitude (RMS); (c) Amplitude ratio between accelerometric and acoustic radiation. (d) Peak frequency in the acoustic radiation wavelet periodogram. (e, f) Examples of Power Spectra computed using a 0.04 s window for experiments performed at $P = 8$ (e) and $P = 2$ (f).

with increasing D (Figure 4a); below this threshold the correlation is less clear. Accelerometric amplitude is always lower for $D = 2$ than for $D = 2.18$ and $D = 2.99$ (Figure 4b). The accelerometer to acoustic RMS amplitude ratio, proxy for energy partitioning between conduit and atmosphere, increases with increasing P until $P = 6$, and decreases afterward. At any P , the amplitude ratio increases with increasing D (Figure 4c).

The peak acoustic frequency of the wavelet periodograms increases with increasing D , but in a complex pattern. For $D = 2$, peak frequency increases with pressure until $P = 6$ (the approximate onset of the supersonic regime) and slightly decreases afterward, while for $D = 2.18$ and $D = 2.99$ the increase till $P = 6$ is sharper and the following decrease less marked (Figure 4d).

The effect of D is strongly nonlinear, changes in all parameters from $D = 2.00$ to $D = 2.18$ being much larger than from $D = 2.18$ to $D = 2.99$. Similar results are shown in Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1 for microphone in position Y-M and accelerometer in slot A. Figures S4 and S5 in Supporting Information S1 show examples of the temporal evolution of spectral properties of respectively acoustic and accelerometric signals at subsonic ($P = 2$) and supersonic ($P = 8$) conditions for $D = 2$.

4. Discussion

4.1. Influence of Conduit Roughness on Jet Flow Structures

Previous studies on pipe flow have shown that roughness influences heat and momentum transfer at the boundary layer by increasing pressure drop, altering laminar-turbulent transitions, inducing secondary flow motion, improving flow mixing and enhancing heat transfer (e.g., Kadivar et al., 2021 and references therein). We observed increasing accelerometric amplitude with increasing D , indicating that rougher walls increment frictional energy loss of the gas flow within conduit. Although the majority of investigations have addressed relative surface roughness (i.e., roughness height to conduit diameter; in our study $\sim 25\%$ for both fractal conduits) up to 5% in percentage (e.g., Flack & Schultz, 2010; Moody, 1944; Nikuradse, 1937), research performed on micro-channels with relative roughness up to 14% highlighted the additional effect of flow area restrictions influencing pressure drop and of the increased shear stress (Kandlikar et al., 2005; Taylor et al., 2006).

The energy lost frictionally against conduit walls is partially converted into turbulent energy of the resulting starting jet. The roughness-induced frictional loss is undetectable in our setup for $P = 2$ and becomes more evident as P increases (Figure 4; Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). The trend of the accelerometric to acoustic amplitude ratio as function of P and D reveals two key points of the conduit walls versus jet energy partition: first, it works oppositely for smooth and rough conduit walls; second, it reverses at the subsonic to supersonic transition. The first point is explained considering that, with increasing Reynolds number, friction decreases for smooth conduit and increases for rough-walled ones (Busse et al., 2017). The second point is explained by the different sources of jet noise acting in the two regimes and the respective changes in radiation directionality (e.g., Tam et al., 2008).

In the subsonic regime, turbulent mixing noise (TMN) dominates the acoustic radiation from the jet, and, in agreement with our results at $P = 2-4$, its frequency increases with Mach number (M) rising from 0.5 to 1.0 (Ilario et al., 2017). TMN has a higher frequency component mainly radiated perpendicularly from the jet direction (best visible in the vertical blade Schlieren images, in orange in Figure 2), and a lower frequency one, increasingly dominant at increasing M (in yellow in Figure 2), mainly radiating in the downstream direction (Tam, 1995), in agreement with our observations, and thus less prone to reach our microphone, located at 90° to the jet axis and level with the vent. In the supersonic regime, TMN is joined and dominated by broadband shock noise (BBSN, in red in Figure 2), due to the interaction of variably-sized, downstream-migrating jet shear layer structures with the shock cells. Screech tones were not observed in our experiments (Figures 4e and 4f; Figure S6 in Supporting Information S1), coherently with the observation that for pipes with length to diameter ratio above 6 screech tones are suppressed (e.g., Jothi & Srinivasan, 2009, 2013).

Both TMN components and BBSN are clearly visible in our Schlieren images at $P = 8$, the latter being more pronounced in the $D = 2.00$ case and radiating in the downstream direction (Figure 2 and Movies S1-S3). L_s is linked to M as follows (Norum & Seiner, 1982):

$$\frac{L_s}{D_e} = 1.1\sqrt{M^2 - 1} \quad (2)$$

where D_e is the nozzle diameter. Assuming $D_e = 0.03$ m (Figure 1), M in our experiments at $P = 6-8$ range 1.03–1.26 for $D = 2.99$, 1.1–1.36 for $D = 2.18$, and 1.6–1.99 for $D = 2.00$. M can be used to evaluate the jet velocity u_j according to:

$$u_j = M * c \quad (3)$$

where c is the acoustic velocity in the medium at fully expanded conditions. This allows us to evaluate the expected broadband peak frequency f_{bbsn} according to the following:

$$u_{\text{kh}} = 0.7u_j \quad (4)$$

$$f_{\text{bbsn}} = \frac{u_{\text{kh}}}{L_s} \quad (5)$$

where u_{kh} is the eddy convection velocity, computed according to Equation 4. For the observed ranges of M , according to Equation 3 u_j spans from ca. 350 m/s for $D = 2.99$ and $P = 6$ to ca. 670 m/s for $D = 2.00$ and $P = 8$ with a percentage of increase from fractal to smooth conduit with the same starting conditions of about 25% at the same P . The expected f_{bbsn} range from $8.7 * 10^3$ up to $2.9 * 10^4$ Hz, in relative good agreement with measured values (1 to almost $4 * 10^4$ Hz, Figure 4; Figures S3 and S4 in Supporting Information S1) considering a slightly smaller nozzle diameter due to local departure from the mean values in fractal conduits.

The observed increase of f_{bbsn} with increasing D is linked with the decrease in L_s with increasing D (Figure 3), due to different contributing factors: (a) variation in the radial jet cross-section due to increasingly irregular geometry of the conduit outlet, and (b) decreasing jet velocity as gas flow interacts with increasingly rough conduit walls. In military nozzles shock-cell spacing is effectively reduced by the introduction of chevrons at the nozzle outlet, which modify initial jet cross-sectional shape by introducing counter-rotating vortex pairs into the jet (Heeb et al., 2016). Local differences in the vent roughness could modulate the initial cross-section of the jet and the subsequent shock-cell structure and shock strength in our experiments. The larger spreading angle of the jet supports the formation of a larger mixing layer and effective smaller jet diameter for larger D . Concerning jet velocity, for the same P this can be reduced by the frictional energy loss due to friction with rough conduit walls. In agreement with our observations, higher jet noise level for smooth conduit walls than for micron-scale rough conduits has been observed (Jothi & Srinivasan, 2013.). In summary, our observations in the supersonic regime are explained by increasing roughness of the conduit walls increasing the relevance of TMN at the expense of BBSN.

4.2. Implications for Volcanic Jets and Seismo-Acoustic Signals

Previous studies have highlighted the importance of conduit wall roughness on the exponent of the power law relating seismic tremor to the volume flux in experimental conduits and volcanoes, and that fractal dimension is an effective descriptor of surface topography and of magma fragmentation (Kueppers et al., 2006; Mark & Aronson, 1984; Pfeifer, 1984; Risović et al., 2009; Sciotto et al., 2019; Spina et al., 2019). In this study, we experimentally tested, for the first time, how volcanic conduit wall roughness plays a role in the amplitude and frequency of elastic (seismo-acoustic) radiation from jets, that are routinely measured during explosive eruptions (e.g., Johnson et al., 2003; Johnson & Ripepe, 2011; Rowell et al., 2014; Taddeucci et al., 2014).

The characteristic frequency of different components of subsonic to supersonic jet noise has been used to get inferences on the diameter of erupting volcanic vents and their temporal evolution (Gestrich et al., 2022; Taddeucci et al., 2021). Acoustic amplitude is an important tool to monitor jet velocity as a proxy for eruption intensity, and its link with jet noise dynamics in the volcanic environment is now established (Fee et al., 2013; Matoza et al., 2013). Here we show that changes in the frequency and amplitude of eruption-generated sound could be induced by changes in the roughness of the conduit, a fact that was previously unaccounted for, despite plenty of evidence illustrating the occurrence conduit erosion during an eruption (e.g., Aravena et al., 2017; Fee et al., 2017; Macedonio et al., 1994; Schmid et al., 2021).

For given initial conditions, smoother conduit walls or a syn-eruptive decrease in conduit roughness, resulting from erosion or lining with new magma, would result in a decrease in energy transfer to the conduit walls and a corresponding increase in jet velocity. This would significantly affect the Volcano Acoustic to Seismic Ratio (VASR; Johnson & Aster, 2005) that is the ratio among acoustic and seismic energy of a given volcanic explosion,

a parameter commonly used to characterize eruption sources and their elastic coupling with the volcano and atmosphere (e.g., Andronico et al., 2013; Johnson & Aster, 2005; Smith et al., 2020). Conduit smoothing would also translate in a change in the dominant source and directionality in the jet-related noise, different in the subsonic or supersonic regime. In the trans-sonic to supersonic regime BBSN would become more dominant and with a lower peak frequency, while in the subsonic one TMN would have a lower fine-scale turbulence component.

Our findings have implications also for the numerical modeling of the flow of gas-pyroclast mixtures in volcanic conduits, where conduit wall roughness is mostly unaccounted for (an attempt to consider conduit wall roughness for relative roughness up to 5% in magma ascent dynamics has been done by La Spina et al., 2019, 2021, 2022), and for the evolution of eruption plumes, largely controlled by jet exit velocity and air entrainment at the jet shear layer (e.g., Carey and Bursik, 2015).

5. Concluding Remarks

Experiments on the role of conduit surface roughness on flow dynamics and elastic radiation of subsonic to supersonic jets brought to light the following key points:

1. The increase in frictional energy loss with increasing roughness, inferred from the increment of accelerometric amplitude and accelerometric to acoustic amplitude ratio, is progressively more evident with increasing pressure ratio. Differences in the subsonic versus supersonic regime for the above mentioned amplitude ratio likely mirror the contribution of distinct sources of jet noise, turbulent mixing noise dominating in the subsonic regime and broadband shock-noise in the supersonic one.
2. In the supersonic regime, decreasing shock-cell spacing with increasing roughness causes increasing acoustic frequency. This is likely to result from the decrease in jet velocity due to increased energy transfer to the conduit. The variation in the jet cross-section at the conduit outlet, possibly introducing counter-rotating vortices, represents an additional contributing factor.
3. Given that the coupling between volcanic flows and conduit shape has been shown to be highly dynamic, a wide spectrum of cross-sectional variations is expected to occur both in time and depth due to depositional and/or erosional processes. The observation of the jet structure and of the seismo-acoustic related radiation is of paramount importance for backtracking the evolution of explosive activity in conduit and to correctly interpret source processes and the coupling of their elastic energy with the conduit wall and the atmosphere.

Data Availability Statement

The repository of data is available at link: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7920109>.

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