

1 Effect of Floodplain Obstructions on the Discharge Conveyance Capacity of Compound 2 Channels

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4 **Abstract:** Results of an experimental study into steady uniform flows in compound open channels with
5 cylindrical obstructions designed to mimic emergent vegetation is presented. Two configurations – fully-
6 covered floodplain and one-line obstructions - are considered, and the hydraulic properties are compared to
7 those of a smooth, unobstructed compound channel. Particular attention is given to the effect of obstruction
8 (i.e. vegetation) density on the rating curve, drag coefficients and spanwise profiles of streamwise velocity.
9 Flow resistance is estimated using the approach introduced by Petryk and Bosmajian and the results are in
10 agreement with other experimental studies. It was shown that the obstruction configuration significantly
11 influences the flow velocity in the main channel, and in the case of one-line obstructions the floodplain
12 velocity is higher than for an unobstructed channel for a given flow rate. Spanwise velocity profiles exhibit
13 markedly different characters in the one-line and fully-covered configurations.

14 **CE Database subject headings:** Vegetated floodplain; Drag coefficient; Water depth-discharge relationship;
15 Spanwise velocity distribution.

16 **Author keywords:** Compound channel; Vegetation; Drag; Rating curve; spanwise velocity profile.

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26 Introduction

27 The middle and lowland stretches of most rivers are characterised by compound cross sections that
28 comprise one or two floodplains and a deeper main channel. Vegetation may be distributed across
29 the floodplains in a variety of ways, including patches of bushes, grassy meadows and regular arrays
30 of trees that line the edges of the main channel and follow its meanders. Such arrays may occur
31 naturally or by design as part of flood protection or habitat creation programs, and may exert
32 significant influence on the hydraulic properties of the compound channel during flood events. One
33 of the most prevalent arrangements is commonly known as “one-line” vegetation which comprises a
34 single line of trees along the side of the main channel, but arrays of trees that extend much further
35 across the floodplain may also occur.

36 Although a number of studies have focused on turbulence, secondary currents and momentum
37 transfer in non-vegetated compound channels (Tominaga and Nezu 1991, van Prooijen et al. 2005,
38 Yang et al. 2007, Vermaas et al. 2011), the influence of floodplain vegetation on the flow conditions
39 and discharge conveyance in compound channels is less well understood and quantified. The impact
40 of vegetation density, ϕ , on the water depth-discharge curve has been studied experimentally by a
41 number of authors for different vegetation configurations: (Ismail and Shiono 2006, Sun and Shiono
42 2009, Terrier 2010) considered one-line vegetation, while (Nehal et al. 2012, Hamidifar and Omid
43 2013) investigated a wholly-vegetated floodplain. Masterman and Thorne (1992) established a
44 theoretical method to estimate the effects of bank vegetation on the channel flow capacity, and
45 showed that it is possible to relate these effects to the channel width-to-depth ratio; the authors
46 showed that the effect of bank vegetation on channel discharge capacity declines rapidly as the
47 width-to-depth ratio increases. Ben-sheng et al. (2002) carried out experiments on a compound
48 channel with a narrow floodplain and showed that the influence of vegetation on the floodplain flow
49 capacity in such cases is not significant. Ismail and Shiono (2006) performed experiments in
50 compound meandering channels with floodplains that were covered with small rectangular blocks to
51 simulate vegetation. The authors carried out tests with fixed and mobile bed sediments to assess the

52 influence of floodplain vegetation on sediment transport. The results showed that the influence of
53 vegetation density on stage discharge curve was minimal for the fixed bed case, but some variation
54 was observed for the mobile bed case. Yang et al. (2007) performed experiments in a compound
55 channel that was either unvegetated or fully covered with model structures that were intended to
56 represent grass, shrubs and trees. The authors found that for a non-vegetated channel the
57 streamwise velocities always followed a logarithmic distribution, whereas S-shape velocity profiles
58 were observed when vegetation was introduced on the floodplain. Hirschowitz and James (2009)
59 estimated the total channel discharge in the presence of emergent vegetation along the banks of a
60 river as the sum of the discharges of the vegetated and clear channel zones calculated separately.

61 A number of researchers have studied the impact of vegetation density on the drag coefficient for
62 flow past arrays of emergent rigid cylinders (Petryk and Bosmajian 1975, Nepf 1999, Tanino and
63 Nepf 2008, Kothyari et al. 2009, Stoesser et al. 2010, Cheng and Nguyen 2011, Tinoco and Cowen
64 2013). Nepf (1999) proposed a model for drag, turbulence and diffusion within emergent vegetation
65 and showed that the bulk drag coefficient decreases as vegetation density increases for both
66 random and staggered arrays. Tanino and Nepf (2008) conducted experiments involving flow
67 through a random array of emergent, rigid cylinders, investigating the effect of Reynolds number
68 and vegetation density on the resistance properties. It was found that the bulk resistance decreased
69 with increasing Reynolds number and increased with increasing solid volume fraction (ϕ).

70 Nehal et al. (2012) performed experiments to investigate the resistance properties of one specific
71 type of aquatic plant, *Acorus Calmus L*, showing that increases in vegetation density are
72 accompanied by significant increases in the water depth; a staggered arrangement of the plants was
73 found to produce the largest decrease in flow rate. Hamimed et al. (2013) also found that the
74 relationship between flow depth and discharge depends strongly on the vegetation density; higher
75 density leads to larger water depth except for very shallow flows, which are largely insensitive to
76 changes in vegetation density. Hin et al. 2008 performed in situ flow measurements in vegetated
77 equatorial streams in Malaysia, arriving at an expression for the apparent friction factor for a natural

78 compound channel in terms of easily measurable hydraulic parameters. The floodplains of the
79 streams were very densely vegetated, and as a result the floodplain flow was very small except when
80 the overbank flow was very large. The researchers observed that the apparent shear was very high
81 at the interface between the main channel and floodplain. Järvelä (2002) and Wunder et al. (2011)
82 studied the hydraulic characteristics of natural willows and sedges to understand how type, density
83 and combination of vegetation affects the bulk resistance in a channel. It was shown that the
84 resistance is highly dependent on the flow depth, velocity, Reynolds number and vegetal
85 characteristics. Shucksmith et al. (2011) investigated experimentally flow resistance properties of
86 two types of live vegetation grown within a laboratory channel and quantified bulk drag coefficients
87 as a function of plant property during growth.

88 In the case of one-line vegetation, a number of researchers have chosen to focus on the influence of
89 the spacing ratio L/D , where L is the centre-to-centre distance between the trees and D is the trunk
90 diameter. Terrier (2010), for example, carried out experiments for two spacing ratios, $L/D = 8$ and
91 $L/D = 16$. Circular cylinders and brushes were employed to represent vegetation with and without
92 foliage, respectively. The results showed that flow rate increased as L/D increased (i.e. vegetation
93 density decreased), except when foliage was added. Sun and Shiono (2009) investigated the flow
94 characteristics in a straight compound channel, with and without one-line vegetation. Two
95 vegetation densities were applied, $L/D = 3.8$ and 13.3 , and it was observed that spanwise
96 distribution of streamwise velocity changed markedly with the introduction of vegetation. The
97 boundary shear stress was also significantly lower with one-line vegetation than without, which led
98 the authors to conclude that sediment transport and bed scour during flood events will be reduced
99 by the introduction of rigid vegetation along floodplain edges, although there will be an associated
100 increase in water levels. Sun and Shiono (2009) also reported that the discharge was reduced by 20-
101 26% for $L/D = 13.3$ and 21-36% for $L/D = 3.8$ compared to the unvegetated floodplain case. Sanjou et
102 al. (2010) tested a spacing ratio of $L/D = 5$ in a compound channel of width ratio $B_{comp}/B_{mc} = 2.50$,
103 where B_{comp} is the overall width and B_{mc} is the main channel width. They reported reduced main

104 channel velocities and altered spanwise distribution of velocities with the inclusion of the one-line
105 vegetation compared to the unvegetated base case; with one-line vegetation two inflection points
106 were observed in the spanwise profiles near the main channel-floodplain interface, while there was
107 just one inflection point for the unvegetated compound channel section. These results suggest that
108 significantly less momentum transfer occurs between the main channel and floodplain when one-
109 line vegetation is introduced. Shiono et al. (2012) carried-out experiments in a flume of length 9m
110 and width 0.915m, with one-line vegetation with $L/D = 17.8$ and bed width ratio $B_{comp}/B_{mc} = 2.0$. The
111 velocity distribution was characteristics by bulges in at the shear layer region near the water surface.
112 Azevedo et al. (2012) modelled one-line vegetation using steel rods of diameter $D = 1.0\text{cm}$ placed at
113 a distance 1.0m apart, i.e. $L/D = 100$. Laser Doppler Velocimetry (LDV) was used to measure
114 velocities in a flume of length 11.6m and width 0.79m with $B_{comp}/B_{mc} = 3.85$. Secondary currents
115 were observed and two types of vortical structures, “bottom vortex” and “free surface vortex”, that
116 were absent from the unvegetated case, were identified. Inclined up-flows were also observed to
117 have higher magnitudes than in the unvegetated case. Time-averaged velocities at different vertical
118 cross sections were shown to be similar except in the area near to the free surface due to the
119 presence of secondary currents. In the centre of the main channel the velocity profiles were similar
120 with and without one-line vegetation.

121 The effects of flow interaction between vegetated and non-vegetated regions in compound open
122 channels result in a spanwise distribution of the depth-averaged mean velocity that is of tangential
123 hyperbolic shape (van Prooijen and Uijttewaal 2002, White and Nepf 2007). Physical, mathematical,
124 and analytical models have been studied by a number of authors with a view of achieving accurate
125 representations of the spanwise distribution of streamwise velocities (Shiono and Knight 1991,
126 Pasche and Rouvé 1985, Pope 2000, van Prooijen and Uijttewaal 2002, van Prooijen et al. 2005,
127 Rameshwaran and Shiono 2007, White and Nepf 2007, Liu and Shen 2008 , White and Nepf 2008,
128 Tang and Knight 2008, Chen et al. 2010, Tang et al. 2010, Li et al. 2014, Teymourei et al. 2013, Yang
129 et al. 2013). Experimentally, Pasche and Rouvé (1985) confirmed that depth-averaged velocities are

130 affected by vegetation in compound channel flows and showed that the inclusion of vegetation
131 reduced longitudinal flow velocities. van Prooijen et al. (2005) proposed mechanisms for the
132 momentum exchange in a straight uniform compound channel flow by considering the spanwise
133 profile of streamwise velocity. White and Nepf (2007) showed that the velocity profiles separate the
134 channel into two sections of uniform velocity; vegetated and open channel, and a transitional region
135 between them. The spanwise variation of streamwise velocity in this transitional region is
136 characterised by a hyperbolic tangent curve. Yang et al. (2007) showed that spanwise distribution of
137 velocity in vegetated compound channels followed an S-shaped curve with three distinct flow
138 regions. Hamidifar and Omid (2013) found that inclusion of vegetation on floodplains led to a
139 decrease in the depth-averaged velocity over the floodplain and an increase in the main channel. In
140 their study the depth-averaged velocity in both the main channel and floodplain decreased as
141 vegetation density increased. Valyrakis et al. (2015) showed experimentally how increasing
142 riverbank vegetation density decreases the streamwise velocity on the riverbank while increasing it
143 at the main channel.

144 In this paper, the effect of vegetation (or “obstruction”) density and distribution on the floodplain on
145 the rating curve, the drag coefficients and the stream-wise velocity distribution in an asymmetric
146 compound channel is investigated experimentally. The paper is organised as follows: the next
147 sections outline the theoretical framework on which the analysis is based; after which the
148 experimental methodology and set-up are introduced. The experimental results are then discussed
149 and finally some conclusions are drawn.

150

151 **Theoretical Considerations**

152 Flow resistance in vegetated streams is due to a combination of form drag and skin friction. The
153 vegetation-induced drag force is given as follows:

$$154 \quad F_D = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_D A_f U_a^2 \quad (1)$$

155 where F_D is the drag force acting on an individual stem, C_D is the drag coefficient, A_f is the frontal

156 area of the stem, ρ is the density of water and U_a is the average velocity approaching the stem,
 157 which Cheng and Nguyen (2011) propose can be well approximated by the average pore velocity
 158 through the vegetated region, $U_{veg} = (Q/BH)/(1 - \phi)$, where Q is the bulk flow rate, B is the channel
 159 width, H is the flow depth and ϕ is the obstruction volume fraction or obstruction density, defined as
 160 the ratio of the volume occupied by the obstructions, V_{veg} , to the total volume, V_{tot} . Note that in the
 161 following analysis the term “obstruction” is used rather than “vegetation” as in some other similar
 162 studies, in order to be clear that the rigid rods are not representative of all types of vegetation. Note
 163 also that Cheng and Nguyen (2011) suggest $U_{veg} = U_a = U_b$ for low obstruction density, where U_{veg} is
 164 the flow through the obstructions and U_b is the bulk flow velocity. Estimation of the drag coefficient
 165 induced by obstructions in streams under steady, uniform flow conditions can be established by
 166 equating the gravity force, F_G , to the drag force exerted by the obstructions, F_D , as follows:

$$167 \quad F_G = F_D \quad (2)$$

168 Where,

$$169 \quad F_G = \rho g (Al) S \quad (3)$$

170 where ρ is the fluid density, g is the gravitational acceleration, A is the channel cross-sectional area, l
 171 is the channel reach, and S is the bed slope (refer to the schematic in Fig. 1). Equations (1-3) can be
 172 rearranged to give the following expression for the drag coefficient, C_D :

$$173 \quad C_D = \frac{2gS}{U_a^2 a} \quad (4)$$

174 where a is the obstruction density per unit length of the reach (m^{-1}), and can be expressed as $a =$
 175 $m\pi D^2/4Bl$, where m is number of stems per unit area occupied by the stems. a and ϕ are
 176 related as $\phi = al$. Equation 4 shows that the drag will decrease as a increases.

177 Tanino and Nepf (2008) formulated the drag coefficient for floodplain flow through an array of rigid
 178 circular cylinders as:

$$179 \quad C_D = \left\{ \frac{\alpha_0}{Re_D} + \alpha_1 \right\} \quad (5)$$

180 where α_0 and α_1 are functions of the vegetation volume fraction, $\alpha_1 = 0.46 + 3.8 \phi$, $\alpha_0 = 5.0 +$
 181 313.17ϕ , and $Re_D = U_{veg}D/\nu$ is the cylinder Reynolds number, where ν is the fluid kinematic
 182 viscosity and U_{veg} is defined by Petryk and Bosmajian (1975) as:

$$183 \quad U_{veg} = \sqrt{\frac{2gALS}{C_D mDH}}$$

184 (6)

185 Kothyari et al. (2009) proposed the following equation for the drag coefficient of emergent
 186 cylindrical stems based on a set of fluid force measurements in subcritical and supercritical flows:

$$187 \quad C_D = 1.8\xi Re_D^{-0.06} [1 + 0.45 \ln(1 + 100\phi)] * (0.8 + 0.2Fr - 0.15Fr^2) \quad (7)$$

188 where, ξ is a parameter representing the effect of the vegetation staggering pattern, with $\xi = 0.8$
 189 for a regular square staggering pattern and $Fr = \frac{U_{veg}}{\sqrt{gH}}$ is the Froude number. The authors found
 190 that the drag coefficient varied only slightly with Reynolds number but was very sensitive to changes
 191 in obstruction density. It should be noted that, owing to the shortness of the flume, the flow was not
 192 fully developed and the authors speculated that drag coefficients were therefore higher than they
 193 would have been for fully developed flow.

194 Cheng and Nguyen (2011) related the drag coefficient to Reynolds number by a new parameter, the
 195 vegetation-related hydraulic radius, r_v , which is defined as the ratio of the volume occupied by water
 196 to the total frontal area of all cylinders:

$$197 \quad r_v = \frac{\pi D}{4} \left(\frac{1-\phi}{\phi} \right) \quad (8)$$

198 The drag coefficient and vegetation Reynolds number can then be expressed as follows:

$$199 \quad C_D = 2gr_v S / U_{veg}^2 \quad (9)$$

$$200 \quad Re_v = U_{veg} r_v / \nu \quad (10)$$

201 The authors found that dependence of C_D on Re_v varies with obstruction density and configuration
 202 (random or staggered) as also observed by (Tanino and Nepf 2008, Kothyari et al. 2009).

203 In compound channel flows an apparent shear stress, τ_{int} , arises due to the high velocity gradients
 204 that are experienced at the interfaces between neighbouring regions of the cross-section. The shear
 205 stress force is considered as:

$$206 \quad F_{\tau} = \tau_{int} A_{shear} \quad (11)$$

207 Where, A_{shear} is the shear area, and τ_{int} is the apparent shear stress

208 This apparent shear stress was defined by Huthoff (2007) as follows:

$$209 \quad \tau_{int} = \frac{1}{2} \psi \rho (U_{mc}^2 - U_{fp}^2) \quad (12)$$

210 where, τ_{int} = shear stress at the interface between the main channel and the floodplain, ψ = a
 211 dimensionless interface coefficient, $\psi \approx 0.020$, U_{mc} = velocity of the flow in the main channel,
 212 U_{fp} = velocity of flow above the floodplain.

213 For one-line vegetation, because there are two dips at the interface between the main channel and
 214 the floodplain, the interfacial shear stress is expressed as follows:

$$215 \quad \tau_{int} = \frac{1}{2} \psi \rho [(U_{mc}^2 - U_{dip}^2) + (U_{fp}^2 - U_{dip}^2)] \quad (13)$$

216 where, U_{dip} = velocity of the flow near to the interface.

217 In addition to the Huthoff (2007) expression, a number of methods for quantifying the apparent
 218 shear stress at the interface between the main channel and the floodplain were reviewed in
 219 (Thornton et al. 2000). Two of these methods have been used in the present study. The first of these
 220 was derived by Rajaratnam and Ahmadi (1981) and is defined as follows:

$$221 \quad \tau_{int} = 0.15 \left(\frac{H_{mc}}{H_{fp}} - 1 \right)^2 (\gamma H_{fp} S) \quad (14)$$

222 where, H_{mc} = depth of flow in the main channel, H_{fp} = depth of flow on the floodplain, γ =
 223 specific weight of water and S = friction slope.

224

225 The second approach, derived empirically by Thornton et al. (2000), relates the shear stress,
 226 percentage blockage due to vegetation, F_B , flow depth, and flow velocities as follows:

$$227 \quad \tau_{int} = 0.1025 \left(\frac{U_{fp}}{U_{mc}} \right)^{-3.4148} \left(\frac{H_{fp}}{H_{mc}} \right)^2 (1 - F_B) \quad (15)$$

228 With one-line vegetation, drag coefficient is calculated from the following expression:

$$229 \quad F_D = F_G - F_S + F_\tau \quad (16)$$

230 where F_S is the bed shear stress force and can be written as:

$$231 \quad F_S = \rho g R S B l \quad (17)$$

232 where R is the hydraulic radius.

233

234 **Experimental methodology and setups**

235 Experiments were carried out in a 10 m × 1.2 m × 0.3 m glass-walled recirculating flume in the Hyder
236 Hydraulics Laboratory at Cardiff University, UK. The bed slope was set to 0.001 for all test cases. A
237 compound channel with one floodplain was installed in the flume by attaching slabs of plastic, 76 cm
238 wide and 2.4 cm thick, alongside one of the side walls. The floodplain was therefore 76 cm wide, and
239 the bankfull depth of the main channel was 2.4 cm (Fig. 2). The floodplain bed slope was equal to
240 that of the main channel, i.e. $S_{mc} = S_{fp} = S = 0.001$. Flow depths were controlled by a tailgate that was
241 located at the downstream end of the flume's working section. Uniform flow was verified by
242 measuring the water level at 1m intervals along the working section, using a digital surface
243 displacement gauge that outputs a voltage that is proportional to the length of its submerged
244 section. The voltage signal was then amplified and logged on a workstation using data acquisition
245 software. The volumetric flow rate was measured using a Nixon probe velocimeter, which itself was
246 carefully calibrated using a previously established calibration curve for the flume. The surface
247 displacement gauge and Nixon velocimeter were also used for all measurements of water level and
248 velocity that are presented in this article. Level and velocity measurements were taken during 120
249 seconds at a sampling frequency of 1Hz; 120 samples of instantaneous level and velocity were
250 therefore available. The samples were checked by eye and any anomalous values were removed
251 before the temporal mean was calculated.

252 Wooden rods of three different diameters ($D = 5.0$ cm, 2.5 cm and 1.25 cm) were used as laboratory
253 models for rigid emergent vegetation elements. Three canonical configurations were tested:

254 unobstructed channel, fully covered floodplain and one-line vegetation. For the case of the fully
255 covered floodplain the rods were inserted into holes that were drilled into the plastic floodplain in a
256 staggered fashion; the centre-to-centre separation of the holes in streamwise and spanwise
257 directions was 12.5 cm (Fig. 2a). This arrangement produced solid volume fractions of 24.8% (dense
258 vegetation), 6.2% (medium) and 1.5% (sparse) for the three different rod diameters. These volume
259 fractions represent a broad range and are comparable to fractions that have been studied by other
260 researchers, for example Nepf (1999) and Tanino and Nepf (2008). For the case of one-line
261 vegetation the rods were inserted into holes that were drilled along a line parallel to the sides of
262 the flume: the streamwise centre-to-centre separation of the holes was 12.5 cm and the hole
263 centres were 2.5 cm from the edge of the main channel (Fig. 2b). This arrangement produced
264 normalised vegetation spacings of $L/D = 2.5, 5$ and 10 for the three different rod diameters.

265 Five discharges were tested for all vegetation configurations and rod diameters: 4.66 l/s, 5.87 l/s,
266 7.51 l/s, 8.87 l/s and 11.03 l/s. Table 1 provides a summary of flow conditions for all test cases.

267 For each discharge the water depth at the centre of the main channel was measured at streamwise
268 intervals of 1 m in the section $3 \text{ m} \leq x \leq 9 \text{ m}$. Measurements of mean streamwise velocity, U , were
269 carried out in sections in which the flow was considered to be fully developed (refer to Fig. 4 for
270 evidence of this). Figure 3 illustrates the velocity measurement locations for the wholly-vegetated
271 and one-line configurations: for the fully covered floodplain, velocities in two sections were
272 measured ($x = 4.76 \text{ m}$, and 8.52 m), while for the one-line case four sections were considered ($x =$
273 4.76 m , 7.76 m , 8.15 m and 8.52 m). In the main channel velocities were measured at two depths,
274 $0.2H_{mc}$ and at $0.8H_{mc}$, and the average was taken ($U = (U_{0.2H_{mc}} + U_{0.8H_{mc}})/2$). The first spanwise
275 measurement location was 6.5 cm from the main channel side-wall, and further measurements were
276 taken at 5 cm spanwise intervals until a distance 7 cm from the edge of the floodplain (Zone I in Fig.
277 3); over these last 7 cm (Zone II) measurements were taken at 1 cm spanwise intervals to improve
278 the resolution in this complex region. On the floodplain (Zone III) the velocity was measured at the
279 mid-depth, i.e. $U = U_{0.5H_{fp}}$, with two measurements between neighbouring rods in the same row

280 taken. For the one-line vegetation case the same procedure was followed in the main channel
281 (Zones I and II) as for the fully covered case but on the floodplain (Zone III) the velocities were
282 measured at 5 cm spanwise intervals from the rod centre to the side wall. For the unobstructed
283 channel case the same procedure was adopted for the main channel (Zones I and II) as for the other
284 two cases, while on the floodplain (Zone III) measurements were taken 5 cm spanwise intervals
285 between the edge of the main channel and the side wall.

286

287 **Results and Discussions**

288 **Spanwise distribution of streamwise velocity**

289 Figure 4 presents spanwise profiles of mean depth-averaged streamwise velocity for the fully
290 covered floodplain and one-line vegetation cases. Figures 4a, 4b and 4c correspond to the three
291 different flow rates tested with one-line vegetation and Figs. 4d, 4e and 4f correspond to the
292 different flow rates with a fully covered floodplain. Note that the velocity has been normalised on
293 the bulk streamwise velocity for the whole system, U_{bulk} . Profiles measured at two (one-line) or four
294 (fully covered) streamwise locations are presented: the close agreement between profiles measured
295 at different streamwise locations indicates that the flow in the measurement section of the flume
296 was fully developed.

297 Figure 5 presents comparisons of spanwise profiles of mean depth-averaged streamwise velocity for
298 the different configurations (unobstructed, fully covered and one-line) for the three flow rates that
299 were tested. Note that for the fully covered floodplain and one-line cases only data pertaining to the
300 $D = 2.5\text{cm}$ cases have been presented. The velocity is normalised U_{bulk} . The plots provide clear
301 confirmation that, as would be expected, flow velocity above a fully covered floodplain is noticeably
302 lower than that above an unobstructed floodplain. However the plots also reveal that the inclusion
303 of one-line vegetation produces higher velocities above the floodplain compared to the
304 unobstructed case. Correspondingly, the streamwise velocities in the main channel are highest for
305 the fully covered floodplain case, lowest for the unobstructed case and intermediate for the one-line

306 case. Also noteworthy are the characters of the velocity distributions: for the fully covered and
307 unobstructed floodplains the spanwise profiles follow an S-shaped curve but for one-line vegetation
308 the profiles exhibit a distinct dip at the interface between the main channel and the floodplain.

309 Spanwise profiles of depth-averaged mean streamwise velocity for the case of an unobstructed
310 floodplain are shown in Fig. 6, illustrating the effect of flow rate on the velocity distribution. The plot
311 reveals that the normalised velocity in the main channel decreases with increasing flow rate, while
312 increasing above the floodplain.

313 Figures 7a, 7b and 7c present spanwise profiles of depth-averaged mean streamwise velocity for the
314 case of a fully covered floodplain. Each of the three sub-figures corresponds to a different flow rate,
315 and in each sub-figure data pertaining to the three obstruction densities are plotted. In all cases the
316 data exhibit S-shaped spanwise profiles, and the velocity in the main channel increases with
317 increasing obstruction density. The floodplain velocities are shown to be largely independent of
318 obstruction density, with the exception of the highest flow rate case (Fig. 7c), where the floodplain
319 velocity is slightly larger for the lowest obstruction density.

320 Figure 7d, 7e and 7f present spanwise profiles of depth-averaged mean streamwise velocity for the
321 case of one-line vegetation, for the three different flow rates that have been considered. The
322 velocity gradients either side of the interface between the main channel and the floodplain are very
323 strong, leading to very high shear stresses and strong large scale vortices as shown by (Mulahasan et
324 al. 2015). The profiles also reveal very pronounced local minima close to the line of vegetation,
325 indicating suppression of momentum transfer between the main channel and the floodplain, which
326 is in agreement with the findings of Sun and Shiono (2009) and Shiono et al. (2012), who also
327 observed similarly pronounced minima at the edge of the floodplain.

328 **Estimation of mean drag coefficients**

329 Figure 8 presents the variation of drag coefficient with Reynolds number, based on U_{bulk} , and stem
330 diameter, for the fully covered floodplain case. The experimental drag coefficient values for the
331 present study have been estimated using the simple streamwise momentum balance, and are

332 plotted alongside experimental data from a number of previous experimental studies. Note that the
333 drag coefficient was calculated at all four measurement cross-sections (Fig. 3) and the mean was
334 calculated. In addition, empirical relationships proposed by Tanino and Nepf (2008), Kothiyari et al
335 (2009) and Cheng and Nguyen (2011) have been applied to the hydraulic conditions investigated in
336 the present study, and the resulting drag coefficient estimates have also been included in the plot.
337 Clearly the collated data shows that the drag coefficient displays a high degree of sensitivity to
338 changes in both Reynolds number and obstruction density. The experimental data from the present
339 study appears to follow the general trend displayed by the other data sets, although there is
340 considerable scatter. It is interesting that the lowest density ratio data sets of Tinco and Cowen
341 (2013) ($\phi = 1.0\%$) is the notable outlier from the general trend; in this case the drag coefficient
342 appears to be largely independent of Reynolds number. Application of the empirical relationships to
343 the hydraulic conditions tested in the present study generally produces very close agreement with
344 the measured drag coefficients.

345 Figure 9 shows the influence of rod diameter on the drag coefficient-Reynolds number relationship
346 for the case of one-line vegetation. The figure clearly shows that drag coefficient decreases with
347 increasing Reynolds number, and the range of measured drag coefficient increases with decreasing
348 rod diameter. It is noteworthy that for all three rod diameters the gradients of the lines are
349 noticeably steep. The drag coefficient is therefore very sensitive to changes in Reynolds number in
350 the range investigated. As discussed in the "Theoretical Considerations" section of this article,
351 various researchers have proposed different empirical relationships to allow the determination of
352 the interfacial shear stress in compound channels. Equations 12 to 15 have been used to estimate
353 the interfacial shear stress for the flow cases investigated in the present study, and Fig. 10 reveals
354 the effect of the choice of equation on the estimated drag coefficient. Also included in the plot are
355 data from the experimental study of Tanino and Nepf (2008) and Tanino and Nepf (2008)'s proposed
356 drag coefficient equation for the wholly vegetated case. The plot reveals that the data from the
357 present investigation, which populate the Reynolds number range $1800 < Re < 8400$, largely follow

358 the same trend as the experimental data of Tanino and Nepf. The plot also suggests that the choice
359 of empirical equation does not significantly affect the estimation of drag coefficient: there is
360 relatively little scatter between the four data sets.

361 **Impact of Vegetation on the Water Depth-Discharge Curve**

362 The influence of obstruction density on the water depth-discharge relationship for the fully covered
363 floodplain case is shown in Fig. 11a. The plot clearly illustrates that in general the inclusion of a fully
364 covered floodplain produces a marked increase in water depth compared to the unobstructed case
365 for a given flow rate. The increase is smallest at the lowest flow rate and becomes more noticeable
366 as flow rate increases. As would be expected, increasing the rod diameter, and therefore the
367 obstruction density, results in further increases in water level. The water level increases with flow
368 rate in all cases: interestingly, water depth appears to increase linearly with flow rate when the
369 floodplain is vegetated but this is not the case for the unobstructed channel.

370 Figure 11b presents the variation of water depth with flow rate for the one-line vegetation case. The
371 inclusion of one-line vegetation produces a much smaller increase in water depth compared to the
372 fully covered floodplain (Fig. 11a). This is due to the fact that the overall obstruction density, and
373 therefore flow blockage, for the one-line case is naturally much smaller than in the full-vegetated
374 case. The plot does indicate, however, that water depth is noticeably more sensitive to changes in
375 L/D for one-line vegetation than to changes in density for a fully covered floodplain. It can clearly be
376 seen that there has been a significant increase in the water depth as the obstruction density is
377 increased in comparison with non-vegetated floodplain (Fig. 11a). The mean increase in the water
378 depth is 15.88%, 15.13% and 13.1% for dense, medium and sparse obstruction densities
379 respectively.

380

381 **Conclusions**

382 Laboratory experiments were carried out to quantify the influence of floodplain vegetation on the
383 rating curve, mean drag coefficient and spanwise distribution of streamwise velocity in compound

384 open channels. Two configurations - fully covered floodplain and one-line obstructions - were tested
385 along with a smooth unobstructed compound channel. Vegetation elements were modelled by
386 emergent rigid wooden rods of circular cross-section. For the cases with obstructions (i.e.
387 vegetation) the effect of obstruction density was investigated, and in all cases three flow rates were
388 tested.

389 The results showed that for a fully covered floodplain the water depth increased by 15.88%, 15.13%
390 and 13.1% for dense, medium and sparse obstruction densities respectively compared to the
391 unobstructed case. One-line obstructions produced a smaller increase in flow depth than the fully
392 covered floodplain.

393 It was observed that for a fully covered floodplain the drag coefficient increases with increasing
394 obstruction density. For all obstruction densities the drag coefficient was observed to decrease as
395 Reynolds number increased. Applying the empirical equations of Tanino and Nepf (2008), Kothyari,
396 et al. (2009) and Cheng and Nguyen (2011) to estimate the drag coefficients for the hydraulic
397 conditions presently tested produced values in the range of experimental data from the literature,
398 with relatively little scatter. The experimentally-recorded drag coefficients agreed well with Tinco
399 and Cowen's (2013) results for medium obstruction density, but the agreement for low obstruction
400 density is less convincing.

401 For one-line obstructions, it was observed that drag coefficient increases with decreasing rod
402 diameter. Empirical equations from the literature were used to estimate the interfacial shear stress
403 at the interface between the main channel and the floodplain: accounting for the interfacial shear
404 stress in this way produced more accurate estimations of the overall drag coefficient compared to
405 simply equating drag force to the overall bed shear stress. Using Tanino and Nepf's (2008) empirical
406 equation for the range of hydraulic parameters presently tested produced estimations for drag
407 coefficient in the region of 1.0.

408 Spanwise profiles of depth-averaged mean streamwise velocity confirmed that introduction of a fully
409 covered floodplain results in a considerable reduction in floodplain velocities compared to the

410 unobstructed case, while one-line obstructions produce an increase in floodplain velocity. Velocity in
411 the main channel is lower for fully covered floodplains and higher for one-line obstructions. The
412 spanwise distributions of streamwise velocity for fully covered and unobstructed floodplains follow
413 S-shaped curves whereas for one-line obstructions a very pronounced dip is observed at the
414 interface between the main channel and the floodplain.

415

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419

420 **Notation**

421 The following symbols were used in this paper:

422 A = cross sectional area of flow;

423 a = obstruction (or vegetation) density per unit length of reach;

424 A_{bed} = area of bed occupied by vegetation;

425 A_f = projected area;

426 A_{shear} = shear area;

427 A_{veg} = area of vegetation;

428 C_D = drag coefficient;

429 C_{D_v} = vegetated drag coefficient;

430 D = cylinder diameter;

431 FB = percent flow blockage;

432 F_D = drag force per unit volume;

433 F_G = gravity force;

434 Fr = Froude number;

435 F_τ = interface shear stress;

436 g = gravitational acceleration;

437 H_{mc} = depth of flow in the main channel;

438 H = flow depth;

439 H_{fp} = depth of flow on the floodplain;

440 L = spanwise spacing;

441 l = channel reach length;

442 m = number of cylinders per unit area;

443 Q = discharge;

444 R = hydraulic radius;

445 Re_D = cylinder Reynolds number;

446 Re_v = vegetated Reynolds number;

447 r_v = vegetated-related hydraulic radius;

448 S = channel bed slope;

449 SVF = solid volume fraction;

450 U = average velocity;

451 U_{bulk} = bulk velocity for whole flume;

452 U_a = average velocity approaching the cylinder;

453 U_{fp} = velocity of flow on the floodplain;

454 U_{mc} = velocity of the flow in the main channel;

455 U_{veg} = velocity of flow within the vegetation elements;

456 y = lateral streamwise width;

457 w = flume width;

458 α_0 & α_1 = functions of solid volume fraction;

459 γ = specific weight of water;

460 ξ = parameter representing the cylinder staggered pattern;

461 ν = kinematic viscosity;

462 ρ = density of water;
463 τ_{int} = apparent shear stresses at the interface;
464 ϕ = obstruction (or vegetation) density ;
465 ψ = proportionality coefficient.

466

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625 TABLE 1 Summary of flow conditions

Config.	D (cm)	Q (l/s)	H _{mc} (cm)	H _{fp} (cm)	U _{bulk} (cm/s)	Re _D	Re _R	Fr	SVF (%)	L/D
Non-vegetated floodplain	-	4.66	3.96	1.56	16.07	-	3661	0.26	-	-
	-	5.82	4.61	2.21	15.81	-	4523	0.24	-	-
	-	7.51	5.26	2.86	16.84	-	5782	0.23	-	-
	-	8.87	5.59	3.19	18.27	-	6794	0.25	-	-
	-	11.03	6.12	3.72	20.08	-	8376	0.26	-	-
One-line	5.00	4.66	4.39	1.99	13.64	6781	3635	0.21	-	2.5
	5.00	5.82	5.12	2.72	13.55	6736	4486	0.19	-	2.5
	5.00	7.51	5.83	3.43	14.60	7257	5730	0.19	-	2.5
	5.00	8.87	6.49	4.09	14.94	7427	6699	0.19	-	2.5
	5.00	11.03	6.98	4.58	16.90	8400	8267	0.20	-	2.5
	2.50	4.66	4.22	1.82	14.51	3606	3646	0.23	-	5.0
	2.50	5.82	4.71	2.31	15.31	3804	4516	0.23	-	5.0
	2.50	7.51	5.39	2.99	16.27	4044	5770	0.22	-	5.0
	2.50	8.87	5.95	3.55	16.78	4169	6756	0.22	-	5.0
	2.50	11.03	6.54	4.14	18.39	4570	8323	0.23	-	5.0
	1.25	4.66	4.22	1.82	14.51	1803	3646	0.23	-	10
	1.25	5.82	4.69	2.29	15.41	1914	4517	0.23	-	10
	1.25	7.51	5.34	2.94	16.49	2049	5774	0.23	-	10
	1.25	8.87	5.78	3.38	17.45	2168	6774	0.23	-	10
	1.25	11.03	6.14	3.74	19.99	2484	8374	0.26	-	10
Fully covered	5.00	4.66	4.46	2.06	13.32	6619	3633	0.20	24.8	-
	5.00	5.82	5.14	2.74	13.48	6699	4486	0.19	24.8	-
	5.00	7.51	6.18	3.78	13.50	6709	5700	0.17	24.8	-
	5.00	8.87	6.99	4.59	13.57	6746	6650	0.16	24.8	-
	5.00	11.03	7.95	5.55	14.34	7128	8148	0.16	24.8	-
	2.50	4.66	4.37	1.97	13.74	3415	3638	0.21	6.2	-
	2.50	5.82	5.01	2.61	13.98	3475	4495	0.20	6.2	-
	2.50	7.51	6.20	3.8	13.44	3340	5699	0.17	6.2	-
	2.50	8.87	7.00	4.6	13.55	3367	6649	0.16	6.2	-
	2.50	11.03	7.95	5.55	14.34	3564	8148	0.16	6.2	-
	1.25	4.66	4.35	1.94	13.87	1724	3639	0.21	1.5	-
	1.25	5.82	4.89	2.49	14.48	1800	4503	0.21	1.5	-
	1.25	7.51	6.05	3.65	13.89	1726	5712	0.18	1.5	-
	1.25	8.87	6.69	4.29	14.36	1785	6681	0.18	1.5	-
	1.25	11.03	7.78	5.38	14.73	1831	8169	0.17	1.5	-

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631 **Figure Captions**

632 **Fig. 1.** Schematic showing an open channel with emergent vegetation represented by circular rods.

633 **Fig. 2.** Experimental set-ups: a) fully covered floodplain b) one-line vegetation.

634 **Fig. 3.** Schematics (top-view) of measurement section of flume showing measurement locations; (a)
635 fully covered floodplain, (b) one-line vegetation and unobstructed floodplain. Dashed lines denote
636 water level measurement cross-sections. Zones I, II and III denote zone of different resolution for
637 velocity measurements.

638 **Fig. 4.** Spanwise profiles of mean depth-averaged streamwise velocity: a) fully covered, $Q=4.66\text{l/s}$; b)
639 fully covered, $Q=7.51\text{l/s}$; c) fully covered, $Q=11.03\text{l/s}$, c) one-line, $Q=4.66\text{l/s}$; d) one-line, $Q=7.51\text{l/s}$;
640 e) one-line, $Q=11.03\text{l/s}$. Medium obstruction density ($D=2.5\text{cm}$) for all cases.

641 **Fig. 5.** Spanwise profiles of mean depth-averaged streamwise velocity for fully covered floodplain
642 and one-line vegetation in comparison to non-vegetated floodplain: a) $Q=4.66\text{ l/s}$; b) $Q=7.51\text{ l/s}$; and
643 c) $Q=11.03\text{ l/s}$

644 **Fig. 6.** Spanwise profiles of mean depth-averaged streamwise velocity for unobstructed compound
645 channel

646 **Fig. 7.** Impact of the obstruction density on the spanwise velocity profiles: a) fully covered,
647 $Q=4.66\text{l/s}$; b) fully covered, $Q=7.51\text{l/s}$; c) fully covered, $Q=11.03\text{l/s}$; d) one-line, $Q=4.66\text{l/s}$; e) one-
648 line, $Q=7.51\text{l/s}$; and f) one-line, $Q=11.03\text{l/s}$.

649 **Fig. 8.** Drag coefficient-Reynolds number relationship for fully covered floodplain

650 **Fig. 9.** Impact of rod diameter on the drag coefficient-Reynolds number relationship from water
651 balance equation ($F_D = F_G - F_T - F_S$) for one-line vegetation

652 **Fig. 10.** Drag coefficient-Reynolds number relationship: effect of choice of theoretical approach to
653 calculate interfacial shear stress

654 **Fig. 11.** Stage-discharge curves for compound channel flow: a) fully covered and unobstructed
655 floodplains; b) one-line vegetation and unobstructed floodplain.