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Abstract

Flow within vegetation characterized by non-uniform roughness density is drawing significant research work and it has remarkable relevance to a plethora of applications in eco-hydraulics including river restoration and flow in wetland and marshes. Following that, the mean longitudinal velocity profile in a two layered cylindrical vegetation system is studied using flume experiments and then new first-order closure model is derived for the same. Layer 1 represents the region close to the channel bottom where the flow experiences maximum drag due to the densely placed vegetation, while layer 2 represents the flow region above the short vegetation characterized by a smaller vegetation density. Considering the aforementioned arrangements, a new analytical model based on Reynolds-averaged closure principles is proposed to describe the vertical distribution of mean streamwise velocity in an open channel with two different vegetation densities. In the proposed model, the one-dimensional steady and planar-homogeneous momentum equation is used where the turbulent eddy viscosity is assumed to be linearly related to the local mean velocity. The proposed analytical model has been calibrated using experiments reported here in which vegetation is represented by using circular plastic cylinders of two different heights. The proposed model is further tested against published experiments with similar arrangements. In total, 22 different experimental conditions with distinct densities, rigidity, and flow depths have been analyzed. The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of the velocity comparisons is found to be less than 0.0342 m/s, which is par acceptable.

Keywords	Emergent vegetation, open channel flow, submerged vegetation, two layer vegetation, velocity profiles.
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2 **Open channel flow within and above a layered vegetation: Experiments and first-order**
3 **closure modeling**
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5

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19
20 **Abstract**

21 Flow within vegetation characterized by non-uniform roughness density is drawing
22 significant research attention given its relevance to a plethora of applications in eco-
23 hydraulics including river restoration, and flow in wetland and marshes. The focus here is on
24 flume experiments and modeling of the mean longitudinal velocity profile in a two layered
25 cylindrical vegetation system. Layer 1 represents the region close to the channel bottom
26 where the flow experiences maximum drag due to the densely placed vegetation, while layer
27 2 represents the flow region above the short vegetation characterized by a smaller vegetation
28 density. Considering the aforementioned arrangements, a new analytical model based on
29 Reynolds-averaged closure principles is proposed to describe the vertical distribution of mean
30 streamwise velocity in an open channel with two different vegetation densities. In the
31 proposed model, the one-dimensional steady and planar-homogeneous momentum equation is
32 used where the turbulent eddy viscosity is assumed to be linearly related to the local mean
33 velocity. The proposed analytical model has been calibrated using experiments reported here

34 in which vegetation is represented by using circular plastic cylinders of two different heights.
35 The proposed model is further tested against published experiments with similar
36 arrangements. In total, 22 different experimental conditions with distinct densities, rigidity,
37 and flow depths have been analyzed. The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of the velocity
38 comparisons is found to be less than 0.0342 m/s, which is acceptable.

39 Keywords: Emergent vegetation, open channel flow, submerged vegetation, two layer
40 vegetation, velocity profile.

41 **Introduction**

42 The hydrodynamics of free surface flow through and above vegetation is impacted by the
43 presence of vegetation, which affects the velocity, boundary shear, Reynolds stress, and
44 turbulence intensity (Nepf, 1999; Nepf and Vivoni, 2000; Lopez and Garcia 2001; Ghisalberti
45 and Nepf, 2006; Poggi et al. 2004; Stoesser et al., 2010). Furthermore, flow induced through
46 differential vegetation heights, densities and flow depth alters the overall roughness, which
47 completely changes the physics of the flow. In addition, the complexity of flow manifolds,
48 due to macro roughness, causes this type of flow no longer to be explained through a single
49 global factor such as Manning's roughness coefficient.

50

51 Multiple mechanisms impact the flow description within vertically non-uniform canopies
52 (Katul et al., 2011; Nikora et al., 2013; Huai et al., 2014). These multiple mechanism can be
53 represented layer by layer to account for changes in roughness density, vegetation height,
54 water level, and dominant vertical structures (Carollo et al., 2002; Huai et al., 2014; Tang &
55 Ali, 2013; Tang, 2018a, 2019a-c; Singh et al., 2019a).

56

57 Previous methods describing the mean velocity profile employed the approaches based on
58 solutions to the mean momentum equation that is subject to closure schemes for the total

59 stresses. The most problematic feature of the velocity profile is the shear layer at the top of
60 vegetation, which is induced through gradient of velocity (Raupach et al., 1996). The
61 turbulence produced in this region is governed by the mixing length and vertical turbulent
62 transport of momentum from the overlying flow, with the negligible contribution from the
63 pressure gradient. The effect of the shear length scale was found to be a function of the
64 vegetation height and flow depth (Klopstra et al., 1996; Defina and Bixio, 2005; Tang,
65 2019a&c; Singh et al. 2019a).

66

67 Several studies and experiments (see Fig.1) have examined the submerged single layered flow
68 with both flexible and rigid plant models (Poggi et al., 2004; Nikora et al., 2013; Okamoto
69 and Nezu, 2013; Liu et al., 2010; Huai et al., 2014). However, only few studies have
70 examined the two layered vegetation flow with tall vegetation being emergent i.e. $h_t > H$,
71 where h_t is the height of the tall vegetation and H is the flow depth. This condition seems
72 most realistic in case of real time scenarios, where the flow depth covers the small vegetation
73 but the taller vegetation is emergent throughout the flow. Finally, momentum transport is
74 mainly due to vertical turbulent exchange since the longitudinal advection can be
75 insignificant in the lower vegetation zone (Fig. 1).

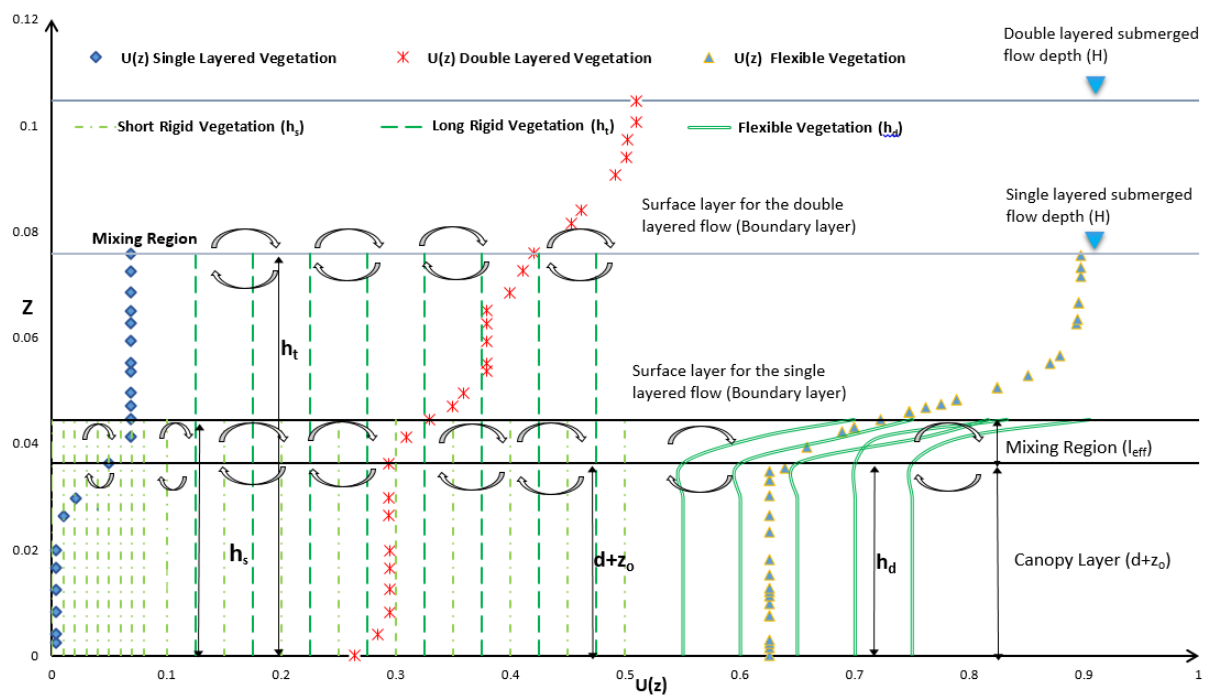
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77 Using the mean longitudinal momentum balance equation subject to planar homogeneous,
78 steady state conditions and further assuming bed and wall shear stresses to be negligible
79 compared to the drag force imposed by the vegetation, a mathematical model is proposed and
80 tested using new flume experiments.

81

82 This paper develops and evaluates a phenomenological model for estimating the vertical
83 distribution of mean longitudinal velocity in the two layer vegetation with taller vegetation
84 being emergent. Our experimental studies have shown that, the density of vegetation plays a

85 key role in capturing the inflection point and the mixing length over the short vegetation
 86 height. The flow is divided into two layers that are modelled independently by coupled
 87 through continuity and smoothness. The application of the proposed model was carried out in
 88 a condition where short dowels are fully submerged, but the tall ones are emergent. The first
 89 zone is the one that starts from the channel bed to the location near the top of short
 90 vegetation; the second zone is in between the top of short vegetation and the water surface.
 91 For the two zones, different parameters have been embedded in the proposed analytical
 92 equations to predict the flow velocity for the aforementioned condition. In addition, the
 93 performance of the proposed method was evaluated with 22 experimental data using root
 94 mean square (Banerjee et al., 2018; Tang, 2018b).



96 **Figure 1.** Schematic of the mean velocity profile through single (rigid and flexible) and two layered (rigid)
 97 vegetation with flow depth (H) for respective vegetation configuration. The mixing region and inflection point
 98 over the short (h_s), undeflected (h_d) and tall (h_t) vegetation are depicted with the vertical distribution of the
 99 longitudinal velocity $U(z)$. The von-Karman street, mixing region and boundary layer in the profile can be found
 100 in $d+z_0$, l_{eff} and surface layer region, as shown in the conceptual model of vegetative flow within a straight
 101 channel respectively.

102
 103
 104

105 Theoretical background

106 Vegetation inside the channel could be either emergent or submerged. Experimental studies
107 have shown that the vertical distribution of mean velocity in emergent conditions is almost
108 uniform over the depth (Tsujiimoto and Kitamura, 1990; Stone and Shen, 2002). On the other
109 hand in submerged conditions, the vertical distribution of mean velocity follows an ‘S-
110 shaped’ pattern with inflection over the zero plane displacement generally found near the top
111 of the short vegetation (Kouwen et al., 1969; Temple, 1986; Ikeda and Kanazawa, 1996;
112 Carollo et al. 2002). The previous analytical models proposed by Klopstra et al. (1996),
113 Ghisalberti and Nepf (2004), Poggi et al. (2004), Defina and Bixio (2005), Kubrak et al.
114 (2008), Huai et al. (2014) and Tang (2019c) are all based on the steady uniform momentum
115 equation (Eq.1). The wall and bed boundary shear stresses are considered to be negligible in
116 the vegetation column where drag induced forces are the **primary** resistance to the flow.
117 Under those idealized conditions, the mean momentum balance is given by

$$118 \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \tau(z)}{\partial z} = F_v - gS_0, \quad (1)$$

119 where τ is the turbulent shear stress, ρ is the density of water, g is the gravitational
120 acceleration, z is the vertical coordinate above the bed, S_0 is the bed slope, and F_v is the
121 drag force per unit mass generated by the vegetation. Drag force can be defined by:

$$122 F_v = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} C_D a u^2, & z \leq h \\ 0, & z > h \end{cases} \quad ; \quad a = m A_V, \quad (2)$$

123 where u is the velocity in the streamwise direction, h is the vegetation height, C_D is the
124 vegetation drag coefficient, a is the vegetation density, m and A_V are the number of
125 vegetation per unit area and the frontal area of vegetation per unit volume, respectively. In
126 Eq. (1) the shear stress can be modeled through the Boussinesq hypothesis as:

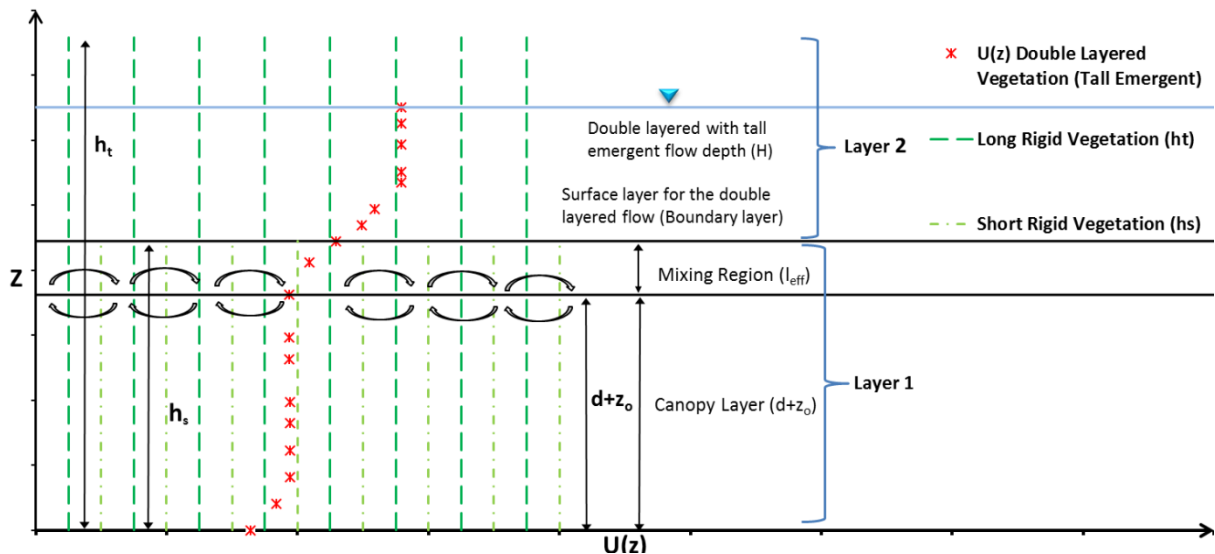
$$127 \tau(z) = \rho \nu_t \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \rho \phi u(z) \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}, \quad (3)$$

128 where the total eddy viscosity ν_t is defined as the product of local velocity scale and the
 129 characteristic length scale ϕ , which is assumed to be independent of vertical component z
 130 (Klopstra et al. 1997; Defina & Bixio, 2005). Meanwhile, it is worth noting that the local
 131 velocity $u(z)$ here is chosen as a characteristic velocity for the eddy viscosity model in Eq. (3),
 132 which is one of different hypotheses for eddy viscosity models used in the literature. If
 133 distinct models are used, a different form of solution can result (e.g. Huai et al. 2014).

134 Inserting Eqs. (2) & (3) into Eq. (1) gives:

$$135 \quad \phi \frac{\partial^2(u^2)}{\partial z^2} - aC_D u^2 + 2gS_0 = 0, \quad (4)$$

136 Eq.(4) can be solved analytically for u^2 by providing the vegetation density a , drag
 137 coefficient C_D and eddy characteristic length scale ϕ with boundary conditions, which vary
 138 from datum to short vegetation height ($0 < z < h_s$) as layer 1 and from the short vegetation
 139 height to the free surface ($h_s < z < H$) as layer 2 (Fig. 2). The subsequent Eq. (4) is used to
 140 develop the new analytical model for the case of two layered vegetative flow with emergent
 141 tall vegetation. The closure of the proposed model is obtained through modelling parameters
 142 such as drag coefficient C_D and characteristic length scale ϕ , which will be discussed by
 143 acknowledging the physics of the flow with complete explanation and contextual background
 144 in a later section.



145
 146
 147 **Figure 2.** Two different layers of streamwise velocity in the vegetative flow for tall vegetation being emergent.

148

149 **Previous models**

150 Klopstra et al. (1997) proposed a model for single layered vegetation using Eq. (4) and

151 boundary conditions such as $u_o = u|_{z=0} = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_o}{ac_D}}$, where negligible bed shear stress is

152 considered with the local equilibrium between the gravity force and vegetation drag along

153 with the condition for the boundary shear stress at the top of vegetation to be considered as

154 $\tau_{z=h} = \rho g(H-h)S_o$. The symbols have usual meaning as mentioned earlier. The flow

155 velocity in the vegetation layer is given by:

156
$$u_v = \sqrt{C_1 e^{-z\sqrt{2A}} + C_2 e^{z\sqrt{2A}} + u_{s0}^2} \quad (0 < z < h), \quad (5)$$

157 where C_1 and C_2 are the integration constants, and u_{s0} is the characteristic constant flow

158 velocity in non-submerged condition. The terms A , u_{s0} , C_1 and C_2 are given as:

159
$$A = \frac{mdC_D}{2\phi}, \quad (6)$$

160
$$u_{s0} = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_o}{C_D md}}, \quad (7)$$

161 where d is the diameter of cylindrical vegetation. C_1 and C_2 can be determined to ensure that

162 the upper and lower boundary conditions are satisfied. C_1 and C_2 in Eq. (5) are derived as Eqs.

163 (8) & (9) using limiting boundary conditions and are given as:

164
$$C_1 = \frac{-2gS_o(H-h)}{\phi\sqrt{2A}(e^{h\sqrt{2A}} + e^{-h\sqrt{2A}})}, \quad (8)$$

165
$$C_2 = -C_1, \quad (9)$$

166 where h is the height of vegetation. The log law of Prandtl defined for the surface layer can

167 be expressed as:

168
$$\frac{u}{u_*} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \ln \left(\frac{z - (h - \delta_s)}{K_s} \right) \quad (z \geq h), \quad (10)$$

169 where u_* is the shear velocity, κ is the von Karman constant taken as 0.4, K_s is the height of

170 the virtual bed roughness of the surface layer, and δ_s is the vertical shift of the virtual zero

171 level of the logarithmic profile. By applying continuity and smoothness conditions on the
 172 mean velocity profile, parameters δ_s and K_s can be determined and are given as:

$$173 \quad \delta_s = g \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{4.E^2 \kappa^2 (H-h)}{g}}}{2.E^2 \kappa^2},$$

174 (11)

$$175 \quad K_s = \delta_s e^{-F},$$

176 (12)

177 where

$$178 \quad E = \frac{\sqrt{2.A} C_3 e^{h\sqrt{2A}}}{2.\sqrt{C_3 e^{h\sqrt{2A}} + u_{v0}^2}}, \quad (13)$$

$$179 \quad F = \frac{k \sqrt{C_3 e^{h\sqrt{2A}} + u_{v0}^2}}{\sqrt{g (H - (h - \delta_s))}}, \quad (14)$$

$$180 \quad u_{v0} = \frac{u_{s0}}{\sqrt{S_o}}, \quad (15)$$

$$181 \quad C_3 = \frac{C_2}{S_o}. \quad (16)$$

182 The velocity profile, inside and above the vegetation, is defined by Eq. (5) and (10),
 183 respectively, while all the limiting boundary conditions and the variables used in the
 184 equations can be found in Eqs. (6)-(9) and Eqs. (11)-(16), accordingly. Klopstra et al. (1997)
 185 found a relationship between ϕ and vegetation characteristic with flow depth as:

$$186 \quad \phi = 0.0793 h \ln \frac{H}{h} - 0.0009 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi \geq 0.001. \quad (17)$$

187 Meijer and Van Velzen (1999) conducted an experimental study and applied Klopstra et al.
 188 (1997) model, which confirmed the applicability of the model for their set of data. However,
 189 they found out that the model for the mixing length parameter ϕ of Eq. (17) was not suitable
 190 for their datasets. Therefore, Meijer and Van Velzen (1999) gave a new model for the mixing
 191 length parameter (ϕ) by considering the same variables but with different curve fitting
 192 function. The fitting procedure to their data resulted in:

$$193 \quad \phi = 0.0144 \sqrt{Hh}. \quad (18)$$

194 Baptist et al. (2007) used the mixing-length concept to define the eddy viscosity v_t as:

$$195 \quad v_t(z) = lk_t = c_p l u(z), \quad (19)$$

196 where l is defined as a characteristic mixing length that is found to be the function of the
 197 spatial arrangement of vegetation, k_t is the turbulent kinetic energy per unit mass, and c_p is
 198 the turbulence intensity that is defined as:

$$199 \quad c_p = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{h}\right) \int_0^h \sqrt{h(z)} dz}{\left(\frac{1}{h}\right) \int_0^h \sqrt{u(z)} dz}. \quad (20)$$

200 Thus, Eq.(5) becomes as: as

$$201 \quad u_v = \sqrt{u_{s0}^2 + ae^{z/L} + be^{-z/L}}, \quad (21)$$

$$202 \quad u_{s0} = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_o}{C_D m d}}, \quad (22)$$

$$203 \quad L = \sqrt{\frac{C_p l}{C_D m d}}. \quad (23)$$

204 where a and b are the integration constants. Eq. (21) comprises two different components,
 205 which can be labelled as near free surface component and near bed component. The first
 206 component is dealt with $ae^{z/L}$ while the latter one is $be^{-z/L}$. Therefore, the shape of the
 207 profile is determined by the values of integration constants a and b . In further analysis,
 208 constant value of b is found to be insignificant for estimating the vertical distribution of mean
 209 velocity in vegetation area. Fig. 3 shows that there is a decline in the velocity trend from the
 210 top of the vegetation downward, until the uniform flow velocity u_{s0} is reached.

211 Ultimately, the velocity profile through the vegetation is defined by:

$$212 \quad u_v = \sqrt{S_o(u_{v0}^2 + a_v e^{z/L})}, \quad (24)$$

213 where

$$214 \quad u_{v0} = \sqrt{\frac{2g}{C_D m d}} \quad \text{and} \quad a_v = \frac{2Lg(H-h)}{c_p l e^{\frac{L}{h}}}. \quad (25)$$

215 Baptist et al. (2007) also studied the velocity above vegetation and modeled it using the same
 216 logarithmic profile, where they tried to shift the inflection using a vertical asymptote called
 217 momentum absorption, δ_v or zero plane displacement, given by:

$$218 \quad \frac{u}{u_*} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \ln \left(\frac{z - \delta_v}{K_s} \right), \quad (26)$$

219 where the vertical position of the centroid of momentum absorption, δ_v , was calculated by
 220 Thom (1971) using the centroid method and is given as:

$$221 \quad \delta_s = \frac{\int_0^h \frac{d\tau(z)}{dz} z dz}{\int_0^h \frac{d\tau(z)}{dz} dz}. \quad (27)$$

222 The boundary condition over the vegetation was used to compute the roughness height (K_s)
 223 so that the velocity profile through the vegetation, $u_v(z)$, is matched to the logarithmic profile
 224 of flow velocity $u_0(z)$. Thus, δ_s and K_s are given by:

$$225 \quad \delta_s = h_v - L \left(1 - e^{-\frac{h}{l}} \right), \quad (28)$$

$$226 \quad K_s = (h - \delta_s) e^{\left(-k \sqrt{\frac{2L}{c_p} \left(1 + \frac{L}{H-h} \right)} \right)}. \quad (29)$$

227 Finally, the turbulence intensity, c_p , is approximated as:

$$228 \quad c_p = \frac{1}{20} \frac{H-h}{l}. \quad (30)$$

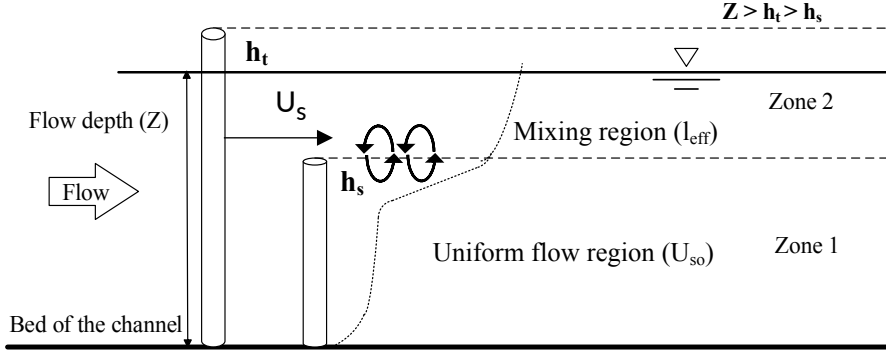


Figure 3. Illustration of flow with two-layer vegetation

To determine the overall streamwise velocity in submerged condition, an analytical model was established by Huthoff et al. (2007) using cylindrical dowels to represent vegetation with two different layers (Fig.4). The proposed model of Huthoff et al. (2007) is given in Eqs. (31) and (32) for the average velocity in the subsequent layers.

$$U_v = \sqrt{\frac{2bgS_o}{1 + \frac{2b}{H}f}}, \quad \text{for emergent condition, } H \leq h \quad (31)$$

$$U_v = \sqrt{\frac{2bgS_o}{1 + \frac{b}{32h} \left(\frac{K_s}{H}\right)^{1/3}}}, \quad \text{for submerged condition, } H \geq h \quad (32)$$

where f is the coefficient of bed resistance and b is defined by Belcher et al. (2003) as:

$$b = \frac{1}{c_D m d}. \quad (33)$$

Moreover, the average velocity in the surface layer can be scaled with l , the scaling length, and α , the transition exponent, as in Eq. (34):

$$\frac{U_s}{U_v} \sim \left(\frac{H-h}{l} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \left[1 - \left(\frac{H}{h} \right)^{-\alpha} \right]. \quad (34)$$

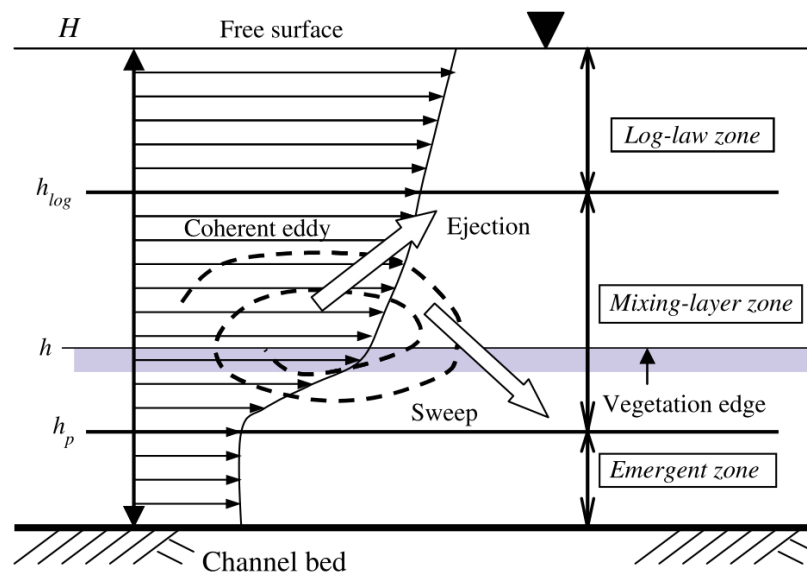
Nezu and Sanjou (2008) assumed the three sub-zones in the vegetated region as, emergent zone ($0 \leq z \leq h_p$), mixing-layer zone ($h_p \leq z \leq h_{log}$), and log-law zone ($h_{log} \leq z \leq H$) as shown in Fig.4.

245

246 Wake effects from stem in the emergent zone (see Fig. 4) lead to a mean velocity profile that
247 is vertically uniform as discussed elsewhere (Nezu and Sanjou, 2008). Comparing to some
248 previous studies, this zone is similar to the “longitudinal exchange area” in which the
249 vertical transport of momentum is considerably small (Nepf and Vivoni, 2000).

250

251 Nepf and Vivoni (2000) and Ghisalberti and Nepf (2006) designated the entire upper zone as
252 the exchange zone, while Nezu and Sanjou (2008) divided it into two zones named as, the
253 “mixing-layer” and “log-law”.



254

255 **Figure 4.** Flow model for aquatic vegetation flow (Nezu and Sanjou, 2008).

256 Most recently, Yilmazer et al. (2018) studied the effect of submergence ratio and solid
257 volume fraction (SVF) of a vegetation patch on the velocity profiles. Their study showed that
258 the vegetation decreases the velocity of flow both inside the vegetation layer and in the wake
259 region. Furthermore, their experimental data revealed that vegetation with different heights
260 has different effects on velocity profiles, for example, low SVF has small effect on the
261 velocity profile over the vegetation layer while higher SVF causes a decline in the velocity
262 profile along the cross-section of the channel. For the higher vegetation height, the vegetation
263 layer affects the velocity distribution both within and over the vegetation layer. The vertical

264 distribution of mean velocity implied that jet flow occurs in the non-vegetated half of the
265 channel (Yilmazer et al. 2018).

266

267 Huai et al. (2014) proposed an analytical model to predict the velocity profile using their
268 experimental datasets. Their model may work for a different range of data; however, their
269 model depends on a variety of coefficients and different parameters, which need to be defined
270 and calibrated, individually.

271

272

273 **Model Development**

274 Based on Schlichting & Gersten (2017), and according to Boussinesq hypothesis, the
275 turbulent shear stress can be defined as:

$$276 \quad \tau(z) = \rho \nu_t \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \rho \lambda u \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} .$$

277 (38)

278 where ν_t and λ are the total eddy viscosity of vegetated flow and the mixing length of eddy,
279 respectively. In Eq. (38), the application of $\nu_t = \lambda u$ is attributed to Kolmogorov's energy
280 cascade analysis of $\nu_t = c^{1/4} l \sqrt{E_t}$ where l is the length scale of eddy, c is the Kolmogorov
281 constant and E_t is the turbulent kinetic energy. In analogous fashion, the velocity scale, u ,
282 may be taken as the square root of E_t since the turbulent fluctuations characterize the transport
283 of momentum (Katopodes, 2019, pp 625-626), as similar to Eq. (19) by Baptist et al. (2007).

284 For given vegetation density of a and drag coefficient of C_D , an analytical solution can be
285 obtained for u^2 in Eq. (20) as:

$$286 \quad u^2 = \frac{2gS_0}{aC_D} + Ae^{\mu z} + Be^{-\mu z}, \quad (39)$$

287 where $\mu = \sqrt{\frac{a C_D}{\lambda}}$. The integration constant A and B can be calculated by applying the
 288 boundary conditions (Klopstra et al., 1996; Defina & Bixio, 2005; Baptist et al. 2007; Tang
 289 2019c).

290 In layer 1 (see Fig. 2), at the bed where $z=0$, the bed shear stress can be neglected in
 291 comparison to the drag coefficient of vegetation. Under this assumption, the local equilibrium
 292 between gravity force and drag force of vegetation will lead to:

$$293 \quad u_0 = u|_{z=0} = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_0}{aC_D}},$$

294 (40)

295 At the top of the vegetation where $z=h$, the boundary shear stress is defined by:

$$296 \quad \tau|_{z=h} = \rho g(H-h)S_0,$$

297 (41)

298 Thus, similar to the analysis of the model of Klopstra et al. (1997), the constant in Eq. (39)
 299 will become $A = -B$, hence given by:

$$300 \quad A = \frac{gS_0(H-h)}{\lambda \mu \cosh(\mu h)},$$

301 (42)

302 By inserting Eq. (42) into Eq. (39), the velocity for the first layer becomes:

$$303 \quad u_{(1)} = \sqrt{u_0^2 + 2A \sinh(\mu_1 z)}, \quad (43)$$

304 where the subscript (1) denotes the region of layer 1 and u_0 is described by:

$$305 \quad u_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_0}{a_1 C_D}}, \quad (44)$$

306 where a_1 is the parameter related to the density of vegetation and defined by:

$$307 \quad a_1 = \frac{d}{\Delta s_x \Delta s_y}, \quad (45)$$

308 where d is the diameter of dowels (i.e. models of vegetation); Δs_x and Δs_y are the
 309 streamwise and lateral spacing of dowels, respectively.

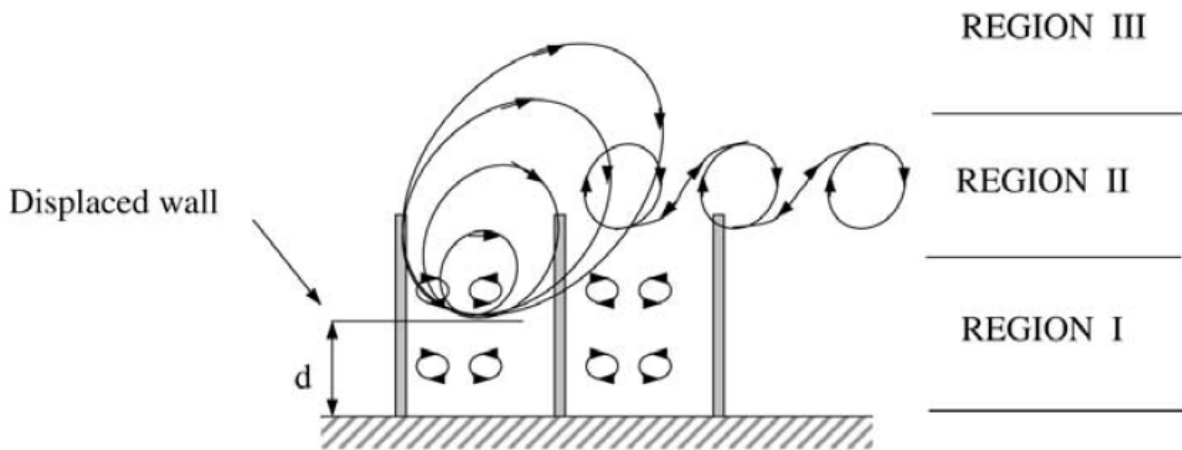
310 Furthermore, μ_1 in Eq. (43) is defined by:

$$311 \mu_1 = \sqrt{\frac{a_1 C_D}{\lambda_1}}, \quad (46)$$

312 where λ_1 is the parameter related to the characteristic length of eddy in the flow. This
 313 parameter λ_1 is dependent on the height of vegetation and the flow depth, as suggested by
 314 Klopstra et al. (1996), Defina & Bixio (2005), Baptist et al. (2007) and Tang (2019c).

315

316 In addition, it should be mentioned that the characteristic length of eddy is associated with the
 317 coherent eddy described by Nezu and Sanjou (2008), as illustrated in Fig. 4. The mixing-layer
 318 zone is due to the substantial wake effect of vegetation in the emergent zone. Poggi et al.
 319 (2004) described the flow structure over the submerged vegetation in three zones, as shown in
 320 Fig. 5.



321
 322 **Figure 5.** Sketched flow structure (Poggi et al. 2004)

323 This mixing length can be empirically evaluated by:

$$324 \lambda_1 = k_1 \sqrt{(H - h_s) h_s}, \quad (47)$$

325 where h_s represents the short vegetation height, k_1 is a constant, whose value should be
 326 empirically evaluated, as discussed in Tang (2019c). The optimal value of k_1 was found as
 327 0.001 in this study.

328 Eq. (39) still applies for the layer 2, where only tall vegetation exists (see Fig. 2), in different
 329 boundary condition. Based on the boundary condition at the free surface, where the turbulent
 330 shear stress is negligible compared with the drag force of vegetation, the velocity can then be
 331 described by a hyperbolic function profile as:

$$332 \quad u_{(2)} = \sqrt{u_T^2 + C[e^{\mu_2 z} - e^{\mu_2(2H-z)}]}, \quad (48)$$

333 where the subscript (2) denotes the region of layer 2, and:

$$334 \quad u_T = \sqrt{\frac{2gS_0}{a_2}}, \quad (49)$$

$$335 \quad \mu_2 = \sqrt{\frac{a_2 C_D}{\lambda_1}}. \quad (50)$$

336 Following the continuous boundary conditions of velocity and its gradient at $z=h_s$, the
 337 constants A and C can be obtained as:

$$338 \quad A = \frac{u_T^2 - u_0^2}{2\sinh(\mu_1 h_s) + 2\left(\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2}\right)\cosh(\mu_1 h_s)\tanh[\mu_2(2H - h_s)]}, \quad (51)$$

$$339 \quad C = \frac{\mu_1 \cosh(\mu_1 h_s)}{\mu_2 e^{\mu_2 H} \cosh[\mu_2(H - h_s)]}. \quad (52)$$

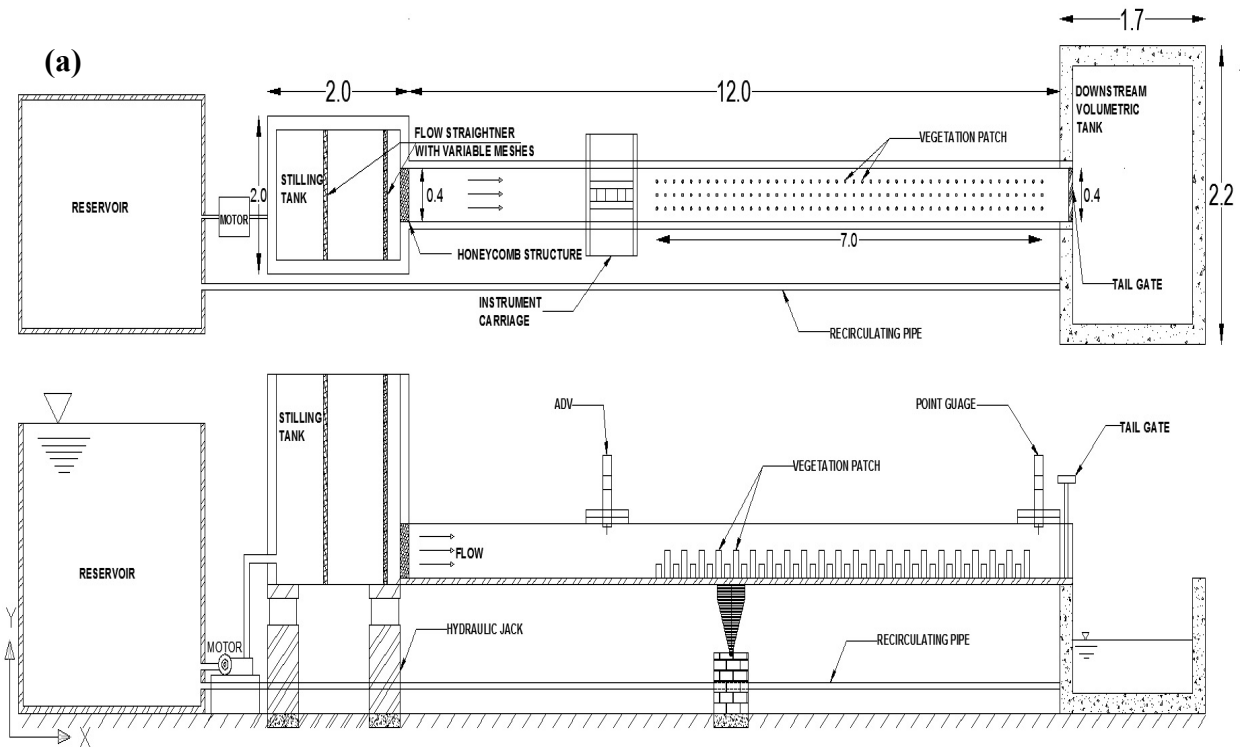
340 Thus in the two-layered vegetation, where the short vegetation is fully submerged and the tall
 341 one is emergent, the two new Eqs. (43) and (48) predict the velocity profiles for layers 1 and
 342 2, respectively.

343

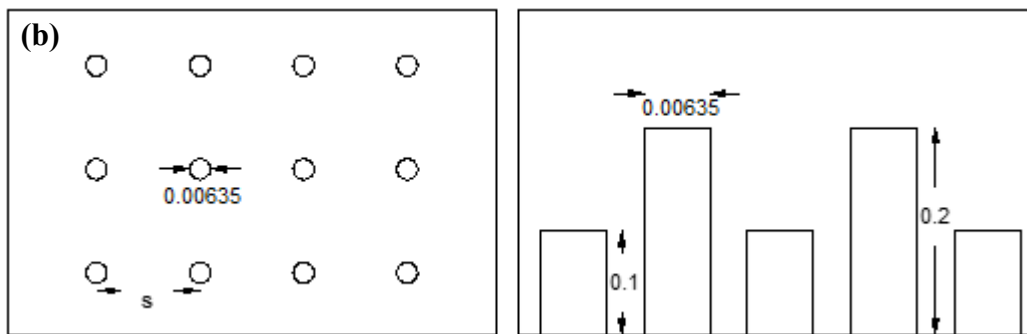
344 Experiments

345 To test the proposed analytical model, several experiments were conducted in an open
 346 channel with two layers of vegetation where the short vegetation was fully submerged and the
 347 tall one was emergent. All the experiments were carried out in a 12m long rectangular flume
 348 of 0.4 m (width) x 0.4 m (height) at Nanjing Hydraulic Research Institute, China (Fig. 6a).
 349 The bed slope of the channel was 0.004. To obtain a uniform flow under different flow
 350 conditions and vegetation configurations, a flow straightener of different mesh sizes was used

351 at the entrance in the stilling tank, combined with the manual tailgate at the end of the flume.
 352 The schematic plan and vertical view of the channel are shown in Fig. 6.



All dimensions are in meters.



355 **Figure 6.** (a) Schematic diagram of the flume showing planar and elevation of the channel with the vegetation
 356 patch placed at 4 m downstream of the stilling tank, (b) short and tall dowels imitating two-layered vegetation
 357 with 's' being the distance between dowel (variable) and diameter as 0.00635 m (fixed).

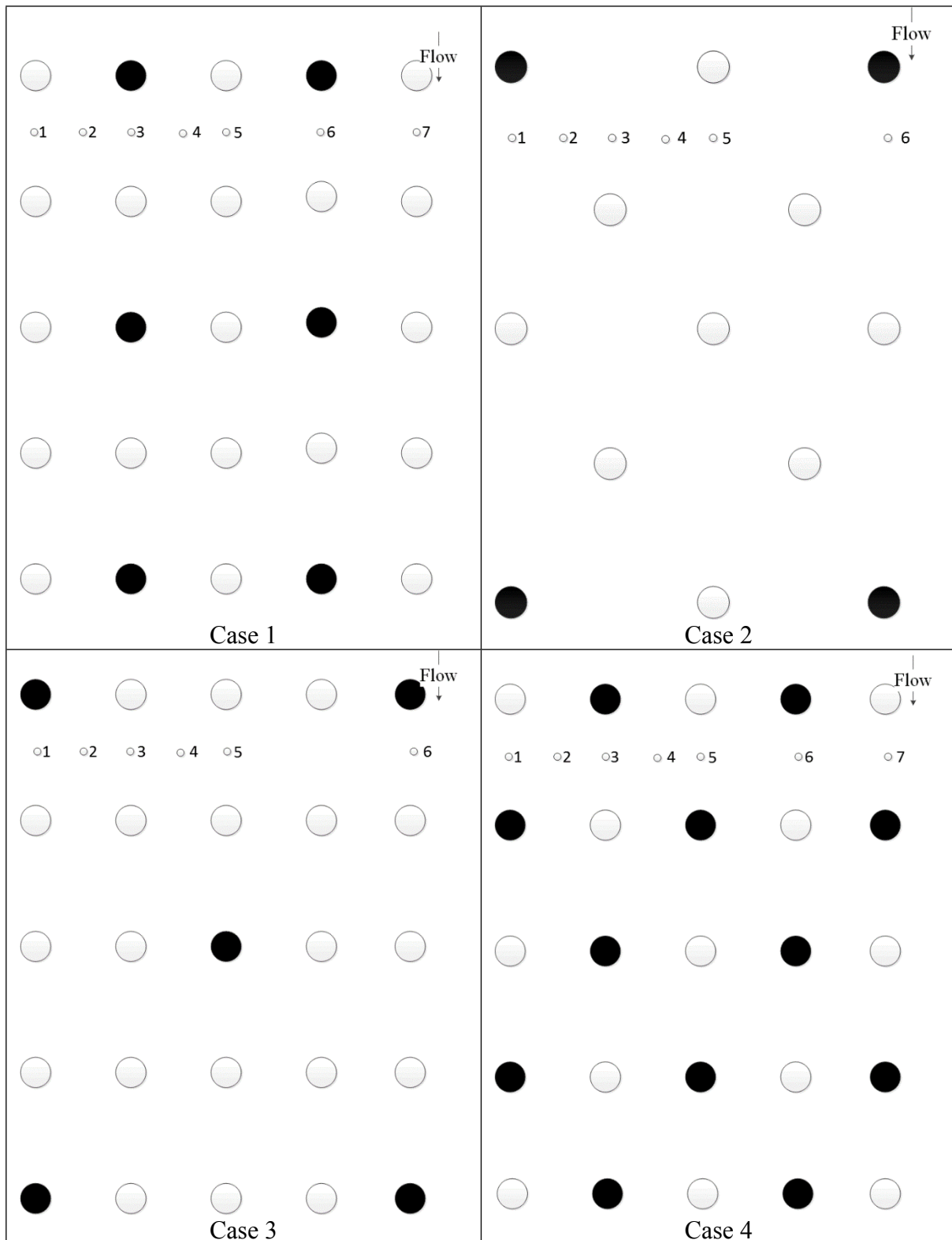
358 The vegetation is modelled by circular plastic cylinders of 6.35 mm diameter with two
 359 different heights of 0.1 m and 0.2 m, which represent the short and tall vegetation,
 360 respectively (Fig. 6b). All the rigid dowels were mounted in 10 mm thick pre-perforated
 361 plates at the bottom of the flume, which covered 7 m of the channel length starting at 4 m
 362 downstream of the stilling tank.

363 Different measurement locations were selected to evaluate the flow characteristics in different
364 regions of the vegetation as illustrated in Fig. 7. All the instantaneous velocity measurements
365 (u, v, w in x, y, z direction, respectively) were taken using Nortek Acoustic Doppler
366 Velocimetry (ADV), with an accuracy of $\pm 0.5\%$ of measured value with $\pm 1 \text{ mm/s}$. The
367 collected datasets were processed on WinADV software. The streamwise, lateral and vertical
368 directions are denoted by the x, y and z direction respectively, where the datum is at $z = 0$.
369 The time-averaged velocity components and fluctuating velocities in each direction are
370 denoted as U, V, W and u', v', w' , corresponding to x, y and z direction. Based on acoustic
371 frequency of the instrument used, the sampling volume and sampling rate of the ADV were
372 0.09 cm^3 and 0.1 to 50 Hz , respectively. Generally, 25 Hz is the most appropriate value since
373 it provides the highest temporal resolution. The number of velocity measurement points
374 varies with the distribution of signal to noise ratio (SNR) over the measurement locations.

375 **Vegetation formation**

376 The experiments were conducted based on combination of linear and staggered patterns for
377 both short and tall dowels (Fig.7). The vegetation configuration was designed to resemble the
378 vegetation in natural rivers that is usually denser in the lower layer and sparser in the upper
379 layer (Nepf et al., 2007).

380 The measurement locations in Fig. 7 are denoted by small circles. These locations are
381 tactically selected to cover the regions behind the short and tall dowels and free open region,
382 so that velocity variation can be identified and modelled in all possible regions.



383
 384
 385
 386

Figure 7. Dowel arrangement for Cases 1-4. The large black and white circles represent tall and short dowels, respectively. The small circles represent the measurement points by ADV.

387 Table 1 summarizes variables of each experiment run and its parameters used for the
 388 subsequent model test. For consistency, a uniform flow depth, with almost similar discharges

389 was maintained to compare the effect of different formations and spacing of vegetation in the
390 same experimental condition.

391 To ensure that the proposed model is not limited to our experiments, other studies have been
392 included (see Table 1). These data include Liu et al. (2008) and Huai et al. (2014) study
393 which have varieties of formations of vegetation. It should be mentioned that, in all these
394 experiments, the flow depth is somewhere between the short and tall vegetation heights. In
395 other words, the short vegetation is fully submerged while the tall one is emergent.

396

397 In the subsequent result section, the experimental and analytical results of vertical distribution
398 of mean streamwise velocity are presented, followed by the comparison between the proposed
399 model and the data from Liu et al. (2010) and Huai et al. (2014).

400 **Table 1.** The flow variables and the respective datasets used for the development of the proposed model.

Author	Run	d (m)	S _x (m)	S _y (m)	H (m)	h _s (m)	h _t (m)	H/h _s	H/h _t	a ₁ (m ⁻¹)	a ₂ (m ⁻¹)	C _D	S ₀
This study	1.1	0.00635	0.0635	0.0635	0.123	0.1	0.2	1.23	0.61	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	1.2	0.00635	0.0635	0.0635	0.154	0.1	0.2	1.54	0.77	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	1.3	0.00635	0.0635	0.0635	0.181	0.1	0.2	1.81	0.90	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	2.1	0.00635	0.127	0.127	0.124	0.1	0.2	1.24	0.62	0.47	0.29	1.1	0.004
	2.2	0.00635	0.127	0.127	0.151	0.1	0.2	1.51	0.75	0.47	0.29	1.1	0.004
	2.3	0.00635	0.127	0.127	0.181	0.1	0.2	1.81	0.90	0.47	0.29	1.1	0.004
	3.1	0.00635	0.127	0.0635	0.123	0.1	0.2	1.23	0.61	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	3.2	0.00635	0.127	0.0635	0.152	0.1	0.2	1.52	0.76	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	3.3	0.00635	0.127	0.0635	0.183	0.1	0.2	1.83	0.91	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	4.1	0.00635	0.0635	0.03175	0.126	0.1	0.2	1.26	0.63	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
	4.2	0.00635	0.0635	0.03175	0.156	0.1	0.2	1.56	0.78	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004

	4.3	0.00635	0.0635	0.03175	0.184	0.1	0.2	1.84	0.92	0.55	0.27	1.1	0.004
Liu et al. (2010)	1	0.00635	0.0635	0.0635	0.1266	0.076	0.152	1.66	0.83	1.57	0.62	1.1	0.003
	2	0.00635	0.0635	0.0635	0.1212	0.051	0.152	2.37	0.79	1.57	0.62	1.1	0.003
	4	0.00635	0.0508	0.0508	0.1027	0.076	0.152	1.35	0.67	1.22	0.30	1.1	0.003
	5	0.00635	0.0508	0.0508	0.1046	0.076	0.152	1.37	0.68	0.83	0.30	1.1	0.003
	6	0.00635	0.1016	0.1016	0.0922	0.076	0.152	1.21	0.60	0.55	0.48	1.1	0.003
	7	0.00635	0.1016	0.1016	0.094	0.076	0.152	1.23	0.61	0.61	0.24	1.1	0.003
	X1	0.006	0.11	0.053	0.207	0.14	0.24	1.47	0.86	1.02	0.51	1.13	0.00034
Huai et al. (2014)	X2	0.006	0.11	0.053	0.233	0.14	0.24	1.66	0.97	1.02	0.51	1.13	0.00034
	Y1	0.006	0.11	0.053	0.207	0.14	0.24	1.47	0.86	1.02	0.51	1.13	0.00032
	Y2	0.006	0.11	0.053	0.233	0.14	0.24	1.66	0.97	1.02	0.51	1.13	0.00034

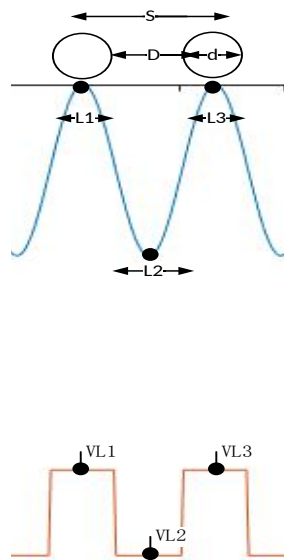
401 Note: S_x and S_y are the distances of the dowels in x and y directions, respectively.

402

403

404 **Experimental Results and Discussion**

405 Comparisons between measured and modelled longitudinal velocity profiles are shown in Fig. 9.
406 The velocity data marked as ‘ave’ are the spatial average of velocity from different locations in
407 individual cross section of each case (as marked in Fig. 7). Spatial averaging of the data here is
408 required because the mean momentum balance already assumes a planar averaging carried out by
409 Raupach and Shaw (1982). The averaging is calculated by weighted average method, where the
410 weights were selected as a parameter related to the diameters of dowels and the space
411 between centres of two adjacent dowels. For example in Fig. 8, locations in free region have
412 the highest velocity compared to those behind the dowels (Liu et al., 2008; Rahimi et al., 2019),
413 either short or tall, so they have the highest coefficient that is $s - d$, otherwise, the locations
414 behind the dowels have the coefficient of $d/2$.



415

416 **Figure 8.** Weighted average method for Cases 1-4 (plan view). The big white circles represent dowels while the
417 small bold circles represent the measurement points by ADV.
418

419 Therefore, the weighted average velocity (V_{ave}) is calculated by:

$$V_{ave} = \frac{\frac{v_{L1}d}{2} + V_{L2}(s-d) + \frac{v_{L3}d}{2}}{d+D},$$

421 (53)

422 where V is the velocity at different locations, d is the diameter of each dowel, D is the distance
 423 between two adjacent dowels, and s is the distance between the centres of two adjacent dowels.

424 Fig. 9 summarizes all the runs of our experiments for completeness. Among all the runs the
 425 largest velocity occurs in the free regions, such as L2 and L4. The least velocity is found in the
 426 regions downstream of the dowels (locations L1, L3, L5, L6, and L7) irrespective of the dowel
 427 height in the uniform velocity zone ($z < h_s$). Locations L3 and L6 are behind the tall dowels
 428 with the velocity profile also having least velocity throughout the sections. These observations
 429 from L3 and L6 show that the fluid experiences most drag in these regions. Inflection spike in
 430 these profiles is not significant, which is not the same as the case with the profiles at locations
 431 L1, L5 and L7. In these locations where the short dowel is completely submerged, inflection over
 432 the height of $z = h_s$ is significant with a sudden increase in velocity immediately above $z = h_s$.

433

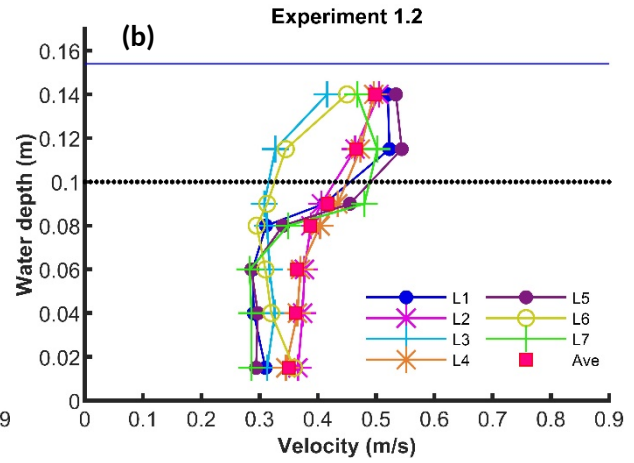
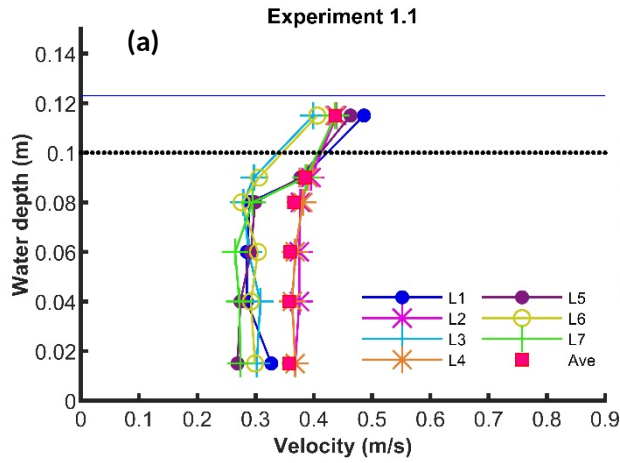
434 Similarly, in experiment 1.1, 2.1, 3.1 and 4.1 (Figs. 9a, d, g & j respectively) the minimum depth
 435 of flow was maintained at 12 cm, the velocity appears a similar trend to that of flow with single
 436 layer vegetation. The velocities in these runs are found to be almost constant throughout the
 437 height of short vegetation, followed by a rapid increase in velocity at $z = h_s$. However, the
 438 spatial variation (L1-L6 or L7) of velocity trend is observed in each case from linear-linear to
 439 staggered-staggered formation (see Fig. 9). For the other runs, i.e. experiments 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3,
 440 3.2, 3.3, 4.2 and 4.3 (Fig. 9b, c, e, f, h, i, k and l), velocity increases rapidly near the top of the

441 short vegetation $h_s = 0.1m$, and the increase in velocity becomes larger with increasing depth in
442 all the cases. Furthermore, in the sparser dowel arrangements with high flow depth (experiment
443 2.3), multiple inflections in velocity profile can be seen in locations L1, L2, L4 and L5. The
444 increment in the velocity above zero plane displacement is also found to be dependent on the
445 location proximity to the tall dowels. About 15-18% is found for the variation in velocity above
446 $z = h_s$ at location L5 (behind short dowel in the mid-section of the configuration) in experiments
447 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 (Figs. 9a, b, and c). On the other hand, with sparser arrangement at location L5
448 the percentage increment in velocity above $z = h_s$ is found to be around 9-13% in experiments
449 2.1-2.3 (see Figs. 9 d-f).

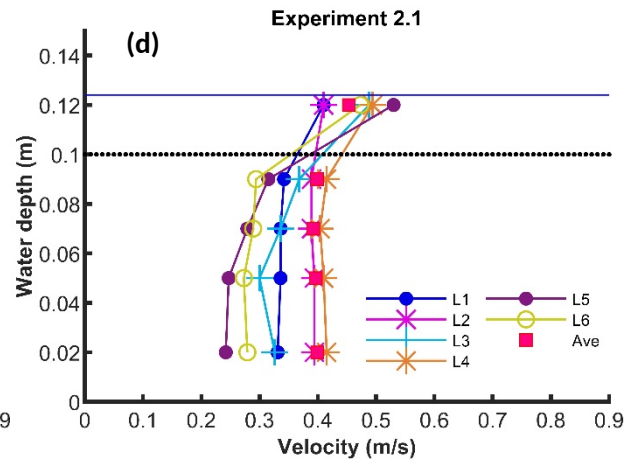
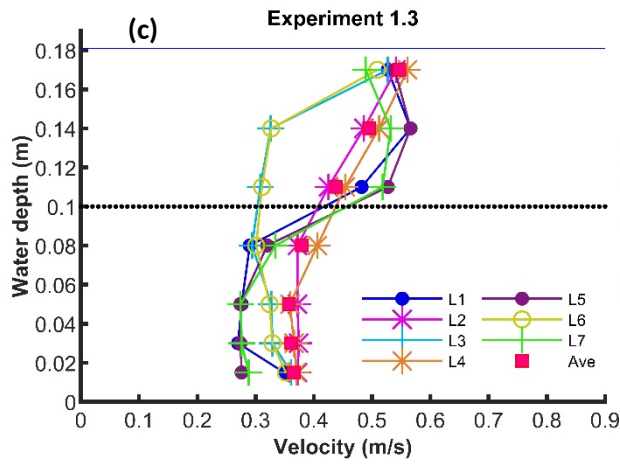
450 In Figs. 9g-9l with sparser arrangement of tall dowels, the velocity profile does not become
451 constant immediately behind locations L3 and L6, while in other locations the velocity is least.
452 Moreover, the velocity above $z > h_s$ does not appear to converge onto a single logarithmic
453 profile after slip velocity. This could be attributed to the effect from the depth of submergence of
454 the tall dowel. In these cases, drag dominates throughout the column of flow behind tall dowels.
455 However, in case of complete submergence both turbulent stress and wake effects come into
456 action in the region close to the surface, in which a logarithmic velocity applies.

457

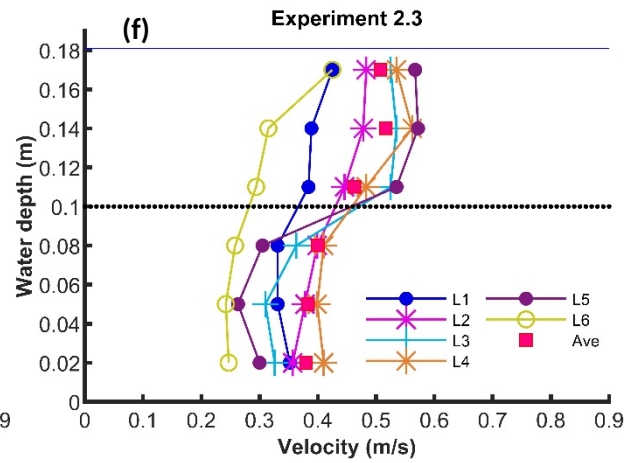
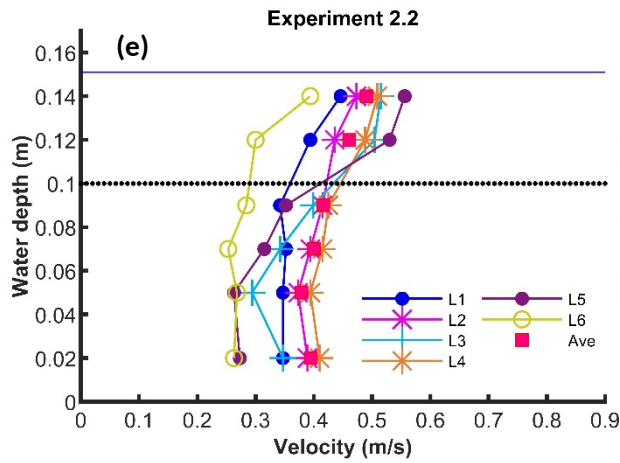
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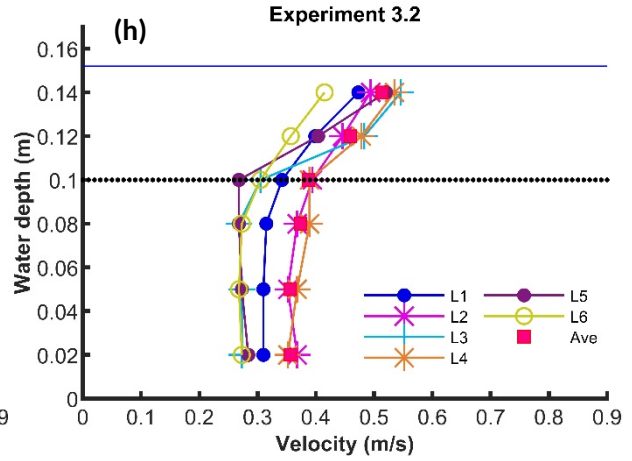
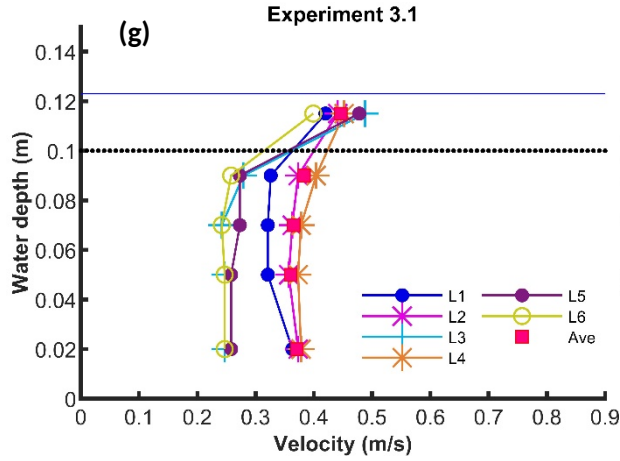


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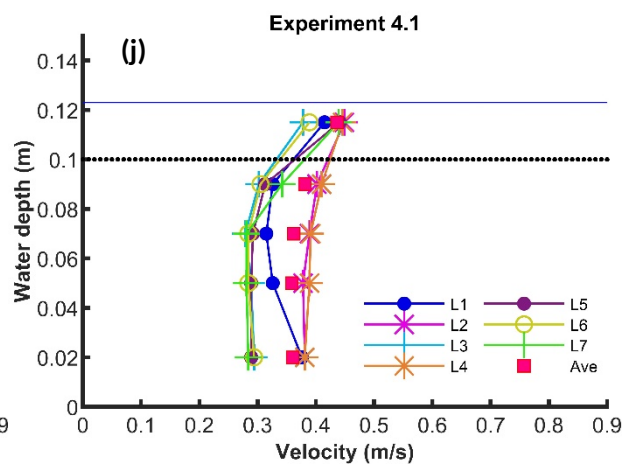
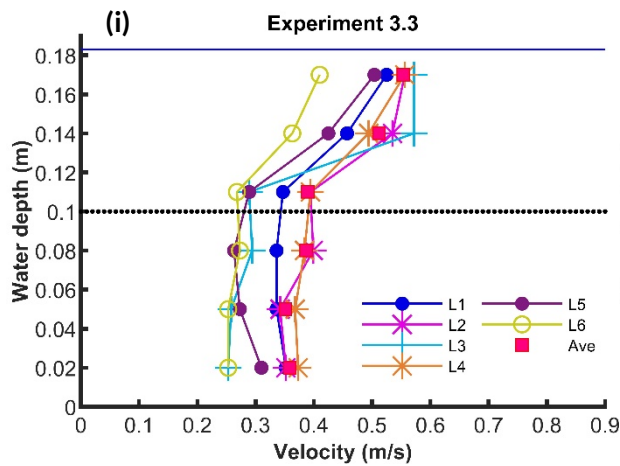


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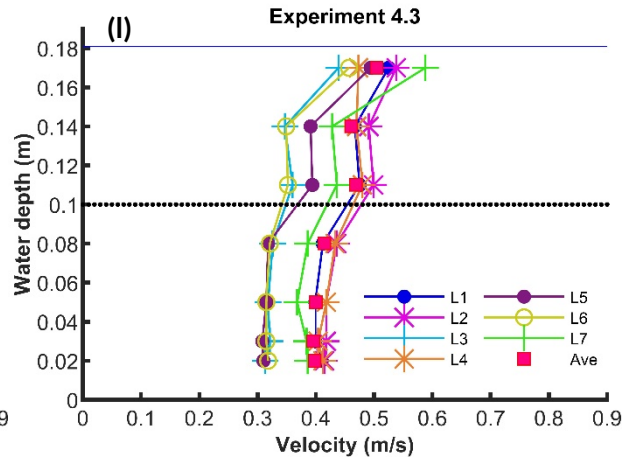
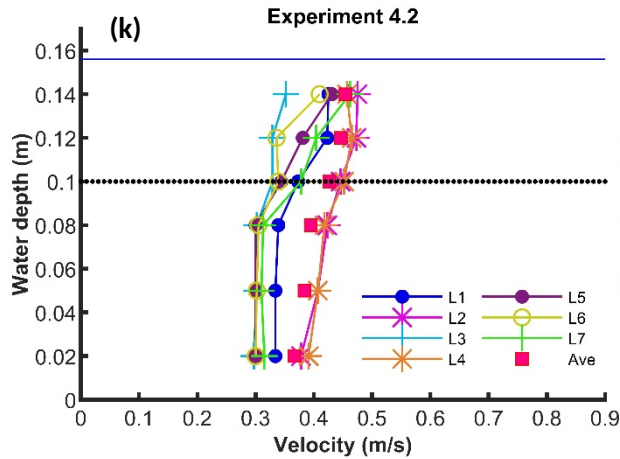




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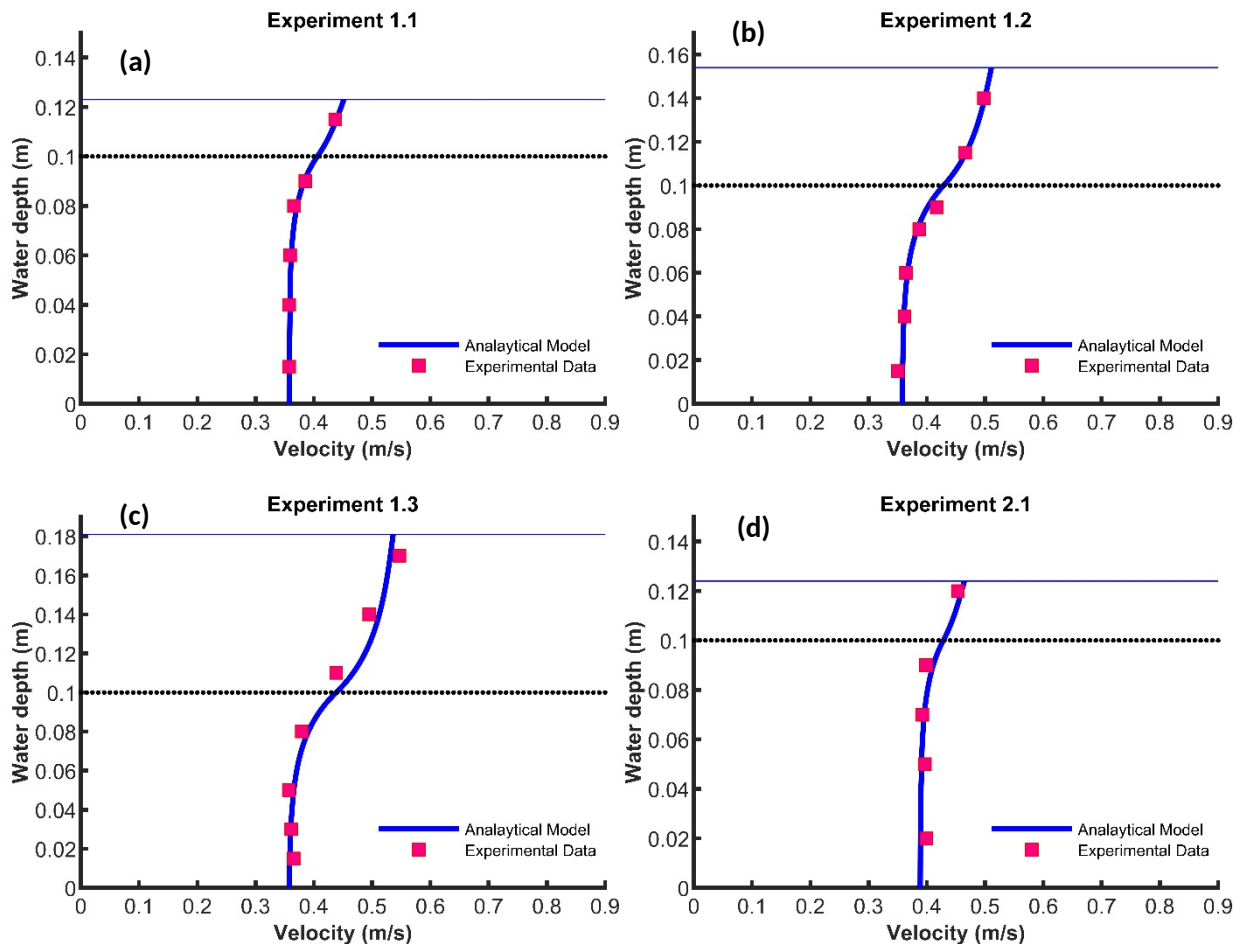
464 **Figure 9.** Experimental data for four different formations under three different flow depths: (a), (b) & (c) for short
 465 and tall dowels located in a linear formation (Case 1) under the flow depths of 0.123, 0.154 & 0.181 m respectively;
 466 (d), (e) & (f) for short and tall dowels located in staggered and linear formations with sparser arrangements (Case 2)
 467 under the flow depths of 0.124, 0.151 & 0.181 m respectively; (g), (h) & (i) for short and tall dowels located in
 468 linear and staggered formations (Case 3) under the flow depths of 0.123, 0.152 & 0.183 m respectively; (j), (k) & (l)
 469 for both short and tall dowels located in staggered formations (Case 4) under the flow depths of 0.126, 0.156 &
 470 0.184 m respectively. The dotted line denotes the top of the short vegetation and the blue solid line represents the
 471 water surface.

472

473 Model Application

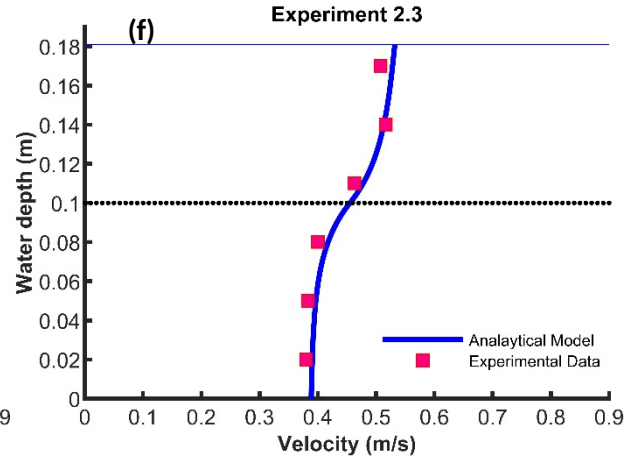
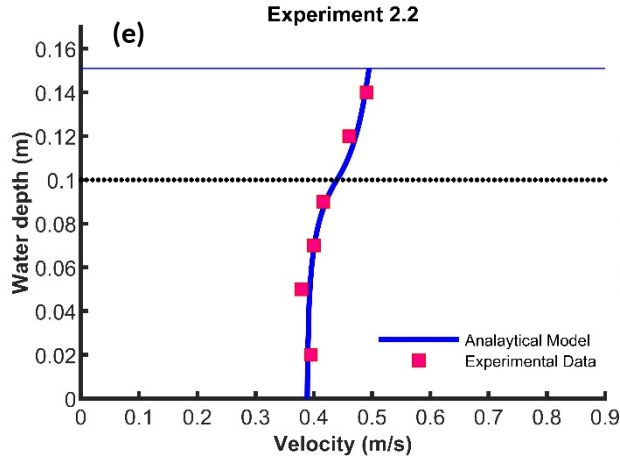
474 To test the analytical model on data sets not used in its calibration, the following published
475 experiments are used: Fig. 11 for experiments by Liu et al. (2010) and Fig. 13 for experiments in
476 Huai et al. (2014). A total of 22 runs were considered without any biased selection (see Table 1),
477 with vegetation height varying from $0.051 \leq h_s \leq 0.14$ and $0.152 \leq h_t \leq 0.24$, flow depth from
478 $0.12 \leq H \leq 0.23$, the frontal area of vegetation from $0.47 \leq a_1 \leq 1.57$ and $0.27 \leq a_2 \leq 0.62$,
479 and drag coefficient from $1.1 \leq c_D \leq 1.13$.

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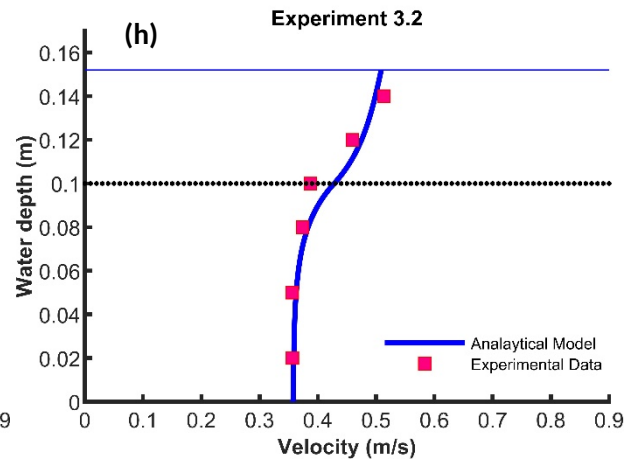
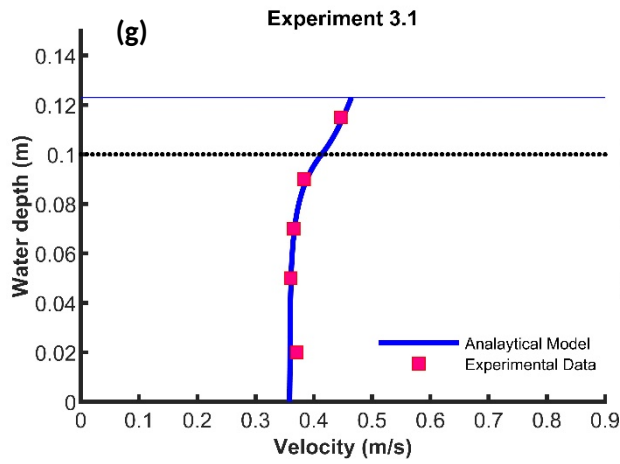


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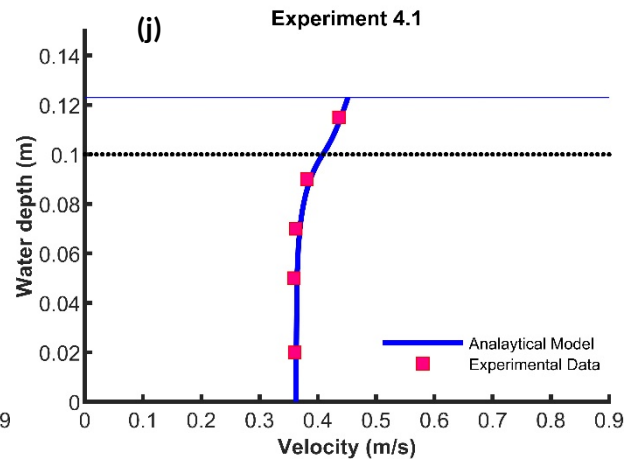
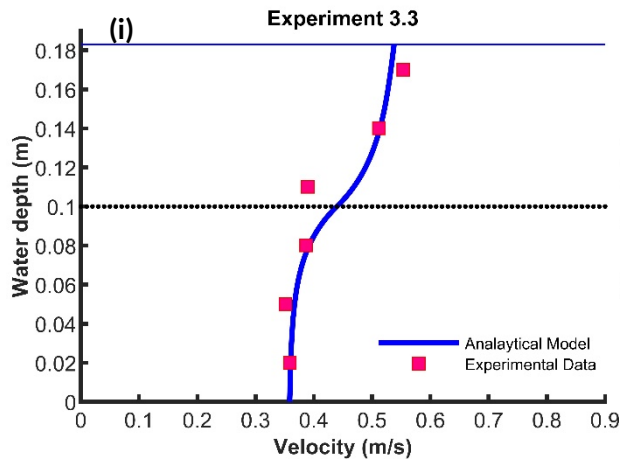
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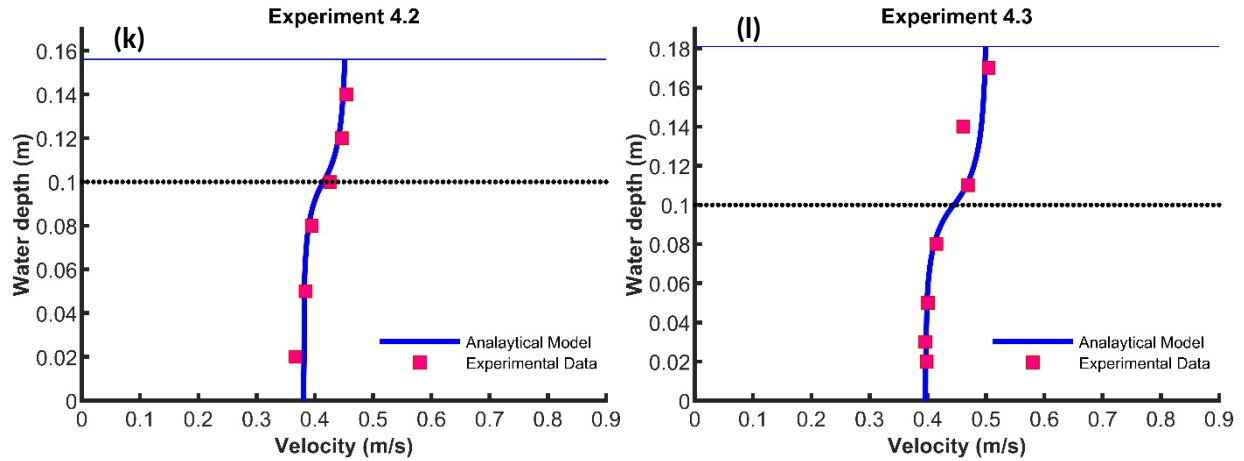
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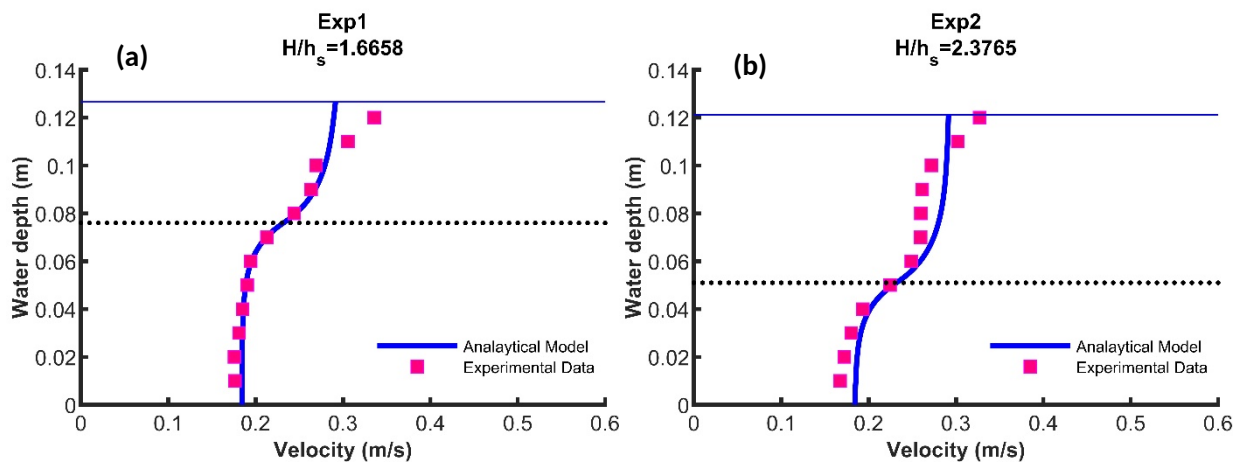
487 **Figure 10.** Comparison of the proposed analytical model with our experimental data. The dotted line denotes the top of the short vegetation and the blue solid line represents the water surface.
488

489

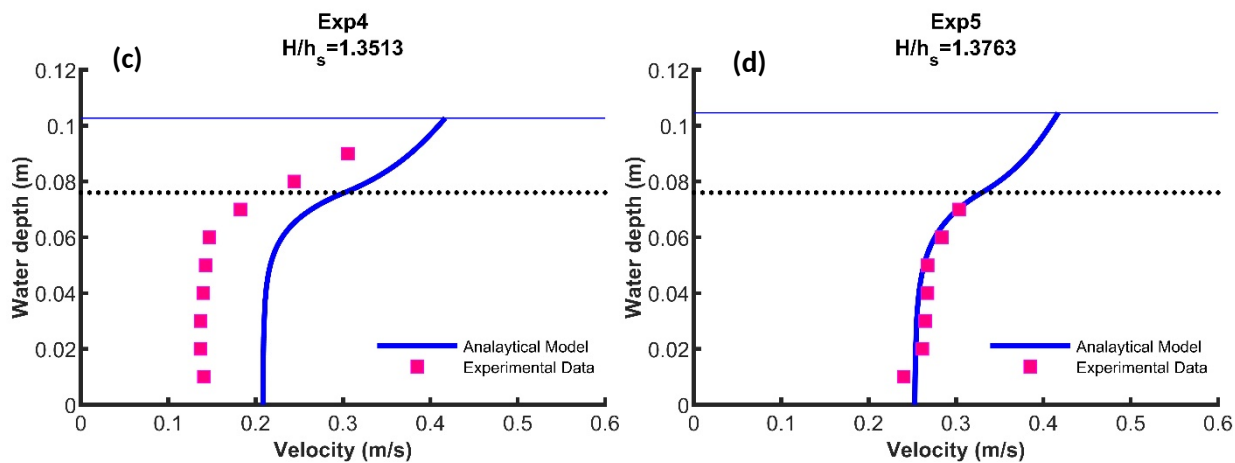
490 The averaged velocity of weighted experimental data and analytical results are compared in
491 Fig.10. This shows an overall good agreement between the experimental and predicted
492 velocities. In experiments 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3 with linear formations for both short and tall dowels
493 (Case 1), the analytical model shows good agreement with experimental data. However, there is
494 a slight difference at the edge of short and tall vegetation for experiment 1.3 where the flow
495 depth of 18.1 cm is very close to the height of tall vegetation. This difference in the figure
496 demonstrates the complexity in the flow near the edge of dowels. In experiments 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3
497 where the short and tall vegetation are in staggered and linear formations respectively (Case 2),
498 there is also good agreement between analytical and experimental data with high correlations.
499 Moreover, in experiments 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 the experimental and predicted data agree, except at
500 the edge of vegetation in experiments 3.3. In the high flow depth of 18.3 cm, i.e. experiment 3.3,
501 although both experimental and analytical data have the same trend, the agreement is not as good
502 as that in the lower depth run, 12.3 cm in experiment 3.1. Nevertheless, the model agrees with

503 the experimental data with staggered formations for both short and tall vegetation, see
504 experiments 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 in Fig. 10.

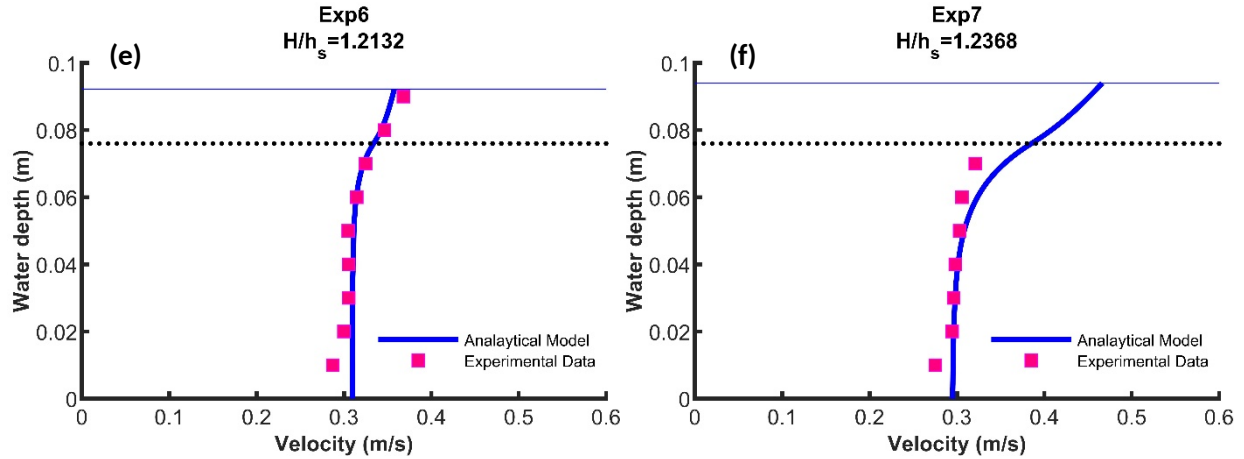
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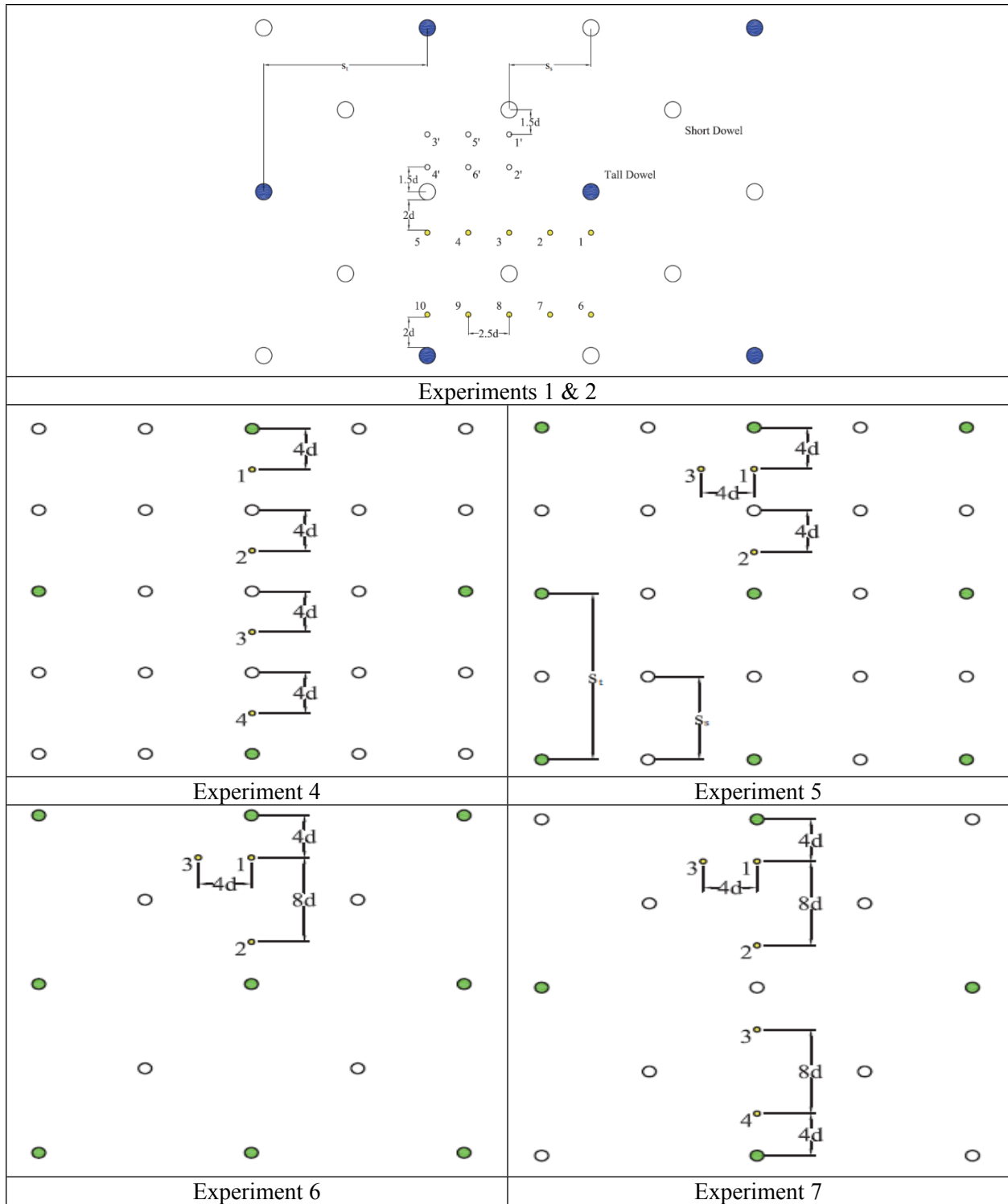
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508

509 **Figure 11.** Comparison of the proposed analytical model with the experimental data of Liu et al. (2010). The dotted
 510 lines is the top of the short vegetation and the blue solid line represents the water surface.
 511

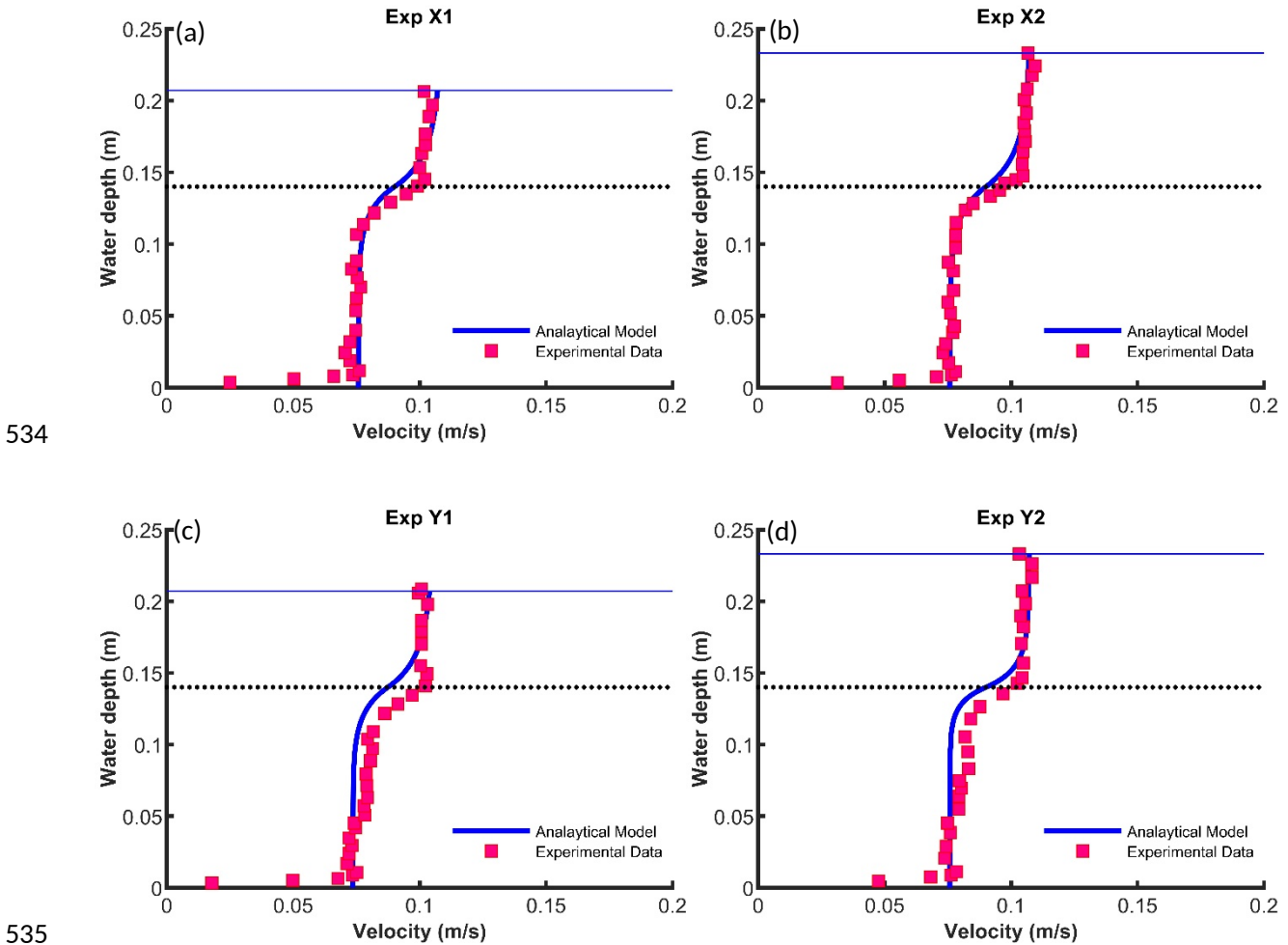
512 In Fig. 11, the **proposed** model is compared with the datasets of Liu et al. (2010), which are
 513 spatially **averaged**. The results in Figs. 11 (a), (b) and (f) are for staggered-staggered
 514 configurations with varying vegetation heights (see Table 1), whereas in Figs. 11 (c), (d) and (e)
 515 short and tall vegetation is configured as the combination of linear-staggered, linear-linear and
 516 staggered-linear, respectively (see Fig. 12). A sharp inflection point at $z = h_s$ is visible in all the
 517 datasets, which justifies that the slip velocity lies in the region close to short vegetation height in
 518 all the cases (Fig. 11). In the datasets of Liu et al. (2010), the variation of the dowel height has
 519 affected the profile in the region of $z > h_s$. For instance, in Figs. 11 (a) and (d) the velocity
 520 profile in the region of $z > h_s$ is not converging towards the **logarithmic shape**. On the other
 521 hand, flow is able to achieve a constant velocity, which shows the great influence of the
 522 submergence ratio of the short dowel and independent behaviour of the tall dowel, see Fig. 11
 523 (c), (d), (e) and (f).



524 **Figure 12.** Formation of dowels in Liu et al. (2010) experimental data. The dowels are shown as large circles, with
 525 the solid and blank circles representing the tall and short dowels respectively. The small circles denote the
 526 measurement locations.

527

528 In experiment 4 of Liu et al. (2014), all the measurement locations are behind the dowels and
 529 there is no measurement in the free region area (see Fig. 12). The lack of measurement in the free
 530 region affects the spatially weighted average, consequently resulting in a smaller spatial average
 531 velocity, so the average velocity in Fig. 11 (c) is less than the trend of analytical model
 532 prediction. Therefore, it is not surprising that analytical and experimental data did not show good
 533 agreement in experiment 4.



536 **Figure 13.** Comparison of the proposed analytical model with the experimental data of Huai et al. (2014). The
 537 dotted lines is the top of the short vegetation and the blue solid line represents the water surface.
 538 The experimental datasets of Huai et al. (2014) are spatial average of the complete frame of the
 539 PIV data for their experiments X1, X2, Y1 and Y2, where X1 and X2 are linear-linear

540 configurations but Y1 and Y2 are staggered-staggered configurations with two flow depths (see
 541 Table 1). The velocity data as the function of z have been taken with the spatial average over 22
 542 cm width of the camera field in the streamwise direction, which is finally averaged transversely
 543 across the test section (Huai et al., 2014). Fig. 13 shows the comparison between the data of Huai
 544 et al. and the analytical model. In general, the proposed model shows reasonably **good**
 545 **agreement**.

546

547 Discussion

548 To further check the robustness of the proposed model with the **experiments**, error analyses are
 549 **carried out**. The values of RMSE (Root Mean Square of Errors) have been given for different
 550 cases of vegetation formations and flow depths in Table 2.

551 **RMSE is given by:**

$$552 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (u_a^n - u_e^n)^2}, \quad (54)$$

553 where u_a is the predicted velocity by the analytical model, u_e is the measured velocity data from
 554 experiments, and n is the number of data.

555 Table 2. RMSE of velocity in m/s for different experiments.

Cases	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.1	2.2	2.3	3.1	3.2	3.3	4.1	4.2	4.3
RMSE	0.0022	0.0069	0.0154	0.0080	0.0083	0.0095	0.0060	0.0194	0.0342	0.0020	0.0085	0.0123

556

557 The small values of RMSE in Table 2 show **agreement** between analytical and experimental
 558 results. In experiments 1.1, 2.1, 3.1 and 4.1, where the flow depths are around 12 cm, the
 559 analytical model performed exceptionally well, while in experiments 1.3, 2.3, 3.3 and 4.3, where
 560 the flow depths are relatively high around 18 cm, the model comparatively underestimates in the

561 region of $h_s \leq z \leq h_t$. One of the reasons may be due to the complexity of flow with an increase
562 in shear over the slip velocity around $z = h_s$, which may lead to an increase in flow velocity.
563 Moreover, the influence of short and tall vegetation heights on the mixing layer can be further
564 speculated as another reason for slight under-performance in the region $h_s \leq z \leq h_t$.

565 Based on Fig. 13, although Huai et al. (2014) proposed a different analytical model for two
566 layered vegetation with calibration using their own experimental data, the large number of
567 parameters with various constants in their model made it complicated and difficult to apply. On
568 the other hand, the accuracy of their model to capture the point of inflection on the edge of short
569 vegetation appears less in this proposed model.

570 **Conclusions**

571 The two layered vegetation was modelled by PVC cylindrical dowels to study vegetated flow,
572 which was found to be more complex compared with the single layered flow. The flow velocity
573 characteristics at different locations were studied by 3D ADV that for doubly layered vegetation
574 with different densities and formations. A new analytical model was proposed to describe the
575 velocity profile in two-layered vegetative flow with tall vegetation being emergent. The main
576 finding here is that the planar averaging is necessary in such-data model comparisons. Moreover,
577 eddy-viscosity models that are based on a local mean velocity and a prescribed mixing length
578 appear to be reasonable, at least in such class of models.

579

580 **Future work**

581 The proposed analytical model in this study can evaluate velocity profiles in the cases where the
582 short vegetation is fully submerged but tall ones are emergent. This often occurs in nature, but in

583 some conditions, especially in extreme flood conditions, both short and tall vegetation could be
584 fully submerged. The future studies will be focusing on studying the flow with fully submerged
585 conditions for both short and tall vegetation, which include both experimental study and
586 analytical model development.

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