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Effects of slope and flow depth on the roughness coefficient of lodged vegetation

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Abstract

Various vegetations are often grown on foodplains, and it has a signifcant infuence on the movement of water fow and the protection of river slopes. In the experiments performed in this study, a cylindrical aluminum column with a diameter of 4 mm was selected to simulate natural vegetation and 7 classes of slopes (*i*=0%, 0.5%, 1.0%, 1.5%, 2.0%, 2.5%, and 3.0%, where *i* is the percentage of slope) and four categories of lodging angles (*θ*=20°, 40°, 60°, and 80°) were assigned. The experimental results show that when $i>0\%$, the curves of Manning's roughness coefficient (n) and flow depth (h) converge, and the degree of convergence gradually increases with the slope. In addition, Manning's roughness coefficient increases with the increase in slope at shallow flow depths, and decreases with the increase in slope at deeper flow depths. Exploration of the relationship between slope and vegetation roughness not only provides a theoretical support for food control, but also has practical signifcance for river ecological environment management.

Keywords Lodged vegetation · Slope · Manning's roughness coefficient · Overland runoff

Introduction

In the river ecosystem, the infuence of vegetation cannot be neglected. Vegetation has a stabilizing efect on riverbeds, defends the hirsts and dikes, and protects and rests ecological environment, but at the same time, vegetation can increase the roughness of banks and change the fow regime, thus afecting the food diversion capacity of the river (Carroll et al. [1997;](#page-10-0) Cerdà [1997](#page-10-1); Fattet et al. [2011](#page-10-2); Zhao et al. [2017](#page-11-0); Liu et al. [2018\)](#page-10-3). Aquatic vegetation is prone to lodging under

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¹ College of Earth Science and Engineering, Shandong University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China the fow of water, and there are many factors that induce the lodging of vegetation. In addition to intrinsic factors, such as the fexibility and overall structure of the vegetation, the slope is also one of the most important factors afecting the lodging of vegetation. Studying the relationship between slope and lodged vegetation roughness not only provides theoretical support for food control, but also has practical implications in river ecological environment management.

While there have been many studies on the vegetation roughness on slopes (e.g., Abrahams and Parsons [1994](#page-10-4); Atkinson et al. [2000\)](#page-10-5), there have been few on vegetation lodging. Among them, Ferro et al. ([2005](#page-10-6)) showed that vegetation fow resistance decreases with an increase in slope, although the relationship is complex, and cannot be expressed by a simple function. Han et al. [\(2016\)](#page-10-7) examined the non-uniform distribution of fexible, submerged vegetation in a rectangular channel and concluded that the mean velocity decreased with increasing fow resistance. Meanwhile, Velasco et al. ([2003\)](#page-10-8) used simulated plastic plants instead of real plants in fume experiments, and the relationship between the defected height of fexible plants and the velocity feld was measured. They found that plant roughness correlated directly with the lodging deformation of plants. Busari and Li [\(2015\)](#page-10-9) estimated the uncertainty of a hydraulic roughness model of submerged fexible vegetation,

and suggested that the hydraulic resistance produced by submerged fexible vegetation depends on many factors, including plant stem size, height, number, and density, as well as flow depth.

The research on the flow characteristics of vegetation accounted for a high percentage in the past (Cerdà [1997](#page-10-1); Järvelä [2002](#page-10-10); Yagci et al. [2010](#page-11-1); Guo et al. [2016\)](#page-10-11). According to vegetation characteristics, it can be divided into coverage area, fexibility, diameter, and leaf number on the basis of the prevailing research (Wilson et al. [2003](#page-11-2); Kothyari et al. [2009](#page-10-12); Hu et al. [2012](#page-10-13)). At present, the studies on the effects of slope on the hydrodynamic characteristics of overland runoff are becoming more advanced. However, studies on the hydrodynamic characteristics of lodged vegetation remain limited (Ferro et al. (2005)), especially with respect to the effect of slope on the fow roughness of lodged vegetation. Therefore, it is necessary to experimentally investigate the efects of changes in slope on the surface roughness of lodged vegetation. This provides a theoretical basis for further exploring the river fow structure and movement characteristics, and has practical signifcance for river ecological restoration and flood control.

Experimental setup

According to previous studies, it is necessary to perform open channel fow simulation experiments (e.g., through indoor simulations), and the data processing and theoretical research on the experiments should be performed using the formulae and theory of open channel flows. Furthermore, there are many factors that affect the flow resistance of vegetation. To clearly study changes in fow resistance under diferent lodging states, it was necessary to simplify the simulations in this study. Before formal testing, a preliminary experiment was performed to select the experimental materials and to determine the slope and lodging angle. In the indoor open-channel flow simulation, a plexiglass plate was positioned on the bottom of the instrument as the reference plane, and the angle of the vegetation from the vertical direction of the reference plane was used as the lodging angle. In addition, a cylindrical aluminum column (Hsieh [1964](#page-10-14); Huthoff et al. [2007;](#page-10-15) Luo et al. [2009](#page-10-16); Yagci et al. [2010;](#page-11-1) Zhu et al. [2018](#page-11-3)) with a diameter of 4 mm and a fxed height of 10 cm was used to simulate natural vegetation. Seven classes of slope (indicated by *i*, where *i*=0%, 0.5%, 1.0%, 1.5%, 2.0%, 2.5%, and 3.0%), and four categories of lodging angles (indicated by θ , where $\theta = 20^{\circ}$, 40° , 60° , and 80°) were also used to perform the experiment.

Due to the large volume of water used in the test, and to conserve water resources, a device for recirculating water flow within the closed system was used. The device consisted of an open-channel fume with a rectangular section, a water tank, water pump, and a tailgate. During simulations, water fow could be pumped from the water tank into the open-channel fume, and then returned to the water tank through the test section to recycle the water (Fig. [1](#page-1-0)). The rectangular fume was 5 m long, 0.4 m wide at the bottom, and the side walls were 0.3 m in height. A plexiglass plate was placed on the bottom, and the surface was drilled with small holes at a longitudinal and lateral spacing of 60 mm \times 60 mm for the placement of simulated vegetation. The fume was divided into three sections: an upper equalizing section (1 m in length), a middle test section (3 m in length), and a tailgate section (1 m in length). In the experimental section, two cross sections, 1 and 2, were put in place with a separation distance of 1.5 m, and both of them were equipped with piezometer tubes to observe water level. A steel beam was placed below the fume to adjust the slope, and the range in slope varied between 0 and 3%. A flow control valve was

Fig. 1 Experimental setup for the monitoring of the effect of vegetation lodging

Table 1 Experimental data under diferent slopes (*i*=0%, 0.5%, 1.0%, 1.5%, 2.0%, 2.5%, and 3.0%) and lodging angles (*θ*=20°, 40°, 60°, and 80°)

| Slope $(\%)$ | Lodging angle (θ) | Paramete r | Experiment number | | | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|--------|
| | | | $\mathbf{1}$ | \overline{c} | $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$ | $\overline{4}$ | 5 |
| $0.0\,$ | 20° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0172 | 0.0320 | 0.0424 | 0.0515 | 0.0667 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1163 | 0.1219 | 0.1394 | 0.1566 | 0.1831 |
| | | $Re\,$ | 1496 | 2738 | 3972 | 5220 | 7454 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0203 | 0.0239 | 0.0259 | 0.0290 | 0.0317 |
| | 40° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0160 | 0.0280 | 0.0391 | 0.0489 | 0.0654 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1254 | 0.1388 | 0.1513 | 0.1639 | 0.1848 |
| | | Re | 1544 | 2843 | 4126 | 5371 | 7594 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0170 | 0.0203 | 0.0214 | 0.0237 | 0.0283 |
| | 60° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0146 | 0.0288 | 0.0395 | 0.0491 | 0.0584 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1274 | 0.1326 | 0.1516 | 0.1653 | 0.1745 |
| | | Re | 1445 | 2787 | 4167 | 5429 | 6579 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0161 | 0.0199 | 0.0208 | 0.0215 | 0.0200 |
| | 80° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0153 | 0.0289 | 0.0391 | 0.0484 | 0.0565 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1186 | 0.1358 | 0.1515 | 0.1676 | 0.1776 |
| | | Re | 1402 | 2851 | 4123 | 5440 | 6518 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0138 | 0.0150 | 0.0141 | 0.0121 | 0.0125 |
| $0.5\,$ | 20° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0107 | 0.0229 | 0.0332 | 0.0425 | 0.0506 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1780 | 0.1698 | 0.1809 | 0.1898 | 0.1972 |
| | | Re | 1541 | 2982 | 4397 | 5686 | 6804 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0172 | 0.0213 | 0.0240 | 0.0279 | 0.0325 |
| | 40° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0104 | 0.0221 | 0.0319 | 0.0410 | 0.0497 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1880 | 0.1815 | 0.1877 | 0.1964 | 0.2035 |
| | | $Re\,$ | 1592 | 3080 | 4409 | 5707 | 6924 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0162 | 0.0186 | 0.0216 | 0.0234 | 0.0268 |
| | 60° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0104 | 0.0224 | 0.0322 | 0.0419 | 0.0501 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.1813 | 0.1761 | 0.1856 | 0.1942 | 0.1993 |
| | | Re | 1498 | 2951 | 4292 | 5611 | 6653 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0161 | 0.0169 | 0.0187 | 0.0211 | 0.0228 |
| | 80° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0089 | 0.0211 | 0.0298 | 0.0392 | 0.0478 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.2174 | 0.1892 | 0.1993 | 0.2065 | 0.2140 |
| | | $Re\,$ | 1577 | 3086 | 4408 | 5781 | 7050 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0148 | 0.0160 | 0.0155 | 0.0144 | 0.0155 |
| 1.0 | 20° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0078 | 0.0155 | 0.0246 | 0.0334 | 0.0423 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.2433 | 0.2670 | 0.2576 | 0.2459 | 0.2425 |
| | | Re | 1570 | 3269 | 4799 | 5992 | 7217 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0155 | 0.0186 | 0.0201 | 0.0225 | 0.0261 |
| | 40° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0081 | 0.0146 | 0.0226 | 0.0323 | 0.0408 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.2569 | 0.2878 | 0.2872 | 0.2610 | 0.2548 |
| | | Re | 1698 | 3331 | 4948 | 6177 | 7355 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0150 | 0.0173 | 0.0174 | 0.0209 | 0.0225 |
| | 60° | $h_c(m)$ | 0.0077 | 0.0153 | 0.0221 | 0.0317 | 0.0475 |
| | | v(m/s) | 0.2483 | 0.2794 | 0.2972 | 0.2693 | 0.2597 |
| | | $Re\,$ | 1582 | 3368 | 5011 | 6261 | 8495 |
| | | \boldsymbol{n} | 0.0151 | 0.0179 | 0.0165 | 0.0174 | 0.0209 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (continued)

positioned at the connection point between the water tank and the open-channel fume, and the fow rate varied from 0 to $0.0125 \text{ m}^3\text{/s}.$

Theory and data

The roughness coefficient is one of the most important hydrodynamic parameters to understand as it indicates the roughness of the surface and the obstructive efects of vegetation on the flow of water (Barros and Colello [2001](#page-10-17); Wang et al. [2014](#page-11-4); Zhang et al. [2018\)](#page-11-5). The primary means of expressing the roughness coefficient are the Manning, Darcy-Weisbach, and Chezy flow resistance equations (Rouhipour et al. [1999](#page-10-18); Hogarth et al. [2005](#page-10-19); Smith et al. [2007\)](#page-10-20). Moreover, according to the experimental data processing, the minimum Reynolds number (Re; Eq. [1](#page-7-0)) was \sim 1400, which is much larger than the critical value of 500, meaning that the fow was in a turbulent state throughout the experiment. Therefore, the Manning's roughness coefficient $(n; Eq. 2)$ $(n; Eq. 2)$ was considered to be the most accurate parameter:

$$
Re = \frac{vR}{v},\tag{1}
$$

where ν is the mean velocity (m/s) between cross sections 1 and 2, R is the hydraulic radius (m) , v is kinematic viscosity (m^2/s) , and

$$
n = \frac{1}{\nu} R^{2/3} J^{1/2},\tag{2}
$$

where *J* is the hydraulic gradient (dimensionless), *n* is Manning's roughness coefficient $(s/m^{1/3})$ (Smith et al. [2007](#page-10-20)).

In the process of calculating the roughness coefficient, both the hydraulic radius and the hydraulic gradient are important parameters that afect the results. The hydraulic radius is the ratio of the area of flow passing through a water section to the boundary line (i.e., wet cycle) of the contact between the fuid and the solid wall (Eq. [3](#page-7-2); Querner [1997](#page-10-21); Cheng and Nguyen [2011](#page-10-22); Vatankhah et al. [2015\)](#page-10-23). Meanwhile, the hydraulic gradient is the head loss *per* unit distance along the water fow path (Eq. [4](#page-7-3); Zheng et al. [2000](#page-11-6); Heuperman [2007;](#page-10-24) Nouwakpo et al. [2010\)](#page-10-25), such that

$$
R = \frac{A}{\chi},\tag{3}
$$

where *A* is the cross-sectional area of water flow (m²) and χ is the wetted perimeter (m):

$$
J = \frac{h_f}{l},\tag{4}
$$

where h_f is the frictional head loss (m) and *l* is the length of water along the course (m).

Fig. 2 Relationships between Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) and fow depth (*h*) under diferent lodging angles and slopes (**a** *i*=0.0%; **b** *i*=0.5%; **c** *i*=1.0%; **d** *i*=1.5%; **e** *i*=2.0%; **f** *i*=2.5%; **g** $i=3.0\%$), the hollow points stand for submersed and the filled points for unsubmersed vegetation

During the experiment, we measured the pressure with piezometer tubes in Sects. 1 and 2, and recorded the fow depths and flow velocities as h_1 , h_2 , v_1 , and v_2 , respectively. The flow depth (h_c) , current velocity (v) , and the hydraulic radius (*R*) were calculated using the mean values of cross sections 1 and 2 (i.e., $h_c = (h_1 + h_2)/2$; = $v(v_1 + v_2)/2$; $R = (R_1$ $+ R₂$ $/2$). The formulae for calculating the current velocities of each cross section are shown in Eq. 5:

$$
v_1 = \frac{Q}{Bh_1}; v_2 = \frac{Q}{Bh_2}
$$
 (5)

where v_1 is the current velocity and h_1 is the flow depth for cross section 1, v_2 is the current velocity and h_2 is the flow depth for cross section 2, *B* is the channel width (m), and *Q* is the flow rate (m^3/s) .

Four categories of lodging angles (20°, 40°, 60°, and 80°) were used in the experiment, and 7 classes of slopes were assigned to each angle (where $i=0\%$ indicates horizontality; *i*=0.5% and 1.0% indicate a shallow slope; *i*=1.5% and 2.0% indicate a medium slope; *i*=2.5% and 3.0% indicate a steep slope). During the experiment, the flow rate (Q) and the water depth (h_c) corresponding to different slopes, (i) , and diferent lodging angles, (*θ*), were measured, and then the corresponding Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*)was calculated using Eq. [2](#page-7-1); the results are shown in Table [1.](#page-2-0)

Results and discussion

The relationships between the Manning's roughness coeffcient (*n*) and water depth (*h*) calculated under diferent experimental slopes are shown in (Fig. [2](#page-7-4)). Figure [2a](#page-7-4) shows the *n–h* relationship for a horizontal state (i.e., with $i=0\%$). When the vegetation is at the same lodging angle, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) increases gradually as the water depth (*h*) increases, before gradually decreasing. The reason for this behavior may be that with increasing water depth, the degree of submergence of the vegetation increases, causing the area of water blockage to increases. Under these circumstances, the Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) exhibits an increasing trend. When the vegetation is completely submerged, as the water depth increases and the water blocking area does not change, the resistance generated by the vegetation does not change, but the water depth continues to increase. Compared to the unsubmerged state, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) shows a decreasing

trend. Under the same water depth, as the lodging angle (*θ*) increases, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) gradually decreases in the order of: n_{20} °> n_{40} °> n_{60} °> n_{80} °. This may be because with an increasing degree of lodging, the vertical projection of the vegetation, which has a fixed height, decreases gradually, and the area of water blockage decreases accordingly; thus, the Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) exhibits a decreasing trend.

Figure [2b](#page-7-4), c shows the relationships of *n–h* under shallow slope conditions $(i=0.5\%$ and 1.0%). It can be seen from the fgures that, compared with the horizontal state, the *n–h* curves at shallow water depths and for shallow slopes just begin to converge with one other, and the *n–h* curves at greater water depths do not change signifcantly. From this pattern, we infer that shallow slopes can only afect the size of the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) for lodged vegetation under shallow water depths. Figure [2d](#page-7-4), e shows the relationship of $n-h$ for medium slopes ($i=1.5\%$ and 2.0%). Compared to the horizontal and shallow slope states, the *n–h* curves with medium slopes are obviously closer; the *n–h* curves at shallow water depths remain converged, and the *n–h* curves at greater water depths begin to converge. Finally, Fig. [2](#page-7-4)f, g shows the relationship of *n–h* with steep slopes $(i=2.5\%$ and 3.0%). It can be seen from these figures that whether at deep or shallow water depths, the *n–h* curves almost completely converge for all lodging angles, especially for the steepest slope $(i=3\%)$, as shown in Fig. [2g](#page-7-4).

The general trends shown in Fig. [2](#page-7-4) are that of convergence in the relationship of *n*–*h* as the slope increases, and that the water depth that can be achieved under the same flow conditions decreases with increasing slope. The reason for this phenomenon may be that the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) of vegetation was mainly controlled by three factors during the experiment: the lodging angle (*θ*), slope (*i*), and water depth (*h*). In the horizontal state, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) of the vegetation is not afected by the slope, and the lodging angle is the main controlling factor. As the slope gradually increases, the influence on Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) increases, and gradually exhibits a greater infuence than the lodging angle (θ) until the slope (i) becomes the dominant factor $(Fig. 2g)$ $(Fig. 2g)$ $(Fig. 2g)$. In the process of the slope effect increasing and the infuence of the lodging angle decreasing, water depth is an important criterion. Under the conditions of a shallow slope, only the hydraulic characteristics under shallow water depths are afected by the slope, and with an increase in slope, the afected water depth increases gradually.

Therefore, the lodging angle is fxed at 20° to observe the relationship between Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) and water depth (*h*) on different slopes, as shown in Fig. [3](#page-9-0). It can be seen from the fgure that with increasing water depth, the Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) for different slopes generally increases. This is because for unsubmerged vegetation,

Fig. 3 Relationship between Manning's roughness coefficient (*n*) and fow depth (*h*) for diferent slopes when the lodging angle is 20°, the hollow points stand for submersed and the flled points for unsubmersed vegetation

with increasing water depth, the degree in vegetation submergence increases, and the area of water blockage also increases, thus increasing the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) . In addition, under the same water depth, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) is positively correlated with slope at shallow water depths $(0 < h < 0.05$ m), but negatively correlated with slope at greater water depths $(0.05 < h < 0.11$ m). Therefore, through comparative study, it can be concluded that the fow resistance generated by vegetation is closely related to the slope, the lodging angle, and the water depth.

Conclusions

Vegetation is one of the important components of river ecosystems. To further study the effect of vegetation roughness on water fow, open-channel fow simulation experiments were carried out. The following conclusions were drawn:

- 1. When $i=0\%$, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) increases gradually as the water depth (*h*) increases at the same lodging angle (θ) , and then gradually decreases. Under the same water depth, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) decreases gradually with the increase in lodging angle (θ), such that $n_{20^\circ} > n_{40^\circ} > n_{60^\circ} > n_{80^\circ}$.
- 2. By laterally comparing the relationships shown in *n–h* curves under diferent slopes (Fig. [2](#page-7-4)b–g), it can be concluded that as the slope increases, the *n–h* curves appear to converge, and the degree of convergence gradually increases. In addition, the water depth can be reached under the same discharge range decreases, and the effect of the slope gradient on the roughness coefficient of lodged vege-

tation increases gradually. This process is mainly controlled by three factors: the lodging angle, slope, and water depth.

3. By longitudinally comparing the *n–h* relationship at a fxed lodging angle (Fig. [3](#page-9-0)), it can be concluded that with increasing water depth, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) generally increases when the lodging angle is 20°. Under the same water depth, the Manning's roughness coefficient (n) increases as the slope increases at shallow water depths, but decreases with increases in slope at greater water depths.

It should be noted that our conclusions were derived by controlling many factors. To simplify the study, uniform vegetation heights and stem diameters were used, and four representative lodging angles and seven slope classes were selected. Therefore, the conclusions of this study are representative, but the reliability and adaptability of their application warrant further exploration.

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