

A new model for settling velocity of non-spherical particles

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A new model for settling velocity of non-spherical particles

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12

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 The settlement of non-spherical particles, such as propagules of plants and natural sediments,
15 are commonly observed in riverine ecosystems. The settling process is influenced by both
16 particle properties (size, density and shape) and fluid properties (density and viscosity).
17 Therefore, the drag law of non-spherical particles is a function of both particle Reynolds
18 number and particle shape. Herein, a total of 828 settling data are collected from the
19 literatures, which cover a wide range of particle Reynolds number (0.008-10000). To
20 characterize the influence of particle shapes, sphericity is adopted as the general shape factor,
21 which varies from 0.421 to 1.0. By comparing the measured drag with the standard drag curve
22 of spheres, we modify the spherical drag law with three shape-dependent functions to develop
23 a new drag law for non-spherical particles. Combined with an iterative procedure, a new
24 model is thus obtained to predict the settling velocity of non-spherical particles of various
25 shapes and materials. Further applications in hydrochorous propagule dispersal and sediment
26 transport are projected based on deeper understanding of the settling process.

27 *Keywords:* Drag coefficient; Settling velocity; Sphericity; Non-spherical particles; Particle
28 Reynolds number; shape-dependent functions.

29

31 **1 Introduction**

32 In riverine ecosystems, hydrochory plays a major role in transporting and depositing freshly-
33 produced plants propagules (predominantly seeds) along the river corridors (Merritt & Wohl,
34 2002; Yoshikawa et al., 2013). In the way of becoming an essential part of the ecosystem, the
35 non-buoyant seeds have to undergo a long period of settlement, dispersal, germination, and
36 then gradually contribute to the colonization of the riparian zone (Gurnell et al., 2008;
37 Chambert and James, 2009; Koch et al., 2010). Another factor that greatly affects the
38 hydrodynamic process of rivers is the natural sediment. As mentioned by Meier et al. (2013),
39 sediments can promote vegetation growth due to the transportation of nutrients and other
40 organic matters. Moreover, by creating accretional structures in rivers, sediments can also
41 facilitate the development of other species in the new habitats (Gurnell et al., 2012). Thus, as
42 a starting point of the hydrodynamic process, the settlement of both hydrochorous seeds and
43 natural sediments should be paid more attention since the construction of aquatic ecosystem
44 grows more important.

45 Since all settlement issues are originated from the settlement of spheres, many spherical drag
46 laws, whether explicit or implicit, are proposed by previous studies (Clift & Gauvin, 1971;
47 Haider & Levenspiel, 1989; Brown & Lawler, 2003; Cheng, 2009; Terfous et al., 2013).
48 However, in practical applications, the most commonly encountered particles (e.g., seeds,
49 pebbles and gravels) are non-spherical and even irregular. Thus, the knowledge of drag
50 coefficient and settling velocity of non-spherical particles is essential for solving the settling
51 problem.

52 Based on numerous experimental and numerical settling data, many models have been
53 proposed to predict the settling velocities of non-spherical particles. In these models, particles
54 are usually separated into several categories, such as regular-shaped particles (Komar, 1980;
55 Haider & Levenspiel, 1989; Ganser, 1993; Gogus et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2011; Lau &
56 Chuah, 2013; Song et al., 2017), natural sediments and crushed rock fragments (Komar &
57 Reimers, 1978; Hallermeier, 1981; Dietrich, 1982; Swamee & Ojha, 1991; Chien, 1994;
58 Cheng, 1997; Alcerreca et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017), and conglomerates of particles (Tran-
59 Cong et al., 2004). Hence, the performances of most models are restricted in certain types of
60 particles. Moreover, to scale the influence of non-spherical shapes of particles, different shape
61 factors are applied. For instance, the factor, aspect ratio (E) is especially designed for the
62 axisymmetric particles, such as cylinders, spheroids, and ellipsoids (Tran-Cong et al., 2004;
63 Loth, 2008; Wang et al., 2011). The term S , which is defined as the ratio between equivalent
64 sphere area and the projected area of particle settling direction, is also proposed to describe
65 the effect of settling orientation (Song et al., 2017). Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the

66 effect of shape with one shape descriptor. Another problem for some models is that only part
 67 of the flow regimes is covered due to the limitation of experimental conditions. For instance,
 68 the model of Wang et al. (2017) is applicable for a certain range of particle Reynolds number,
 69 which varies from 0.01 to 3700. The range covers Stokes', intermediate, and early stage of
 70 Newton's flow regime. As for the settlement of particles in higher stage of Newton regime,
 71 the prediction ability of the model is unknown.

72 To solve the above-mentioned problems, a reliable model is developed based on a large
 73 amount of settling data, including irregular mineral sediments and artificial particles with
 74 non-spherical shapes. Note that behaviours of non-buoyant seeds during entrainment and
 75 settling are consistent with that of mineral sediments and the settling process of such artificial
 76 particles are analogous to that of natural sediments (Zhu et al., 2017). Herein, the shape
 77 factor, sphericity, is used as the general descriptor to show the influence of particle shapes.
 78 Note that the sphericity of these particles varies from 0.421 to 1.0. In addition, the particle
 79 Reynolds number ranges from 0.008 to 10000, which almost covers all regimes that can be
 80 encountered in natural processes. Herein, we modify the spherical drag law of Clift and
 81 Gauvin (1971) with shape-related functions to produce a new drag law for non-spherical
 82 particles. Subsequently, with an iterative procedure, a new model is developed to predict the
 83 settling velocity for different types of particles, which can eventually be applied in
 84 understanding the deposition, transport and dispersal of seeds and natural sediments.

85

86 *1.1 In situ settling velocity*

87 For particles settling through a static fluid, the balance between surface (drag) and body
 88 forces acting on the particle is expressed as follow:

$$89 \quad \frac{1}{2} \rho_f C_d A_p W_s^2 = (\rho_s - \rho_f) g V \quad (1)$$

90 Therefore, the settling velocity of the particle can be obtained through the following formula:

$$91 \quad W_s = \sqrt{\frac{4(\rho_s - \rho_f) g d_n}{3 \rho_f C_d}} \quad (2)$$

92 where ρ_f is the fluid density, ρ_s is the particle density, C_d is the drag coefficient depending
 93 on properties of particle and fluid, A_p is the projected area of the particle perpendicular to the
 94 settling direction, W_s is the settling velocity of the particle, g is the gravitational
 95 acceleration, and V is the volume of the particle.

96 The particle Reynolds number (R_{ep}) is defined as:

97
$$R_{ep} = \frac{\rho_f W_s d_n}{\mu} \quad (3)$$

98 where d_n is the diameter of the volume equivalent sphere, and μ is the dynamic viscosity of
 99 the fluid.

100 *1.2 Particle shape characterization*

101 For particles that are non-spherical, the diameter can be presented by the above-mentioned
 102 nominal diameter d_n to eliminate the influence of non-spherical shapes (Wadell, 1932).

103
$$d_n = \sqrt[3]{6V/\pi} \quad (4)$$

104 To describe the shape of non-spherical particles, multiple shape descriptors are proposed. For
 105 instance, the 1D descriptor, corey shape factor (*CSF*), is proposed by Corey (1963) to
 106 describe particles of relatively smooth surfaces. The term, circularity (X), is a 2D descriptor,
 107 which is suitable for particles with sharp corners and large obtuse angles (Büttner et al.,
 108 2002). However, since sphericity (ϕ) is the most widely used shape descriptor, and can
 109 accurately describe the shape of various particles, it is chosen in this study as the best
 110 descriptor. Sphericity is defined as the ratio between the surface area of the equivalent sphere
 111 A_{sph} and the particle surface area A_s :

112
$$\phi = \frac{A_{sph}}{A_s} \quad (5)$$

113 where A_{sph} is calculated by $A_{sph} = 4\pi(d_n/2)^2$.

114 For particles that are similar to scalene ellipsoids, the surface area of particle A_s can be
 115 approximately calculated as follow (Taylor et al., 2006):

116
$$A_s \approx 4\pi \left[\frac{(ab)^\lambda + (ac)^\lambda + (bc)^\lambda}{3 - k(1 - 27abc(a+b+c)^{-3})} \right]^{1/\lambda} \quad (6)$$

117 where a , b , and c are semi-axes of a triaxial ellipsoid, $\lambda=1.5349$, $k=0.0942$.

118 Except for ϕ , another frequently used shape descriptor is ψ , which is defined as the ratio
 119 between sphericity and circularity ($\psi=\phi/X$). This descriptor is first introduced by Dellino et
 120 al. (2005) for highly irregular particles.

121 **2 Materials and methods**

122 *2.1 Formulation*

123 To develop a new shape-dependent drag law, we collect 828 sets of settling data from
 124 previous studies (Komar & Reimers, 1978; Komar, 1980; Baba & Komar, 1981; Chambert &
 125 James, 2009; Koch et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Dioguardi & Mele, 2015; Song et al.,
 126 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). The new database mainly contains the settling data of volcanic
 127 materials and particles of regular shapes, such as cubes, cylinders, and cuboids. Details of the
 128 database are listed in Table 1. Note that within the database the range of ϕ is 0.421-1.0, and
 129 the value of R_{ep} varies from 0.008 to 10000.

130 Following the idea of Dioguardi et al. (2018), we construct a new drag law for non-spherical
 131 particles based on the spherical drag law of Clift and Gauvin (1971). This spherical drag law
 132 is chosen since it can effectively cover the entire R_{ep} range of the standard drag curve.

133
$$C_{d,sphere} = \frac{24}{R_{ep}} \left(1 + 0.15R_{ep}^{0.687}\right) + \frac{0.42}{1 + \frac{42500}{R_{ep}^{1.16}}} \quad (7)$$

134 By comparing the difference between the measured drag coefficient ($C_{d,meas}$) in our database
 135 and the drag of a sphere ($C_{d,sphere}$) at the same R_{ep} , we separate the Eq. (7) into the sum of
 136 three terms:

137
$$C_{d,sphere} = \frac{24}{R_{ep}} + \frac{24}{R_{ep}} \left(0.15R_{ep}^{0.687}\right) + \frac{0.42}{1 + \frac{42500}{R_{ep}^{1.16}}} \quad (8)$$

138 In Fig. 1, we plot the measured drag coefficient of particles $C_{d,meas}$ versus the drag curve for
 139 spheres. The drag of non-spherical particles is observed to be larger than $C_{d,sphere}$ in most
 140 cases. Specifically, the measured drag (black dots) is close to $C_{d,sphere}$ (solid line) for $R_{ep} < 10$.
 141 As R_{ep} grows larger than 10, the bias between the measured drag and the standard drag curve
 142 also becomes larger. In addition, for black dots that are closely related to the standard drag
 143 curve, the corresponding sphericities are close to 1.0. From these observations, we
 144 hypothesize that the influence of particle shape can be separately added to the three parts of
 145 Eq. (8).

146
$$C_{d,calc} = \frac{24}{R_{ep}} f_1(\phi) + \frac{24}{R_{ep}} \left(1 + 0.15R_{ep}^{0.687}\right) f_2(\phi) + \frac{0.42}{1 + \frac{42500}{R_{ep}^{1.16}}} f_3(\phi) \quad (9)$$

147 For the shape-modified functions, the following constraints must be satisfied.

148
$$f_1(\phi=1) = f_2(\phi=1) = f_3(\phi=1) = 1 \quad (10)$$

149 Therefore, when the shape of a particle is close to a sphere ($\phi \approx 1$), Eq. (9) can turn back to
 150 the spherical drag law (Eq. (8)). Based on the collected database, the three functions are
 151 obtained by comparing the difference between $C_{d,meas}$ and $C_{d,sphere}$ focusing on the three parts
 152 separately. We also assume that the ratio between each terms of $C_{d,sphere}$ and the total $C_{d,sphere}$
 153 is equal to the ratio between each part of $C_{d,meas}$ and the total drag of non-spherical particles
 154 (see Eq. (11)).

$$155 \quad \frac{C_{d,sphere}(part)}{C_{d,sphere}(total)} = \frac{C_{d,meas}(part)}{C_{d,meas}(total)} \quad (11)$$

156 With this assumption, the three functions are separately searched by correlating each part of
 157 $C_{d,calc}$ with ϕ and R_{ep} . The best function is the one with the minimum error when predicting
 158 the settling velocity $W_{s,meas}$. Finally, the three functions satisfying the constraints and
 159 assumptions are:

$$160 \quad f_1(\phi) = (2 - \phi)^{\alpha_1} \quad (12a)$$

$$161 \quad f_2(\phi) = \phi^{-R_{ep}^{\alpha_2}} \quad (12b)$$

$$162 \quad f_3(\phi) = e^{\alpha_3(1-\phi)} \quad (12c)$$

163 The values of three exponents α_1 , α_2 , and α_3 are obtained by iteratively searching for the
 164 values that can present the best fit with the measured data. The iterative searching process is
 165 conducted with the Matlab script. The best values of α_1 , α_2 , and α_3 are 1.29, 0.134, and
 166 1.43, respectively.

167 Thus, Eq. (9) turns to the new drag law:

$$168 \quad C_{d,calc} = \frac{24}{R_{ep}}(2 - \phi)^{1.29} + \frac{24}{R_{ep}}(1 + 0.15R_{ep}^{0.687})\phi^{-R_{ep}^{0.134}} + \frac{0.42}{1 + \frac{42500}{R_{ep}^{1.16}}}e^{1.43(1-\phi)} \quad (13)$$

169 As an implicit drag law depending on R_{ep} , an iterative procedure is usually adopted for
 170 calculating C_d , since both C_d and R_{ep} are relevant to W_s . The trial-and-error procedure is
 171 presented in the flow chart (Fig. 2). Details of the new drag law can be found in the Online
 172 Resource (sheet of ‘‘Drag law’’).

173 2.2 Models for comparison

174 To evaluate the ability of the present model to predict the settling velocity of non-spherical
 175 particles, we compare it with previous models (Chien, 1994; Alcerreca et al., 2013; Dioguardi
 176 & Mele, 2015; Dioguardi et al., 2018). Details of comparison with other models are given in
 177 the Online Resource (sheet of ‘‘Model comparison’’).

178 Chien (1994) derived the drag law for irregular particles settling in Newtonian and non-
 179 Newtonian fluids. Since this drag law is also implicit, a numerical iteration method is required
 180 to predict the settling velocity. The model of Chien (1994) covers a ϕ range of 0.2-1.0, and a
 181 R_{ep} range of 0.001-10000.

$$182 \quad C_d = \frac{30}{R_{ep}} + \frac{67.289}{e^{5.03\phi}} \quad (14)$$

183 The drag law of Alcerreca et al. (2013) is derived based on a large amount of settling data of
 184 calcareous sand particles. The drag law is explicit since C_d can be expressed as a function of
 185 the dimensionless particle diameter D_* :

$$186 \quad C_d = \frac{4}{3} \frac{D_*^3}{R_{ep}^2} \quad (15a)$$

$$187 \quad R_{ep} = \frac{\rho_f W_s d_n}{\mu} = \left(\sqrt{22 + 1.13 D_*^2} - 4.67 \right)^{1.5} \quad (15b)$$

$$188 \quad D_* = d_N \left[(g/\nu^2) (\rho_s/\rho_f - 1) \right]^{1/3} \quad (15c)$$

189 where d_N is the nominal particle diameter which can be calculated by $d_N = (d_l d_m d_s)^{1/3}$, and
 190 ν is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid. Note that d_l, d_m, d_s means the lengths of the longest,
 191 intermediate, and shortest principle axes of the particle, respectively. Consequently, the
 192 settling velocity can be calculated directly from basic properties of particles and fluids
 193 $(d_l, d_m, d_s, \rho_s, \rho_f, \nu)$.

194 Dioguardi and Mele (2015) applied the shape factor ψ to describe the irregularity of
 195 particles. Their drag law is based on the 340 settling data of volcanic particles, which are in a
 196 wide range of R_{ep} (0.03-10000). Developed from the drag law of Dellino et al. (2005), the
 197 form of this law is segmented and simple:

$$198 \quad C_d = \frac{C_{d,sphere}}{R_{ep}^2 \psi^{\exp}} \left(\frac{R_{ep}}{1.1883} \right)^{\frac{1}{0.4826}} \quad (16)$$

$$199 \quad \exp = R_{ep}^{-0.23} \quad \text{for the Re ranges of 0-50;}$$

$$200 \quad \exp = R_{ep}^{0.05} \quad \text{for the Re ranges of 50-10000;}$$

201 where $C_{d,sphere}$ is calculated by the drag law of Clift and Gauvin (1971) (see Eq. (7)). An
 202 iterative procedure is needed to construct the final model to predict the terminal settling
 203 velocity.

204 As a development of Dioguardi and Mele (2015), the model of Dioguardi et al. (2018) also
 205 used the shape factor ψ . Their drag law is obtained by 304 settling velocity measurements,

206 which are part of the 340 settling data mentioned in Table 1. Note that the structure of this
 207 model is similar to the present model (Eq. (13)). Differences between the two models are
 208 discussed in Section 3.

$$209 \quad C_{d,calc} = \frac{24}{R_{ep}} \left(\frac{1-\psi}{R_{ep}} + 1 \right)^{0.25} + \frac{24}{R_{ep}} (0.1806 R_{ep}^{0.6459}) \psi^{-(R_{ep}^{0.08})} + \frac{0.4251}{1 + \frac{6880.95}{R_{ep}} \psi^{5.05}} \quad (17)$$

210 2.3 Comparison results

211 To compare the accuracy of predicting the settling velocity for each model, we first plot the
 212 $C_{d,calc}$ and $C_{d,meas}$ versus R_{ep} in Fig. 3. After calculating the $C_{d,calc}$ with the aforementioned
 213 laws, we iteratively obtain the terminal settling velocity $W_{s,calc}$ and compare it with the
 214 measured values $W_{s,meas}$. In Fig. 4, the comparison results are displayed, along with the
 215 correlation coefficient of each model. As shown in Fig. 4, most models have similar
 216 correlation coefficients, which are approximately 0.94. The performance of Alcerecca et al.
 217 (2013) is relatively weak, which may due to the fact that their model is based on settling data
 218 of calcareous sand. Thus, for non-spherical particles of other shapes and materials, the ability
 219 of this model to predict the settling velocity is limited.

220 Based on the correlations between $W_{s,calc}$ and $W_{s,meas}$, three statistical parameters are used as
 221 indicators to assess the ability of different models to predict the settling velocity of non-
 222 spherical particles. The first parameter is the R-squared (R^2), which is obtained by linear
 223 fitting and presented in Fig. 4 for each model. The second parameter is average absolute error
 224 ($|err\%$), which is calculated as follow:

$$225 \quad |err\%| = \frac{|W_{s,calc} - W_{s,meas}|}{W_{s,meas}} \times 100 \quad (18)$$

226 We also evaluate each model with the root-mean-square error (RMSE) by applying the
 227 following formula:

$$228 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{W_{s,calc,i} - W_{s,meas,i}}{W_{s,meas,i}} \right)^2}{N}} \times 100 \quad (19)$$

229 where $N=828$ is the number of settling data in our database.

230 Error analyses of the three indicators for different models are summarized in Table 2. From
 231 R^2 listed in Table 2, the performance of the present model is slightly weaker than the model of
 232 Dioguardi et al. (2018). However, when evaluating the performance of models by $|err\%|$ and
 233 RMSE, the present model predicts the settling velocity better than all the other models.

234 To further explore the differences among these models, we compare the ability of each model
235 to predict settling velocity of particles from different sources. The comparisons of $|\text{err}\%|$ are
236 given in Table 3 while the results of RMSE are summarized in Table 4. About the two tables,
237 two notations are clarified. Firstly, since the number of settling data of hydrochorous seeds is
238 low, we summarize the settling data of seeds from three sources in one row, which is simply
239 marked as “Hydrochorous seeds” (Chambert & James, 2009; Koch et al., 2010; Zhu et al.,
240 2017). Secondly, since the data of tri-axial lengths are missing for hydrochorous seeds, the
241 shape descriptor ψ mentioned in the models of Dioguardi and Mele (2015) and Dioguardi et
242 al. (2018) cannot be calculated. Thus, in the last row of both tables, the error analyses for
243 hydrochorous seeds are not given for the two models.

244 From Table 3 and 4, the present model performs quite well for data collected from Song et al.
245 (2017), Komar and Reimers (1978) and Baba and Komar (1981). Combined with particle
246 shapes and materials listed in Table 1, the present model is found to be especially suitable for
247 regular particles (e.g., cubes and cylinders) and particles with relatively smooth surfaces (e.g.,
248 pebbles and irregular glass particles). Nevertheless, the accuracy of the present model to
249 predict the settling velocities for data from Wang et al. (2011), Komar (1980) and
250 Hydrochorous seeds is only acceptable. For data from Wang et al. (2011), Komar (1980), the
251 present model performs better than the other models except for the model of Dioguardi and
252 Mele (2015). The prediction for settling velocity of Hydrochorous seeds, though not accurate
253 enough, is the best among these models. A common reason for the deviations is that all the
254 settling data from the three sources are no more than 50 data points, and thus the errors may
255 be enlarged. At last, the abilities of the models to predict settling velocity of volcanic particles
256 are compared. Since the models of both Dioguardi and Mele (2015) and Dioguardi et al.
257 (2018) are developed from the settling data of volcanic materials, they naturally show smaller
258 errors than the other models. Note that the performance of the present model is just slightly
259 weaker than the two models. To summarize from the above analysis, it can be concluded that
260 the present model shows the best performance when predicting settling velocity for particles
261 of various shapes and materials.

262 **3 Discussion**

263 Among these models for comparison, the differences between the model of Dioguardi et al.
264 (2018) and the present model need to be further discussed, since they are based on similar
265 ideas. Herein, four major differences are clarified. Firstly, as shown in Table 1, the present
266 model contains a larger database, which includes particles of various shapes and materials. On
267 the other hand, the model of Dioguardi et al. (2018) is based on only part of the 340 data
268 points of volcanic particles. Secondly, the shape factor applied by Dioguardi et al. (2018) is

269 ψ rather than ϕ . As mentioned in Section 1.2, the calculation of ψ requires the value of
270 circularity (X) in addition to sphericity (ϕ). Thus, the model of Dioguardi et al. (2018) has
271 more difficulty in application. Thirdly, the first and last shape-modified functions of the
272 present model ($f_1(\phi)$ and $f_3(\phi)$ in Eq. (13)) have different forms and positions with that of
273 the model of Dioguardi et al. (2018) (Eq. (17)). Lastly, the model of Dioguardi et al. (2018) is
274 based on the spherical drag law of Haider and Levenspiel (1989), which is suitable for
275 $R_{ep} < 2.6 \times 10^5$.

276 Developed from the idea of Dioguardi et al. (2018), the present model enhances the
277 applicability in predicting the terminal settling velocity for particles of various shapes and
278 materials, and thus can be considered as an improvement.

279

280 **4 Conclusion**

281 We propose a new drag law for non-spherical particles based on a total of 828 settling data
282 collected from previous studies (Komar & Reimers, 1978; Komar, 1980; Baba & Komar,
283 1981; Chambert & James, 2009; Koch et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Dioguardi & Mele,
284 2015; Song et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). This new database cover a R_{ep} range of
285 0.008~10000 and a ϕ range of 0.421~1.0. Thus, the new model is suitable for the settlement
286 of non-spherical particles in both laminar and turbulent flows. In addition, since this new
287 model is developed from settling data from various sources, it can be applied in predicting
288 settling velocity of regular particles (e.g., cubes, cylinders, and cuboids), natural particles
289 (e.g., volcanic particles, pebbles, and glass particles of various shapes), and even non-
290 spherical hydrochorous seeds.

291 Following the idea of Dioguardi et al. (2018), the new model adopts three shaped-modified
292 functions in the spherical drag law of Clift and Gauvin (1971). With these functions based on
293 R_{ep} and ϕ , the new model exhibits better performance than the other models. With the wide
294 range of applicability in both flow regimes and particle shapes, the present model may be
295 practical in solving problems concerning the riverine ecosystem. On the one hand, by relating
296 the settling process of seeds with the dispersal process, more detailed information can be
297 obtained about the germination of seeds and establishment of aquatic vegetation, which is
298 crucial for flow characteristics in river systems (Meier et al., 2013). On the other hand, the
299 advanced settling model can estimate the rate of sediment transport for various particles and
300 flow regimes by being applied in predicting the distribution of sediment concentration (Fu et
301 al., 2005; Graf and Cellino, 2002). Such application may be verified when provided with
302 further sediment concentration profile measurements of irregular particles. In addition to its

303 application in the riverine ecosystems, the new settling model may be further improved by
304 extending from the drag of single irregular particle to conglomerates of particles.

305

306 **Declarations**

307 *Ethical approval and consent to participate*

308 Not applicable

309 *Consent for publication*

310 Not applicable

311 *Availability of data and materials*

312 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in the supplementary
313 information files, which can be found in the online version of this article.

314 *Competing interests*

315 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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319 *Authors' contributions*

320 All authors contributed to the model conception and derivation. F. Yang: data curation,
321 methodology, formal analysis, writing - original draft; Y.H. Zeng: conceptualization, funding
322 acquisition, supervision, writing - review & editing; W.X. Huai: conceptualization, writing -
323 review & editing. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

324 **Notation**

a, b, c = Semi-axes of a tri-axial ellipsoid (m)

A_p = Projected area perpendicular to the flow direction (m²)

A_s = Total surface area of the particle (m²)

A_{sph} = Surface area of equivalent spheres (m²)

C_d	= Drag coefficient (-)
$C_{d,calc}$	= Calculated drag coefficient (-)
$C_{d,meas}$	= Measured drag coefficient (-)
$C_{d,sphere}$	= Drag coefficient of sphere (-)
d_n	= Diameter of the volume equivalent sphere (m)
d_N	= Nominal particle diameter (m)
d_l, d_m, d_s	= Lengths of the longest, intermediate, and shortest principle axes of the particle (m)
D	= Dimensionless particle diameter (-)
E	= Aspect ratio (-)
g	= Gravitational acceleration ($m\ s^{-2}$)
Re_p	= Particle Reynolds number (-)
S	= The ratio between equivalent sphere area and the projected area of particle settling direction (-)
V	= Volume of the particle (m^3)
W_s	= Settling velocity of particles ($m\ s^{-1}$)
$W_{s,calc}$	= Calculated settling velocity of particles ($m\ s^{-1}$)
$W_{s,meas}$	= Measured settling velocity of particles ($m\ s^{-1}$)
X	= Particle circularity (-)
ρ_s	= Particle density ($kg\ m^{-3}$)
ρ_f	= Fluid density ($kg\ m^{-3}$)
μ	= Dynamic viscosity ($kg\ m^{-1}\ s^{-1}$)
ν	= Kinematic viscosity ($m^2\ s^{-1}$)
ϕ	= Particle sphericity (-)
ψ	= Shape descriptor (-)
λ, k	= Parameters in Eq. (6) (-)
$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$	= Exponents in Eq. (12) (a, b, c) (-)

325

326 **References**

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438

439 **List of tables**

440 Table 1 Sources of data

Source	Number of points	Particle types
Song et al. (2017)	276	Cube, cylinder
Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	340	Volcanic materials
Wang et al. (2011)	48	Cuboids
Komar and Reimers (1978)	51	Ellipsoidal pebbles
Baba and Komar (1981)	72	Irregular glass particles
Komar (1980)	27	Cylindrical-shaped grains
Chambert and James (2009)	8	Non-spherical seeds
Koch et al. (2010)	3	Non-spherical seeds
Zhu et al. (2017)	3	Non-spherical seeds

441

442 Table 2 Performance comparison of models

Model	R ²	err%	RMSE
Chien (1994)	0.930	13.347	18.664
Alcerreca et al. (2013)	0.904	18.270	28.098
Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	0.941*	16.186*	20.142*
Dioguardi et al. (2018)	0.951*	11.652*	15.800*
Present model	0.943	9.624	15.061

443 Note: Data marked with asterisk are obtained without considering the settlement of
444 hydrochorous seeds. The data are still convincing since the settling data of seeds (14 data
445 points) only account for 1.69% of the total database (828 data points).

446

447 Table 3 Comparisons of models by $|\text{err}\%|$

Data source	Chien (1994)	Alcerecca et al. (2013)	Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	Dioguardi et al. (2018)	Present model
Song et al. (2017)	22.790	13.507	17.314	12.23	7.234
Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	15.233	14.701	11.123	10.69	11.587
Wang et al. (2011)	16.747	15.646	20.800	16.25	17.627
Komar and Reimers (1978)	8.407	4.847	24.692	7.35	2.590
Baba and Komar (1981)	9.733	3.418	25.356	10.30	3.790
Komar (1980)	54.307	27.107	19.701	21.394	20.435
Hydrochorous seeds	18.455	24.914	/	/	16.424

448

449 Table 4 Comparisons of models by RMSE

Data source	Chien (1994)	Alcerecca et al. (2013)	Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	Dioguardi et al. (2018)	Present model
Song et al. (2017)	36.102	18.560	21.313	17.143	13.058
Dioguardi and Mele (2015)	19.240	19.040	13.777	14.362	16.465
Wang et al. (2011)	21.374	22.618	27.009	19.958	21.339
Komar and Reimers (1978)	10.406	6.100	25.512	8.980	3.165
Baba and Komar (1981)	11.173	4.268	27.401	11.693	4.863
Komar (1980)	68.173	32.323	25.876	26.451	26.529
Hydrochorous seeds	21.001	31.771	/	/	19.830

450

Figures

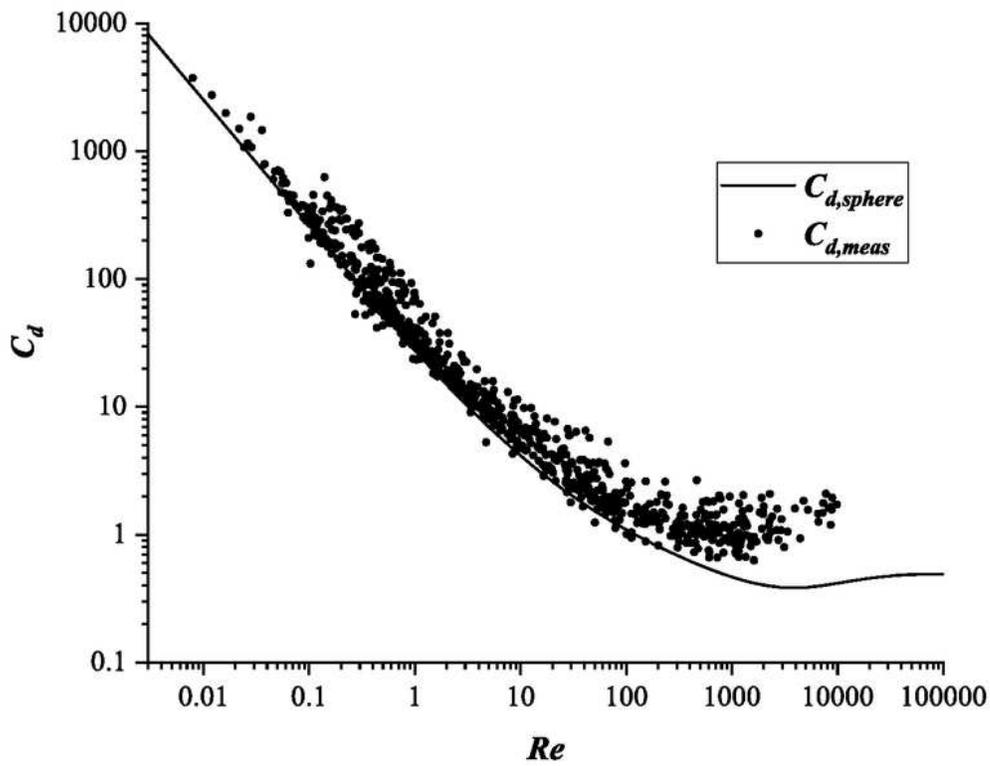


Figure 1

See manuscript for full figure caption.

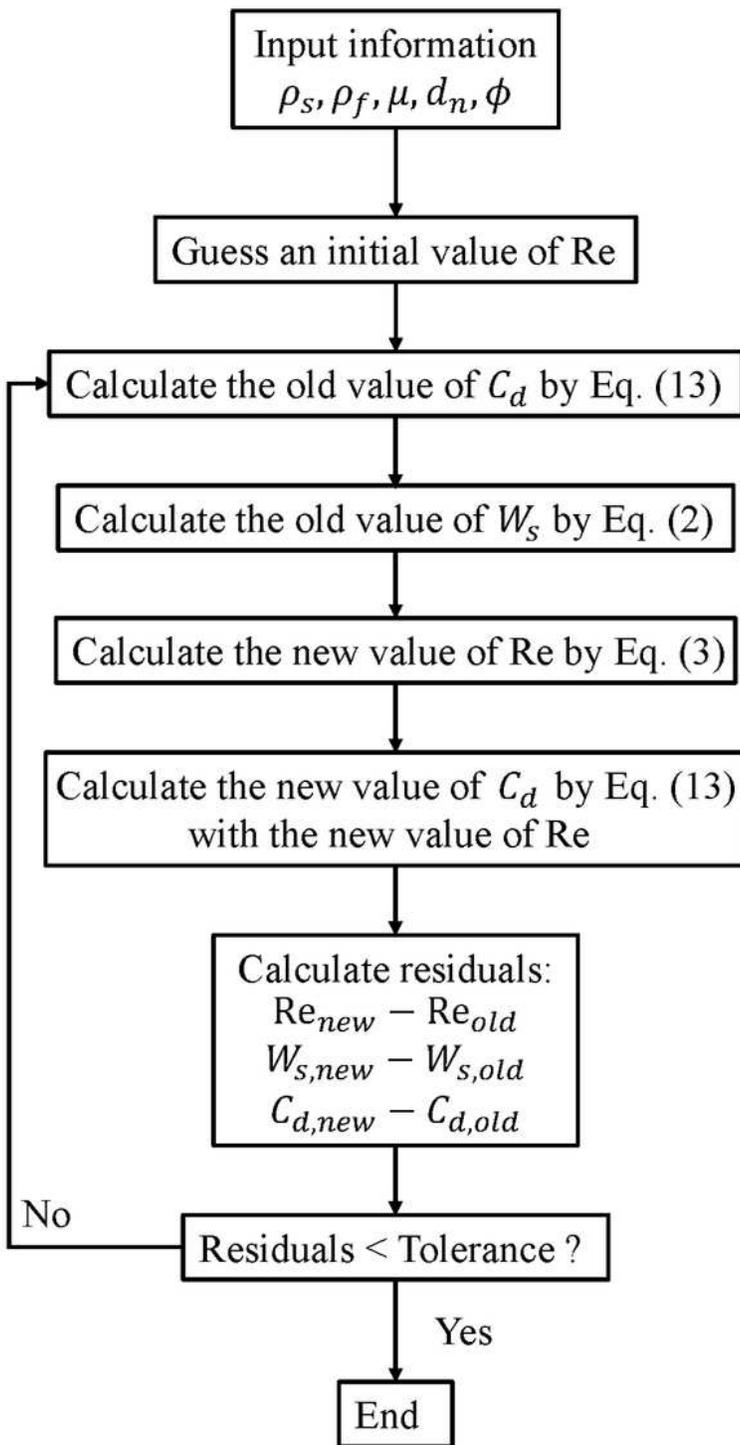


Figure 2

The trial-and-error procedure is presented in the flow chart

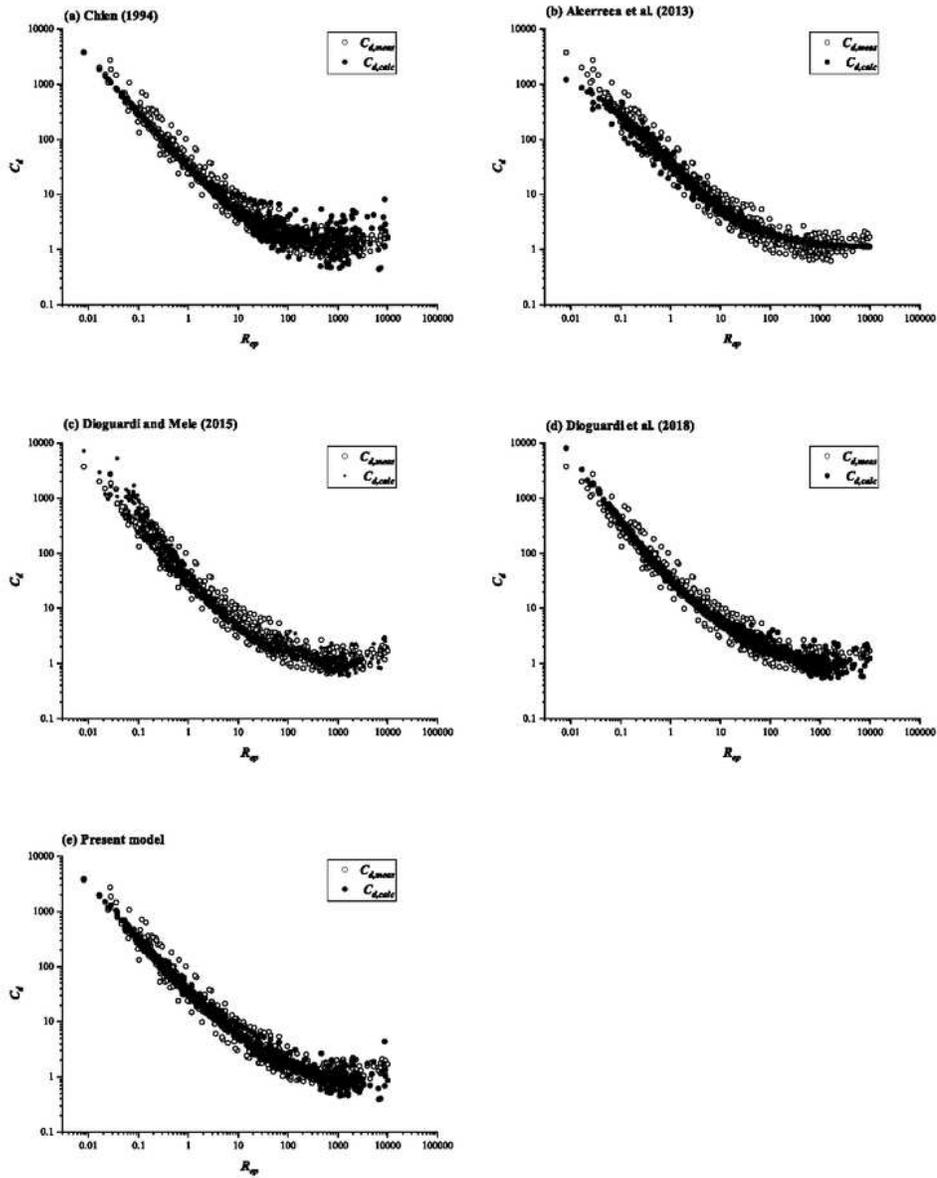


Figure 3

See manuscript for full figure caption.

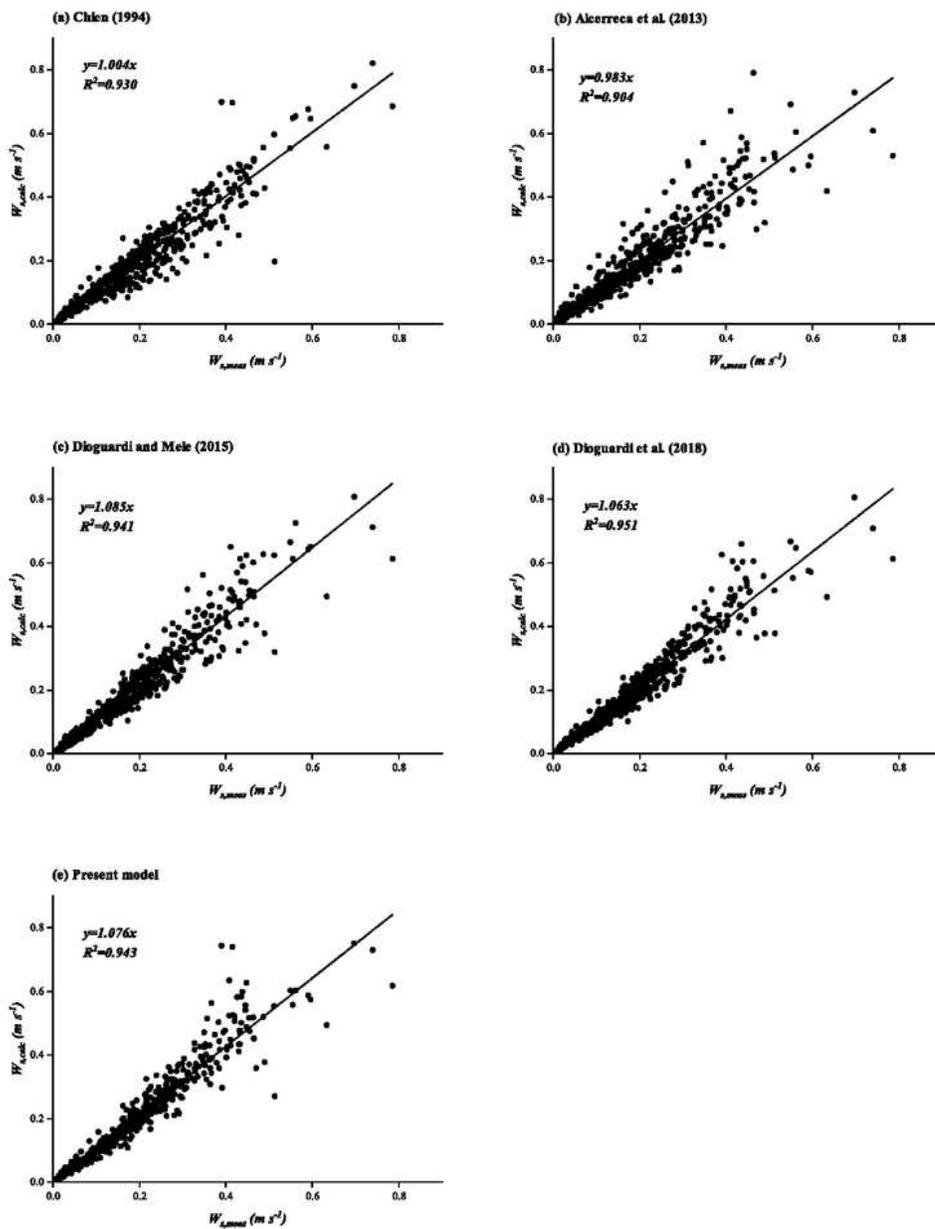


Figure 4

The comparison results are displayed, along with the correlation coefficient of each model.

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