1	Geomorphic and Hydrodynamic Impacts on Sediment Transport on the Inner Louisiana
2	Shelf
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24 Abstract

To investigate the interactions among geomorphology, hydrodynamics, and sediment 25 dynamics on the inner shelf offshore Louisiana, multiple acoustic and optical sensors were 26 deployed during a 58-day intermediate-energy period from May 23 to July 22, 2016. Time series 27 results show that an elongated bathymetric "trough" between Ship Shoal and Isles Dernieres 28 partially confines flow in the E-W (shore-parallel) direction. Warm water with lower salinity was 29 30 observed in the mid to upper water column with cool water with higher salinity in the lower 31 water column. High sediment concentrations of 1-10 g/L were observed in the bottom boundary layer during intermediate-energy conditions in response to sustained winds of up to 11 m/s, 32 33 significant waves heights of up to 1.5 m, occasional 8 s period swells, and a spring tidal range of 0.6 m. The dominant current and sediment transport directions were westward during the study 34 period. About 77% of the sediment flux occurred during three 2-day-long periods (only 10% of 35 36 the observation period), revealing the nonlinear and episodic nature of sediment transport in this study area. Although intermediate-energy conditions are less energetic than hurricanes and 37 storms, they occur more often and contribute greatly to the long-term net sediment transport. 38 Based on preliminary estimates, ~51.0 million tons of sediment passes along the Louisiana inner 39 shelf annually, comparable with the annual sediment exiting the Mississippi Delta and sourced 40 41 from marsh edge erosion in coastal Louisiana combined. The inner shelf sediment flux is an 42 integral part of the coastal sediment budget and may provide important mineral sediment for wetland accretion if transported onshore during storms. 43 Keywords: Morphodynamics; Sediment Transport; Hydrodynamics; Louisiana Shelf; Northern 44

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Gulf of Mexico; Fluid Mud

47 **1. Introduction**

48 **1.1 Sediment transport in eroding deltaic coasts**

Almost all the large river deltas (e.g., Ganges, Nile, Yellow and Yangtze) around the 49 world are eroding because of global sea level rise, subsidence, changing hydrodynamics, 50 51 declining sediment supply, levee construction and other human activities, leading to significant threats to natural, economic, and social systems in many countries (Syvitski et al., 2009; 52 53 Vörösmarty et al., 2009; Bentley et al., 2016; Zhang et al. 2018a, 2018b; Xu et al., 2019; Zhang 54 et al., 2020). Key coastal processes associated with rapid shoreline retreat, wetland loss, and expansion of bays and estuaries are the erosion of coastal shoreline and the sediment 55 56 resuspension, transport, and deposition downstream in the sediment dispersal system. The 57 transport of eroded sediment and sediment exchange between estuaries and nearby continental 58 shelves often play a key role in the evolution of coastal morphodynamics and long-term wetland 59 sustainability (Twilley et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018). Many coastal protection and restoration methods have been proposed to mitigate the land loss in response to subsidence and rising sea. 60 For instance, levee construction, sediment diversion, marsh creation and barrier island restoration 61 have been widely used around the world and many involve the steering, delivery, and movement 62 of sediment, either naturally to mimic sediment transport processes or manually through the 63 64 pumping, dredging and replacement of sediment.

Large rivers' deltaic plains are often muddy due to their long-distance preferential
transport of fine-grained sediment from large drainage basins to deltas. High sediment
concentration and strong hydrodynamic conditions favor the formation of the delta plains.
Defined as sediment concentration equal to or greater than 10 g/L, fluid muds can be found on
many of delta plains and play a key role in sediment transport globally, such as the Yellow

70	(Wright et al., 1986), the Amazon (Kineke et al., 1996), the Eel (Taykovoski et al., 2007), and
71	the Atchafalaya (Traykovski et al., 2015; Zang et al., 2020). They are often formed as "fluffy"
72	high concentration layers at the bottom water column and separated with upper water column by
73	lutocline. Fluid muds as well as high sediment concentration flows (here defined as 1-10 g/L)
74	occur over a relatively short duration but can greatly impact the sediment transport process,
75	morphology, and geological record. Studies of these high concentration sediment flows in coastal
76	areas include those in Yellow River Delta where resuspension is due to currents (Wright et al.,
77	1990), near Eel River shelf affected by waves (Ogston et al., 2000; Traykovski et al., 2000), and
78	near Waiapu River affected by a combination of currents and waves (Ma et al., 2008).
79	Our study area is on the central Louisiana shelf where fluid mud process and subsequent
80	fate have been reported (Oetking, 1973; Wiseman et al., 1975). Kobashi et al. (2007) reported the
81	existence of a fluid mud layer during a tripod deployment, which was associated with the
82	interaction of waves and fluvial sediments; they observed a fluid mud layer of 10-15 cm
83	conspicuously influenced during a storm in late April, in which a maximum wind speed of 17
84	m/s and significant wave height of 2.3 m were recorded. Stone et al. (1996) showed that
85	sediment transport processes on Ship Shoal on Louisiana shelf include contrasting non-cohesive
86	sand and cohesive mud transport. Moreover, Stone et al. (2009) reported that the combination of
87	spring flood discharge from the Atchafalaya River (Fig. 1) and the post-frontal meteorological
88	conditions can lead to sediment transport to Ship Shoal. They also hypothesized that occasional
89	sediment plume shifts from the Atchafalaya Bay to the southeast may result in the accumulation
90	of a transient, thin, and patchy fluid mud layer on Ship Shoal with a maximum thickness of about
91	2-4 cm. However, tens of vibracores collected in Ship Shoal area all show clean and high-quality
92	beach-compatible sand with essentially no mud preserved at all. These findings indicate that

93 fluid mud may temporarily blanket Ship Shoal but is later transported elsewhere. Liu et al.

94 (2020a) used a 3-D sediment transport model to confirm the bypass of a small amount of

95 Atchafalaya-derived sediment over Ship Shoal on an annual time scale.

Many borrow areas have been permitted and used for sand excavations on the central 96 Louisiana shelf in the past decade. Sand is often excavated from a target borrow area and thus a 97 pit is formed after the dredging. In 2013, sandy muds interpreted as paleo-distributary deposits 98 99 were excavated offshore Raccoon Island for the Raccoon Island Backbarrier Marsh Restoration 100 Project (Fig. 1). Liu et al. (2020b) collected bathymetric, side-scan, and sub-bottom data in 2015 and 2018, reported a high infilling rate of 1.1 m/year in the dredge pit from 2013 to 2018 and 101 102 concluded that high concentration, event-driven sediment transport is likely the key contributor for sediment infilling in this pit. On Ship Shoal, the Caminada and Block 88 dredge pits (Fig. 1) 103 were dredged in 2016 and 2018, respectively, for barrier island restoration, and several additional 104 105 dredge borrow areas on Ship Shoal are presently being excavated. Liu et al. (2019 and 2021) collected geophysical data at Caminada pit and found expanding mud patches in the deepest 106 portions of the pit. The collective results from Kobashi et al. (2007), Stone et al. (2009), Liu et al. 107 (2019, 2020b and 2021) and Xue et al. (2021) highlight the need to constrain the role of transient 108 and episodic bottom boundary layer sediment transport process in infilling dredge pits on the 109 110 inner shelf offshore central Louisiana. Moreover, there are multiple inner shelf shoals in the northern Gulf of Mexico such as Trinity Shoal, Tiger Shoal and Sabine Bank, which will likely 111 be continually used for sediment borrow areas to mitigate barrier island disintegration in a 112 regime of rapid relative sea-level rise. When implementing coastal restoration and sediment 113 management programs, the roles of these shoals, high sediment concentration flows and fluid 114 muds should be considered. 115

116 **1.2 Regional setting**

Coastal Louisiana is home to ~ 2 million people, supports the nation's largest commercial 117 fishery, and supplies 90% of the nation's outer continental shelf oil and gas development and 118 production. However, the region currently experiences about 90% of the nation's coastal wetland 119 loss (Couvillion et al., 2011). Over the past two decades, there have been many hydrodynamics 120 and sediment dynamics studies on the Louisiana shelf, especially on the western portion of the 121 122 shelf. For example, wave supported fluid mud has been widely reported over the Atchafalaya 123 subaqueous delta and offshore of the Chenier Plain during the passage of energetic cold fronts and tropical storms (Allison et al., 2000; Kineke et al., 2006; Jaramillo, 2008; Safak et al., 2010; 124 125 Traykovski et al., 2015; Denommee et al., 2016, 2018; Zang et al., 2020). These fluid muds occurred in locations having energetic waves and abundant fine sediment, namely the shallow 126 127 (<10 m) inner shelf offshore of and to the west of the Atchafalaya Bay mouth.

128 Xu et al. (2016a) applied a 3-D sediment transport model in Louisiana shelf and found 40 129 m/s model estimated winds, 18 m high waves and 45 Pa of wave-current combined shear stress 130 during the passage of Hurricane Katrina. Using an instrumented tripod, Wright et al. (1997) 131 concluded that fair-weather conditions in summer cannot suspend appreciable sediment in the 132 inner Louisiana continental shelf. Li et al. (2020) reported frequent sediment resuspension during 133 the passages of cold fronts in winter and spring and high sediment concentrations of a few g/L in 134 Barataria Bay.

The inner Louisiana shelf is in a complex morphological zone in which river channels, bays, barrier islands and submarine shoals interact (Fig. 1). The Isles Dernieres barrier island chain experienced some of the highest shoreline retreat rates (7.0-11.2 m/year) of coastal erosion in the world from the 1890s to 2006 (McBride et al., 1992; Martinez et al., 2009; Byrnes et al.,

2018; Fig. 1) prior to an aggressive barrier island restoration program implemented over the past 139 two decades. The rapid degradation of these islands has resulted in a decrease in the ability of the 140 island chain to protect interior wetlands from the impacts of storm surge, saltwater intrusion, an 141 increased tidal prism, and frequent storm waves. South of Isles Dernieres, Ship Shoal is one of 142 the largest offshore sand resources along the northern Gulf of Mexico, containing >1 billion m³ 143 of fine sand (Penland et al., 1990; Stone et al., 2009; Fig. 1). This shoal is approximately 50 km 144 long and 5-12 km wide. Water depth ranges from 7-9 m on the eastern side of the shoal to 145 approximately 3 m on the western crest. 146

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148 1.3 Motivations, objectives, and scientific questions

Sediment transport fluxes on the inner Louisiana shelf are large during high-energy
hurricanes but minimal during low-energy fair-weather conditions. This study targets an
intermediate-energy condition in summer, with wind speeds of 1-11 m/s and wave heights up to
1.5 m. These intermediate conditions are less energetic than hurricane conditions but happen
more often. Understanding the sediment transport under long-term and moderate-energy
hydrodynamic conditions is important to sustain the delta and wetland.

The overarching objective of this study is to investigate how geomorphology and hydrodynamics (waves, tides, and currents) impact the sediment transport processes in the inner Louisiana shelf. The primary research scientific questions are: (1) How do Isles Dernieres and Ship Shoal impact current direction and magnitude during summer? (2) How does Ship Shoal impact the wave characteristics on the inner shelf? (3) How do waves and currents contribute to the combined shear stress for sediment resuspension? (4) Can the sediment concentration near bottom boundary layer reach the level of 1-10 g/L during moderate energy summer? and (5)What are the sediment transport directions and fluxes?

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164 **2.** Methods

165 2.1 Tripod observation using optical and acoustic sensors

Multiple optical and acoustic sensors mounted to a tripod were deployed at Station R1 in 166 a water depth of ~ 8 m on May 23, 2016 and retrieved on July 22, 2016 (Fig. 1). A downward-167 looking Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter (ADV), an upward-looking Acoustic Doppler Current 168 Profiler (ADCP), a wave gauge, and two optical backscatter sensors (OBS3 and OBS5) were 169 170 used over this 58-day observational period. The downward looking Sontek 5-MHz ADV Ocean was deployed to capture time-series seabed elevation change as well as pressure, wave, and 171 current conditions at 0.63 m above bed (mab). The distance from ADV Ocean probes to water-172 173 sediment interface was measured acoustically; when assuming the elevation of probe attached to a rigid tripod platform is fixed, the time-series seabed elevation change was calculated. An 174 upward-looking 1200 kHz RDI Sentinel ADCP was used to measure current velocities in the 175 water column. An OBS-3A was used to measure turbidity, temperature, pressure, and 176 conductivity at 0.52 mab; sea water temperature and salinity data from OBS-3A were used but 177 178 turbidity data were not used in this study due to heavy biofouling on this turbidity sensor. An 179 OBS5+ sensor was mounted at about 0.10 mab to capture high turbidity close to seabed and experienced relatively less impact from biofouling. See Table 1 for the detailed parameters and 180 settings of these sensors. These sensors have been used in multiple estuaries and shelf areas in 181 Louisiana and some data analysis methods can be found from Wang et al. (2018, 2019), Li et al. 182 (2020) and Xu et al. (2020). 183

An upward-looking 600 kHz RDI Sentinel ADCP was also used to measure current velocities in the water column at Station CSI06 to measure sea water temperature and waves. CSI06 has been one of the ocean-observing stations of the Wave-Current-Surge Information System for Coastal Louisiana (WAVCIS) of Louisiana State University (LSU). Wind speed and directions were collected at an elevation of ~10 m. More details of WAVCIS system can be found at www.wavcis.lsu.edu.

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191 **2.2 Laboratory methods**

"Local" surficial sediment samples were collected at Station R1 using a clam shell grabber. Five replicates from R1 were analyzed using a Beckman Coulter LS 13 320 laser particle size analyzer, following the methods of Xu et al. (2014 and 2016b). A portion of the sediment was mixed with water in a chamber for the calibration of OBS5 data to convert from Nephelometric Turbidity Unit (NTU) to concentration of g/L and the details are in Wang et al. (2018) and Li et al. (2020).

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199 2.3 Data Analysis

The Atchafalaya River's water discharge data at Simmesport of Louisiana were
downloaded from USGS website at https://waterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/uv?site_no=07381490.
Wave data collected using two upward-looking ADCPs at R1 and CSI06 were analyzed using
WavesMon software from Teledyne RD Instruments. Wave direction was defined as where the
wave comes from (e.g., 0 degree is from N). All other tripod sensor data were analyzed using
MATLAB. All the data collected from May 23, 2016 to July 22, 2016 were analyzed, and three

2-day long periods were used for comparison. These three periods were: May 27-29 (defined as P1), June 7-9 (P2) and July 4-6 (P3) of the year 2016.

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2.4 1-D vertical modeling method

Since most sensor measurements in this study were at fixed points (except ADCP) on the 210 tripod, a mathematical model is needed to estimate the vertical profiles of velocity and sediment 211 212 concentration and to calculate depth-integrated sediment fluxes. The Styles & Glenn 1-D bottom boundary layer model (Styles and Glenn, 2000) was used in this study to compute the roughness, 213 eddy viscosity, velocity, and non-cohesive sediment concentration profiles at Station R1. This 214 model included 3-layer eddy viscosity profiles that made the model continuous in the eddy 215 viscosity at the top of the wave boundary layer. The inputs of this model included time, wave 216 217 orbital velocity, wave excursion amplitude, mean current velocity, height above seabed, and 218 sediment grain size. Both current-only and wave-current-combined shear stresses were calculated in the model. Recent two applications of this Styles & Glenn model are in the muddy 219 Fourleague Bay of Louisiana in Wang et al. (2019) and the sand-mud mixed Barataria Bay of 220 Louisiana in Li et al. (2020). 221

Over the years, many bottom boundary layer models have been developed for muddy and sandy environments. Based on Madsen (1994) and others, for instance, the Styles & Glenn (2000) model was developed to include multiple improvements in the stratified wave and current boundary layer and has been adopted in a 3-D sediment transport model in Regional Ocean Modeling System (Warner et al., 2008). Several moveable bed routines developed by Wiberg and Harris (1994) and Harris and Wiberg (2001) were also added to this 3-D model. However, modeling 3-D sediment transport is beyond the scope of this study. Since there is a lack of field

229 measurements of floc size, organic matter, bed erodibility and consolidation, cohesive sediment

behavior like flocculation (aggregation, breakup, and disaggregation), bed consolidation and

swelling are not in the 1-D modeling work of this study either.

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233 **3. Results**

234 **3.1 River discharge, salinity, temperature, and water level**

The 58-day tripod observational period happened during the waning stage of Atchafalaya River discharge, decreasing from about 9500 to around 5000 m³/s (Fig. 2A). From May 23 to July 22, 2016, water temperature in bottom water column at Station R1 had been increasing, possibly due to the increased solar radiation from early to middle summer in 2016 (Fig. 2B). Salinity of bottom water varied between 22 and 30. Tidal levels at R1 displays a typical diurnal tidal signal; the tidal range in spring tide reached 0.6 m whereas that of neap tides was only 0.2 m (Fig. 2C).

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243 **3.2 Winds and currents**

Wind speed at CSI06 varied between 1 and 11 m/s from May 23 to July 22, 2016 (Fig.
3A). Wind directions were stable during more than half of this period but were highly rotational
during P1 and P2 (Fig. 3B); the directions during the period from June 22 to July 3, 2016 rotated
daily, possibly in response to the sea and land breezes. The E-W and N-S bidirectional currents
measured by ADCP at 8-m deep Station R1 shows a strong impact from tides, with E-W being
much faster than N-S ones in the upper half of water column (dark red and dark blue in Fig.
3C&D). Over the same period, ADCP data were collected at 20-m deep Station CSI06; the E-W

and N-S currents at Station CSI06 were comparable and fast currents occurred near sea surface,

especially during the spring tides during which tidal ranges were large (Fig. 4).

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254 3.3 Waves

Wind speed and wave data from stations R1 and CSI06 show that high winds appeared to have corresponded with fast moving currents and peak wave heights (Fig. 5A, B&C). Wave periods from both stations shared the same increasing and decreasing trend (Fig. 5D). Most waves at the two stations were propagated from the south, southwest and southeast toward the land (Fig. 5E). During P2, wave periods increased rapidly from 4 to 8 s during which wind speeds were less than 5 m/s, indicating some swells propagating from deep ocean to the inner Louisiana shelf but unrelated to local winds.

262 **3.4 Sediment grain size**

Laser grain size data of surficial sediment sample shows a muddy texture at Station R1. The percentages of sand, silt and clay were around 9.9%, 60.7% and 29.4%, respectively (Fig. 6). This finding was consistent with the results of a large surficial grain size database created by the usSEABED project (Williams et al., 2006; Fig. 7). Both Isle Dernieres and Ship Shoal were sand-dominated, but sediment between them were generally clayey silt with some sandy patches (Fig. 7). Station CSI06 was in a relatively fine-grained area with variable sand percentages of 0-40%.

270 **3.5 Sediment transport**

The 1-D vertical Styles & Glenn model was used to compute shear stress (wave only, current only and wave-current combined) and sediment concentration profile in many vertical layers at Station R1. The wave-current combined shear stress during P1 and P2 exceeded 1 Pa,

274	triggering strong sediment resuspension events (Fig. 8A&B). Both currents and waves
275	contributed to the combined wave-current shear stresses (Fig. 8A). Both modeled and OBS5-
276	calibrated sediment concentrations exceeded 1 g/L during P1 and P2. Interestingly, OBS5-
277	calibrated concentration reached ~10 g/L during multiple episodes from June 2-10, 2016.
278	Although both observed OBS5 and modeled sediment concentrations reached sediment
279	concentrations levels at 1-10 g/L, there were a few mismatches during events and further
280	explanations are in Section 4.5.

281 **4.** Discussion

282 4.1 Morphologic impact on currents and waves

Between Ship Shoal and Isles Dernieres, Station R1 is in an elongated "trough" (or a strait) which is about 50 km long and 15 km wide (Fig. 1). Such a morphologic setting plays a key role in controlling the circulation and trajectory of coastal currents. Fig. 9 shows a comparison of current directions between R1 and CSI06. The prevailing current directions at R1 were along E-W, with a dominating westward current. This is consistent with a modeling result of yearly westward longshore current from in Xu et al. (2011). However, the current directions at CSI06, located outside of the trough, were highly variable with a dominant direction toward NE.

Wave heights, periods, and directions in R1 and CSI06 shared some similar response to high wind speed events (Fig. 5). When comparing wave heights at R1 with these at CSI06, however, during most of the observational period, the heights of CSI06 were greater than those of R1 (Fig. 10A). The differences in heights between two stations were small (near the black 1:1 line) when wave heights at R1 were less than 0.4 m, but the differences were large when heights at R1 were greater than 0.8 m (Fig. 10A). These height differences revealed not only the decreasing water depths from 20 m at CSI06 to 8 m at R1 but also some possible wave breaking on top of Ship Shoal when waves propagated onshore. Wave periods at R1 were very close but
generally shorter than these at CSI06 (Fig. 10B). Wave directions at R1 clustered at 100-200
degrees, but the directions at CSI06 were 100-270 degrees (Fig. 10C). The paucity of waves
coming from 200-270 degrees (from SW) at R1 presumably indicates the wave sheltering by
western crest of Ship Shoal (brown in Fig. 1).

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4.2 Temperature, salinity, wind, and wave

304 Time-series temperature and salinity data can be used to analyze the mixing of multiple water masses in coastal ocean. Fig. 11 displays the relationship between temperature and salinity 305 306 over three periods: May 25-28, May 28-June 7 and June 7-21 of 2016. The rightward shifting of scattered symbols on Fig. 11 from May 25-28 to June 7-21 clearly demonstrates a 3-degree 307 warming from early to middle summer of 2016. Interestingly, during three periods, temperature 308 309 and salinity oscillated between "warm and less saline" water and "cold and salty" water. Unfortunately, no temperature and salinity data were collected in the middle or upper water 310 311 columns. It is likely that cold and salty water is from one bottom water mass and warm and less saline water is from another distinct water mass in the middle or upper water column. 312 During P1, wind directions were from SE and the average wind speeds were 6.9 m/s 313 314 (Table 2). The maximum westward currents reached 0.43 m/s and wave heights were 0.85 m. 315 Both alongshore and cross-shore velocity profiles were rapid at the sea surface and slower near bottom and sediment concentrations near bottom boundary layer reached 1-4 g/L (Fig. 12). 316

317 During P2, wind directions were highly rotating, maximum westward currents were only 0.25

- 318 m/s, and average wave periods were 6.5 s due to the impact of swells. Sediment concentration
- profiles of P1 and P2 were comparable. During P3, winds were from SW at 6.6 m/s, alongshore

currents were eastward, and sediment concentrations near bottom were generally less than 1.5g/L.

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4.3 Morphologic impact on sediment fluxes

The 50-km long trough between Ship Shoal and Isle Dernieres not only influences 324 hydrodynamics but also sediment transport. Depth-integrated sediment fluxes were calculated at 325 326 R1 along both alongshore and cross-shore directions. For alongshore fluxes, westward sediment 327 transport exceeded 5 kg/m/s during P1 and P2 (Fig. 13). During P3, however, sediment transport was eastward and reached 2 kg/m/s. Despite the well-documented long-term net westward 328 329 transport, short-term eastward transport can happen in response to strong winds from SW. Cross-330 shore fluxes were always less than the alongshore fluxes during the entire observational period (Fig. 13C). Both onshore and offshore fluxes were observed but the net transport were 331 332 southward over the 58-day period. There are two possible primary sources for the sediment being transported southward: 1) barrier shoreface ravinement (Miner et al., 2009a) and 2) sediment 333 export from the estuarine system and eroding interior wetlands via tidal inlets. About 77% of 334 sediment fluxes occurred during all three periods (P1-P3, a total of only 6 days) over the 58-day 335 observational period. This highlights the episodic and non-linear nature of sediment transport in 336 337 the area.

338

339 4.4 Implications to sediment budget and coastal restoration

After calculating sediment concentrations and velocity along many vertical layers in Styles & Glenn model, the product of concentration (kg/m³) and velocity (m/s) yields sediment flux which is in kg/m²/s. When depth-integrated, sediment flux unit becomes kg/m/s. In this sediment flux calculation, velocity at 0.63 mab was directly from the measurement of ADV
Ocean and used in calculating the velocity profile in Styles & Glenn model. Sediment
concentration profile was calculated using this model as well.

A simple calculation discussed below provides for an estimate of the sediment budget along an "conceptual" N-S cross section passing R1 in the "trough" between Ship Shoal and Isle Dernieres (Fig. 1). Since our tripod measurements were hourly, this unit of kg/m/s needs to be converted to kg/m. Because the width of the trough is roughly 15 km, the flux should be multiplied by 15,000 m. Over the 58-day observational period, the net alongshore sediment flux was ~150 kg/m/s toward west (Fig. 13C), and the flux crossing the trough was:

352 $[150 \text{ kg/m/s} \times (3600 \text{ s/1 h}) \times 15,000 \text{ m}] / 58 \text{ days} = 8.1 \times 10^9 \text{ kg} / 58 \text{ days}$

353 Then the unit can be converted to:

 $(8.1 \times 10^9 \text{ kg}/58 \text{ days}) \times (365 \text{ days}/1 \text{ year}) \times (1 \text{ ton}/1000 \text{ kg}) = 51.0 \text{ million ton/year}$ 354 355 The sources of errors for the above flux calculation can be from both velocity and sediment concentration. The accuracy of Sontek ADV Ocean measurements was 1% of 356 measured velocity, and thus contributed to minimal error to the flux calculation. Sediment 357 concentration, however, can vary several orders of magnitude, from 0.01 g/L to 10 g/L, in our 358 model simulations and is highly sensitive to the inputs of grain size, critical shear stress, wave 359 and current. In addition, the spatial variation along the "conceptual" N-S cross section is not 360 captured in the calculation. Couvillion et al. (2011) did a trend analysis from 1985 to 2010 and 361 reported an average wetland loss rate of 16.57 mile²/year in coastal Louisiana, which was 42.92 362 km²/year. Assuming an erosional depth of 1.0 m (many Louisiana bays are 2-4 m deep), a 363 porosity of 0.5, and a sediment density of 2650 kg/m³, that would yield a sediment of 56.8 364 million ton/year. It should be noted that some sediment eroded from the marsh edge may deposit 365

to nearby marsh and bay bottom to fill in the new accommodation space created by fast land 366 subsidence and sea level rise and never reach the inner shelf environment. Based on seafloor 367 change analysis, between 1890 and 2006, Miner et al. (2009a) estimated that $\sim 1.2 \times 10^9$ m³ of 368 sediment were eroded from the Isles Dernieres and updrift Caminada Headland shoreface during 369 the 125-year period covered by historical data. Averaged over an annual timescale, this shoreface 370 ravinement would contribute approximately 9.8×10^6 m³ of sediment annually; however, the 371 372 contribution is somewhat episodic with tropical cyclones being the major driving forces that 373 greatly increase the magnitude of shoreface ravinement (Miner et al., 2009b; Allison et al., 2010). Allison et al. (2012) reported that during 2008-2012 sediment reaching the modern bird-foot 374 375 Mississippi Delta was around 38.1 million ton/year and that reaching the Wax Lake Delta and Atchafalaya Delta totaled about 48.3 million ton/year. Our estimate, however, shows that the 376 377 alongshore sediment flux in the inner shelf is comparable to both the modern river supplies and 378 the sediment eroded from marsh edge and barrier shoreface, all in the magnitude of 10s million ton/year. 379

This alongshore sediment flux is tremendous and while some may be reworked by storms 380 and transported landward, the net export signals a major deficit in the fine-grained sediment 381 budget for coastal Louisiana every year. Over the past three decades, sediment has been dredged 382 383 for coastal barrier island restoration and mud has been used for marsh creation (CPRA, 2012). 384 As mentioned in Section 1, the Raccoon Island dredge pit was about 1 km from Station R1 and located in a paleo river channel and the Caminada and Block 88 dredge pits were on top of the 385 386 Ship Shoal (see Fig. 1 for three pits). Liu et al. (2019) found muddy patches accumulation on the bottom of Caminada pit. Liu et al. (2020a) reported 100% infilling of muddy sediment at 387 Raccoon Island dredge pit six years after dredging and a rapid sediment infilling rate of 1.1 388

m/year. These high sediment accumulation rates in Raccoon Island pit corroborated the
abundance of muddy sediment passing our study area and thus sediment availability for pit
infilling.

Fluid mud has been reported on the western Louisiana shelf in many publications (e.g., 392 Kemp, 1986; Kemp and Wells, 1987; Roberts et al., 2002; Rotondo and Bentley, 2003; 393 Traykovski et al., 2015; Zang et al., 2020). This study revealed a new near-fluid-mud 394 395 concentration sediment flow on the inner shelf offshore central Louisiana, a process that was thought to be associated with strong, storm-associated currents on the shelf (Stone et al., 2009; 396 Allison et al., 2010). However, the timing of the observations reported herein with measurements 397 398 acquired during moderate-energy (non-storm) periods indicate that high concentration sediment 399 flows on the inner shelf can occur on Louisiana shelf. Although being less energetic than 400 storm/hurricane conditions, moderate conditions occur more often, take place over a longer 401 duration, and play a key role in transporting sediment and shaping coastal morphology.

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403 **4.5 Limitations, ongoing and future Work**

The turbidity data collected using OBS3 in this study were not usable due to heavy 404 biofouling in summer, and the data collected using OBS5 was also limited. In the future, an OBS 405 406 sensor equipped with a self-cleaning brush is needed for such a marine environment (e.g., Li et 407 al., 2020). The Styles & Glenn sediment model (Styles and Glenn, 2000) is 1-D vertical, does not include any cohesive sediment function, and cannot capture any sediment advection from 408 409 submarine shoals, barriers, bays, and rivers. Moreover, it is well known that optical sensors are 410 sensitive to mud as well as floating organic matter in the water column, but not so sensitive to sand. Organic matter is less dense than minerals and can cause significant overestimation of OBS 411

412	which is purely based on light measurement. When there is a resuspension event, the Styles &
413	Glenn model computes a flux contributed significantly by sand, but such flux can be 'overlooked'
414	by the OBS sensor. The mismatch of sediment concentration between OBS5 and modeled
415	sediment concentration around June 5, 2016 in Fig. 8C highlights the need of improved field
416	measurements and 3-D sediment transport model. Besides optical and acoustic (e.g., ADCP)
417	measurements of sediment concentrations, sequential portable samplers can be used to collect in-
418	situ time-series water samples in the field. Zang et al., (2020) recently added fluid mud process
419	in the 3-D sediment transport model in Regional Ocean Modeling System
420	(https://www.myroms.org/). Liu et al. (2020b) accomplished high-resolution sediment transport
421	model runs for Ship Shoal, Terrebonne Bay and Atchafalaya Bay areas and more in-depth model
422	analysis will be performed to calculate bay-shelf sediment exchange and alongshore and cross-
423	shore sediment fluxes. More future studies are needed to investigate the frequencies and
424	durations of high sediment concentration sediment flows in bays and inner shelves to support
425	future coastal restoration effort to dredge sediment for marsh creation. Moreover, the studies of
426	cohesive sediment behavior like flocculation and bed consolidation are very much needed,
427	especially the measurements of floc size, density and settling velocity as well as the
428	measurements of seabed erodibility. Moreover, this study was based on limited measurements of
429	bottom boundary layer on only one tripod. In the future, multiple tripods are needed to better
430	represent the spatial variations.

5. Conclusions

433 Multiple optical and acoustic sensors were used in this study to collect hydrodynamic and
434 sediment data in inner Louisiana shelf. The 50-km long and 15-km wide trough between Ship

Shoal and Isle Dernieres played a key role in controlling not only currents but also sediment 435 transport. Dominant current and sediment transport directions were both westward in the study 436 period, leading to a major "deficit" in the fine-grained sediment budget for coastal Louisiana. 437 Bottom water at Station R1 was generally under the combined impacts of both warm and less 438 saline water mass in the middle/upper water column and cold and salty water mass in the bottom. 439 Wave heights, periods, and directions at Station R1 shared similarities with CSI06; higher waves 440 441 occurred in both stations in response to strong local winds and episodic long-period swells 442 occurred in both stations. Wind directions played an important role in driving surface current and sediment transport direction. Approximately 51.0 million tons of sediment can pass inner 443 444 Louisiana shelf in a year, comparable with sediment exiting the Mississippi Delta and the sediment eroded from marsh edge and barrier shoreface in coastal Louisiana. Sediment 445 446 concentrations during multiple periods in the moderate-energy conditions reached a level of 1-10 447 g/L, a process that was previously thought to require hurricane or storm conditions.

448

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459

460 **Table Captions**

- 461 Table 1, Measurement parameters and settings of optical and acoustic sensors used in this study.
- 462 T is temperature, S is salinity, V is velocity, and P is pressure. mab = meters above bed.

463

464

- 465 Table 2. Comparison of driving mechanisms of hydrodynamics and sediment dynamics during 466 three periods P1, P2 and P3. Tide, wind, and wave data are averaged from Figs. 3, 4 and 6 467 respectively. Maximum longshore current speed averages are from Fig. 8. Cumulative longshore 468 sediment fluxes are from Figs. 12 and 13.
- 469 **Figure Captions**

470

Fig. 1. Bathymetric map of the study area on the Louisiana inner shelf, including tripod Station
R1, WAVCIS Station CSI06, Ship Shoal, Isles Dernieres, nearby river and bays, as well as three
dredge pits (Raccoon Island, Caminada and Block 88) for coastal barrier restoration. Caminada
pit is located in South Pelto block and used for Caminada Headland restoration project.
Bathymetric data are from ETOPO1 (https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/global/).

- 477 Fig. 2. (A) Time series of river water discharge from a gauging station at Simmesport of
- 478 Louisiana, (B) temperature and salinity from OBS3A on a tripod at Station R1, and (C) tidal
- 479 variation in relative to the mean water level from ADCP data collected at R1over the entire
- 480 deployment period. Shaded boxes P1, P2 and P3 are three comparing periods.

482	Fig. 3. Time series of (A) wind speeds and (B) directions from CSI06, and (C) east(+)/west(-)
483	and (D) north(+)/south(-) velocities from an upward looking ADCP at Station R1. mab= meters
484	above bed. Black lines are water level. Shaded boxes P1, P2 and P3 are three comparing periods.
485	
486	Fig. 4. Time series of east(+)/west(-) and (D) north(+)/south(-) velocities from an upward
487	looking ADCP at Station CSI06. mab= meters above bed. Black lines are water level.
488	
489	Fig. 5. Time series of (A) wind speeds at CSI06, (B) horizontal velocities of ADCP and ADV at
490	different elevations of Station R1, (C) significant wave heights, (D) significant wave periods and
491	(E) directions at both R1 and CSI06. P1, P2 and P3 are three comparing periods.
492	
493	Fig. 6. Grain size distribution of surficial sediment collected at tripod Station R1. Grey lines are
494	five replicates and bold black line is the average of five replicates.
495	
496	Fig. 7. Sandy percentages of surficial sediment based on usSEABED database from Williams et
497	al. (2006). The map shows tripod Station R1, WAVCIS Station CSI06, Ship Shoal, Isles
498	Dernieres, as well as three dredge pits (Raccoon Island, Caminada, and Block 88) for costal
499	barrier restoration. Bathymetric data are from ETOPO1
500	(https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/global/).

502	Fig. 8. Time series of (A) wave-current combined and current-only shear stresses calculated
503	using Styles & Glenn (2000) model, (B) modeled sediment concentration, (C) modeled and
504	measured (using OBS5) sediment concentration at 0.10 mab. mab= meters above bed. P1, P2 and
505	P3 are three comparing periods.
506	
507	Fig. 9. The frequencies of directions of depth-averaged currents in Station R1 and CSI06 over
508	the 58-day observational period.
509	
510	Fig. 10. Comparisons of wave heights (A), periods (B) and directions (C) between R1 and CSI06
511	over the 58-day observational period.
512	
513	Fig. 11. The relationship between temperature and salinity at Station R1 during three periods in
514	2016.
515	
516	Fig. 12. Alongshore and cross-shore current velocities and sediment concentration during three
517	comparing periods of P1, P2 and P3, as well as the averages of entire 58-day observation. See
518	Table 2 for details.
519	
520	Fig. 13. (A) Alongshore and (B) cross-shore depth-integrated sediment fluxes at tripod Station
521	R1. (C) cumulative longshore and cross-shore fluxes. P1, P2 and P3 are three comparing periods.
522	

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Table 1

Station	Sensor	Provider	Orientation	Measuring	Measuring	Sampling	Sampling
				parameters	elevations	interval	duration
					(mab)	(min)	(min)
R1	OBS3A	Campbell	side looking	T, S, P and	0.52	15	1
		Scientific, USA		Turbidity			
R1	OBS5	Campbell	side looking	Turbidity	0.10	15	1
		Scientific, USA					
R1	ADV Ocean	Sontek, xylem	downward	T, V and P	0.63	60	20
	5MHz		looking				
R1	Wave	Ocean Sensor	downward	T and P	0.35	60	20
	Gauge, 10Hz	Systems, USA	looking				
R1	ADCP,	Teledyne RD	upward	T, V and	0.97 - 8.00,	60	20
	Sentinel	Instruments	looking	Wave	with 0.5 m bin		
	1200 kHz				size		
CSI06	ADCP,	Teledyne RD	upward	T, V and	5.13 - 19.00,	60	20
	Sentinel 600	Instruments	looking	Wave	with 1 m bin		
	kHz				size		

Table 2

Period	Date	Wind speed	Wind direction of CSI06 5 (°)	Max alongshore current near sea surface at	Wave height at R1 (m)	Wave period at R1 (s)	Tide at R1	Cum. longshore	
		of						flux at R1 (kg/m/s)	
		CSI06							
		(m/s)							
				R1 (m/s)					
P1	May 27-29,	6.9	150.5 (SE)	-0.43 (west)	0.85	4.1	Spring	-83.3 (west	
	2016								
P2	June 7-9,	4.0	variable	-0.25 (west)	0.58	6.5	Spring	-52.5 (west	
	2016		and						
			rotating						
P3	July 4-6,	6.6	207.7	0.32 (east)	0.73	3.8	Spring	20.6 (east)	
	2016		(SW)						















Fig. 6.















Fig. 10.









Fig. 12.



Fig. 13.