

1 **Deposition on the Waiapu, New Zealand, continental shelf by seasonal wave- and**
2 **current-supported sediment gravity flows interacting with spatially varying**
3 **bathymetry**

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Abstract

The Waiapu system provides a prototype for investigating the relative importance of wave- versus current-supported gravity flows on shelf deposition. A two-dimensional model was used to represent gravity-driven sediment transport and deposition on the Waiapu shelf, New Zealand, over an annual cycle of storm events and associated Waiapu River floods. The 12-month run, forced by WAVEWATCH III hindcasts and constrained by benthic tripod data, was divided into two portions: a low-energy period (September 2003 to May 2004) with weak waves and currents and low river discharge, and a high-energy period (May to August 2004) with stronger waves and wind-driven currents and more frequent river floods. Model results indicated that during the low-energy period, riverine sediment was trapped between the 20- and 80-m isobaths. During the high-energy period, sediment was deposited obliquely across the shelf between the 60- and 120-m isobaths. The predicted deposit locations for the low- and high-energy portions, respectively, matched well with short- and long-term observed accumulation patterns based on ^7Be and ^{210}Pb activity (Kniskern et al., 2009). Significant gravity flows were mainly wave-supported landward of the 60-m isobath, but became increasingly current-supported as wave orbitals decayed in deeper water. Both analytical theory and numerical results showed that wave-supported gravity currents were sensitive to local water depth and favored deposition parallel to isobaths as depth increased. In contrast, current-supported gravity currents were more sensitive to spatial variations in bathymetry, with seaward decreasing slope and embayed isobaths favoring transport convergence. We conclude

that the longer term (~100 yr), shelf-oblique mud deposit on the Waiapu shelf is mainly the result of current-supported gravity flows responding to local variations in seabed slope and curvature of isobaths.

Keywords: Waiapu River, New Zealand, Gravity-driven flow, sediment transport, sediment deposition

1. Introduction

Until the 1990s, sediment gravity flows were largely considered insignificant for the dispersal of riverine sediment across continental shelves because few shelves are steep enough to provide sufficient gravity forces to maintain autosuspension, and few river effluents are turbid enough to directly produce hyperpycnal discharges. This opinion was fundamentally challenged a decade ago by new field observations and hydrodynamic theory, as well as reexamination of existing data, which indicated that gravity flows can occur on more gently sloping continental shelves when waves and/or currents provide sufficient turbulence to develop near-bed hyperpycnal layers by sediment resuspension (Traykovski et al., 2000; Wright et al., 2001).

Three prominent examples of shelves impacted by sediment gravity flows are found seaward of the Eel, Po and Yellow Rivers. Physical and geological studies were conducted on the Eel shelf in the late 1990s as part of the STRATAFORM program (Nittrouer, 1999). One of the fundamental conclusions of STRATAFORM was that across-shelf transport of Eel sediment was dominated by wave-supported gravity flows (Ogston et al., 2000; Traykovski et al., 2000; Scully et al., 2002; Harris et al.,

2005). EuroSTRATFORM collected observations on the Po subaqueous delta from the winter 2000 to the spring 2003 (Nitttrouer et al., 2004). Field and modeling results again showed that wave-supported gravity flows played an important role in moving sediment downslope offshore of the river mouth (Traykovski et al., 2007; Friedrichs and Scully, 2007). The Yellow River is characterized by extremely high sediment concentrations and is one of relatively the few rivers from which hyperpycnal discharge regularly occurs. However, the direct hyperpycnal river flow extinguishes itself very close to the Yellow River mouth, and most of the sediment is initially trapped within near-shore areas (Bornhold et al., 1986; Wright et al., 1990). Based on revised sediment gravity flow theory, Wright et al., (2001) reanalyzed field data collected offshore of the Yellow River in the 1980s and concluded that the turbid flows maintained by tidal currents could potentially move sediment downslope during slack tide when eddy viscosity temporally decreased.

Sediment gravity flows can be wave-supported (e.g., off the Po and Eel) or current-supported (e.g., off the Yellow River) based on the main source of turbulence. Wave-supported gravity flows have been well studied in the last decade, in part because they were observed in both the STRATFORM and EuroSTATAFORM projects, and also because bottom orbital velocities can be easily estimated from widely available surface wave parameters. Wave-induced flows are supported by velocity shear associated with wave orbital velocity within the thin wave boundary layer. Reduced shear at the top of the layer restricts the suspension from diffusing upward, potentially leading to very high sediment concentrations. Fluid mud with

sediment concentrations as high as 80 kg/m^3 were inferred within the wave boundary layer on the Eel shelf (Traykovski et al., 2000; Wright et al. 2001). The capacity of such flows to hold suspended sediment is limited by a balance between velocity shear and sediment induced stratification as scaled by the Richardson Number (Wright et al., 1999; 2001). Deposition from these flows is then determined by the gradient of near-bed orbital velocity with depth (Traykovski et al., 2000; Scully et al., 2002) and by depth-dependent changes in bed slope (Friedrichs and Scully, 2007).

Additional evidence of current-supported sediment gravity flows offshore of a high-load river has been documented recently. Tripod observations collected on the Waiapu mid-shelf, New Zealand (Fig. 1), in 2004 provided the first clear indication that gravity flows supported by wind-driven mean currents could be an important mode of across-shelf sediment dispersal (Ma et al., 2008). In contrast to thin ($< 10 \text{ cm}$) and dense (concentration $\sim 10\text{-}100 \text{ kg/m}^3$) wave-supported gravity flows, the current-supported gravity flows observed on the Waiapu shelf were significantly diluted (depth-averaged concentration $\sim 4 \text{ kg/m}^3$), and extended over a thicker layer of $1\text{-}2 \text{ m}$ (Ma, 2009). Compared with wave orbital velocities (based on wave buoys or wave hindcasts), near-bed sub-tidal currents are often less predictable. As a result, predicting the locus of deposition caused by current-supported gravity flow has presented additional challenges (Wright and Friedrichs, 2006).

The Waiapu shelf is the first site to date where sediment gravity flows supported by wind-driven currents have been documented (Ma et al., 2008). Such flows are likely to be recognized in the future on many other energetic shelves. To

better understand the ramifications of such flows, this paper applies a two-dimensional model for wave- and current-supported sediment gravity-driven flows to the Waiapu River shelf. The main objectives of the paper are (i) to determine whether sediment gravity flows may play a key role in forming the muddy deposits on the Waiapu shelf during both low and high energy periods, (ii) to investigate the effects of currents versus waves on gravity flows and resulting shelf deposition, and (iii) to better understand the relative roles of local water depth and spatially varying bed slope in determining the location of depocenters formed by gravity flows.

2. Site description

The Waiapu River drains a small mountainous basin ($\sim 1700 \text{ km}^2$), characterized by steep terrain, heavy rainfall ($\sim 2.4 \text{ m/yr}$), unconsolidated soft Tertiary mudstone and siltstone, and historical deforestation. As a result, its sediment yield ($\sim 20,000 \text{ T km}^2/\text{yr}$) is among the highest in the world (Milliman and Syvitski, 1992). Its water discharge is episodic over both inter- and intra-annual timescales, and almost all of the discharge is associated with floods brought on by cyclonic storms. Hyperpycnal plumes may occur in the Waiapu system during flood periods, i.e., total suspended solids in the river can exceed 40 kg/m^3 (Mulder and Syvitski, 1995). At the river mouth, fine-grained materials ($>90\%$) dominate the sediment load (Hicks et al., 2000).

Due to the small drainage basin of the Waiapu River, the river-ocean system is strongly coupled in that the weather systems that produce heavy rains and river flows

also create energetic waves and wind-driven currents in the coastal ocean (c.f. Wheatcroft, 2000). Bottom tripods deployed on the middle shelf (40-60 m) off the Waiapu in 2004 indicated that significant wave height reached 3.5-5 m during storms (Ma et al., 2008). In addition, currents at the tripod sites were observed to be strong, exceeding 1 m/s at the surface and reaching 0.5 m/s near the seabed. Large-scale circulations influence the outer shelf, including the southwestward East Cape Current and northeastward Wairarapa Coastal Current (Chiswell, 2000).

The mid-to-outer continental shelf off the Waiapu River mouth is composed of Holocene sediment that is locally over 100 m thick (Orpin et al., 2002), sitting atop up to 1 km of Pleistocene sediments (Lewis et al., 2004). On the Waiapu inner shelf thinner Holocene facies exhibit significant spatial variation, with river-plume and event deposits dominating north and south of the river mouth, respectively (Wadman and McNinch, 2008). On the mid-to-outer shelf the average modern accumulation rate is about 1.5 cm/yr, with the highest accumulation rate at the Holocene depocenter of about 3.5 cm/yr (Kniskern et al., 2009). Event layers have been found in the sediment cores collected on the shelf break at the head of the Ruatoria Indentation, suggesting the Ruatoria Indentation is a potential conduit through which sediment may escape to deeper water (Kniskern et al., 2009).

Kniskern (2007) and Kniskern et al. (2009) measured the ^7Be and ^{210}Pb excess activities of sediment cores collected throughout the Waiapu shelf in August 2003 and May 2004. The half-life of ^7Be and ^{210}Pb are 53 days and 22 years, respectively, hence they are used to infer deposition on the separate time scales of months and

decades. Figure 2 displays the ^7Be activities measured in surface sediment in May 2004 (Fig. 2a), just before the tripod deployment of Ma et al. (2008), and the long-term accumulation rate based on excess ^{210}Pb profiles (Fig. 2b). The short-term accumulation rate just before May 2004 was highest on the inner shelf (<50 m water depth) but became close to zero on the middle-to-outer shelf, whereas the long-term accumulation trend was reversed in that ^{210}Pb was mainly found seaward of 50 m. The results indicated that rapid deposition occurred adjacent to the Waiapu River mouth in the months leading up to May 2004, but most sediment probably moved seaward across the shelf over longer time scales. Based on X-radiographs of the sediment cores, Kniskern et al. (2009) concluded that long-term sedimentation on the Waiapu shelf was by event deposits related to hyperpycnal flows.

3. Theoretical development

3.1 Governing equations

Integrated vertically over a sediment gravity flow layer, the momentum balance can be represented as a downslope pressure gradient force induced by suspended sediment opposed by an upslope frictional drag (Wright et al., 2001),

$$B \sin \alpha = C_D |u_{\max}| u_g. \quad (1)$$

In Eq. (1) α ($\approx \sin \alpha \approx \tan \alpha$ for small α in radian units) is the seabed slope, C_D is the frictional drag coefficient (~ 0.003), and u_g is the depth-averaged velocity of the gravity-driven flow. The quantity u_{\max} is the magnitude of the instantaneous velocity at the top of the gravity layer, which can be expressed approximately as

$$u_{\max} = \sqrt{u_w^2 + v_c^2 + u_g^2}, \quad (2)$$

where u_w is the root-mean-square (r.m.s.) amplitude of wave orbital velocity (equal to $2^{1/2}$ times the standard deviation of the instantaneous orbital velocity), u_g is the downslope directed, gravity-driven current speed, and v_c is the speed of the non-gravity driven ambient current, mainly directed along-shelf. The depth-integrated buoyancy anomaly (B) induced by suspended sediment with mass concentration c_s can be estimated as

$$B = \rho_s^{-1} g s \int_{Z=0}^{\delta} c_s dz, \quad (3)$$

in which g is the acceleration of gravity, $s = (\rho_s - \rho_w)/\rho_w$ is the submerged weight of the sediment relative to seawater, ρ_s and ρ_w are the density of the sediment and water, and δ is the turbid layer thickness.

A key scaling parameter that controls the capacity of the gravity flow to hold suspended sediment is in the form of a Richardson number (Wright et al., 2001),

$$Ri = B / u_{\max}^2. \quad (4)$$

It expresses the importance of the stabilizing effects caused by stratification relative to the destabilizing effects induced by velocity shear. Bed stresses induced by intense waves and currents can generate strong bottom turbulence and can also resuspend bottom sediment causing strong stratification. The suppression of turbulence by stratification leads to settling of suspended sediment; but settling out of sediment then reduces stratification, which enhances turbulence once more. This negative feedback keeps Ri in the neighborhood of a critical value (of order $Ri \approx 1/4$), as has been demonstrated by field observations of bottom turbid layers on the Amazon shelf

(Trowbridge and Kineke, 1994), Eel shelf (Wright et al., 1999), and Waiapu shelf (Ma et al., 2008).

Combining Eqs. (1), (3), and (4) yields the following expressions for u_g and for the depth-integrated sediment concentration for periods when the turbid layer has reached its maximum sediment capacity:

$$u_g = \beta \cdot u_{\max} = \beta \cdot \sqrt{\frac{u_w^2 + v_c^2}{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad (5)$$

$$\int c_s dz = \frac{Ri_{cr} \rho_s}{gs} \left[\frac{u_w^2 + v_c^2}{1 - \beta^2} \right], \quad (6)$$

where $\beta = Ri_{cr} \alpha / C_D$. Thus the maximum downslope rate of sediment transported by gravity flows can be estimated by as the product of Eqs. (5) and (6):

$$Q_g = u_g \int c_s dz = \frac{\rho_s Ri_{cr}^2 \alpha}{gs C_D} \left(\frac{u_w^2 + v_c^2}{1 - \beta^2} \right)^{3/2}. \quad (7)$$

The rate of downslope sediment transport increases with bed slope, α , as well as with the magnitude of wave orbital velocity, u_w , and with the near-bed ambient current speed, v_c . Note that we require $\beta < 1$ for wave- and/or current-supported gravity flows to exist. If $\beta \geq 1$ (i.e., $\alpha \geq C_D / Ri_{cr} \approx 0.012$), the shelf becomes sufficiently steep for gravity flows to become autosuspending (Wright et al., 2001).

3.2 Gravity-induced deposition

The rate of deposition is determined by spatial convergence in sediment transport, which is simplified mathematically if one defines x as being directed along the downslope streamline being followed by Q_g . Then

$$D = -\nabla \bullet \vec{Q}_g = -\frac{\partial Q_g}{\partial x} - \frac{Q_g}{R}, \quad (8)$$

where R is the radius of curvature of the local bathymetric contour. Eq. (8) highlights two distinct transport patterns affecting deposition, one due to gradients in the downslope rate of sediment transport ($\partial Q_g / \partial x$), and one due to lateral convergence or divergence of transport streamlines associated with plan-view curvature of isobaths (Q_g / R). If the bathymetric contours are lobate ($R > 0$), then deposition is reduced; if the contours are embayed ($R < 0$), then deposition is increased.

In calculating $\partial Q_g / \partial x$ (using the expression for Q_g from in Eq. (7)), it is reasonable to assume that gradients in u_w^2 dominate gradients in v_c^2 , since ambient mean currents (v_c) typically decay with water depth much more slowly than bottom wave orbital velocity (u_w). Thus deposition by sediment gravity flows can be approximately re-expressed as:

$$D = Q_g \left\{ -\frac{3u_w}{u_w^2 + v_c^2} \frac{\partial u_w}{\partial x} - \frac{1 + 2\beta^2}{(1 - \beta^2)\alpha} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{R} \right\}. \quad (9)$$

Eqs. (7) and (9) together show that when $Ri = Ri_{cr}$, the deposition rate is controlled by the near-bed wave orbital velocity amplitude (u_w), near-bed ambient current speed (v_c), and shelf slope (α). Since wave orbital velocity attenuates strongly with water depth, the first term in the brackets on the right hand side (r.h.s.) of (9) always favors deposition. The second term in the brackets either increases deposition if the across-shelf bathymetric profile is concave upward ($\partial \alpha / \partial x < 0$), or decreases deposition if the profile is convex upward ($\partial \alpha / \partial x > 0$). The third term accounts for lateral convergence or divergence.

For wave-dominated conditions over a linearly (or nearly linearly) sloping bed along a relatively straight coastline, i.e., $|\partial u_w/\partial x|$ large with $|\partial \alpha/\partial x|$ and $|1/R|$ small, the first term on the r.h.s. of Eq. (9) will dominate. This is the case to lowest order for the mid-shelf depocenter off the Eel River, where deposition occurs mainly due to u_w decreasing with greater depth (Traykovski et al. 2000; Scully et al. 2002). But if bed slope rapidly decreases with distance offshore, producing a strongly negative $\partial \alpha/\partial x$, then deposition from a wave-supported gravity flow may be dominated instead by changes in bed slope via the second term on the r.h.s. of Eq. (9). This is case off the Po River, where the depocenter is near the roll-over point on the profile the subaqueous delta, i.e., near the point of the most strongly negative $\partial \alpha/\partial x$ (Friedrichs and Scully, 2007).

Assuming that the depth-dependence of v_c is small, the sensitivity of sediment deposition to spatial variations in bed slope ($\partial \alpha/\partial x$) increases dramatically for current-supported gravity flows in the absence of waves. For the hypothetical case of $v_c \gg u_w$, Eq. (9) reduces to

$$D = \frac{\rho_s R i_{cr}^2 \alpha v_c^3}{g s C_D (1 - \beta^2)^{3/2}} \left\{ -\frac{(1 + 2\beta^2)}{(1 - \beta^2)\alpha} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{R} \right\}. \quad (10)$$

We see from Eq. (10) that current-supported gravity flow deposition is not dependent on absolute depth, and, therefore, deposition due to spatially uniform currents can occur deeper than that due to waves. Keeping in mind that β is proportional to bed slope (α), deposition by current-supported flows will occur where $\partial \alpha/\partial x$ is negative and α is relatively large (as long as β remains less than 1). This optimal combination of negative $\partial \alpha/\partial x$ and large α is likely to occur just downslope of the locations where

bed slope first begins to decrease with depth, i.e., just downslope of regions of maximum α . Current-induced deposition will be further enhanced where bathymetry is embayed (i.e., where $R < 0$).

4. The two-dimensional model

4.1 Model implementation

The two-dimensional implementation of Eqs. (1) – (8) was developed by Scully et al. (2003) and has been applied successfully on the Eel (Scully et al., 2003) and Po (Friedrichs and Scully, 2007) shelves to represent patterns of muddy flood deposit formation in response to wave-supported gravity flows. In this paper we extend the two-dimensional model to include the effect of significant ambient currents by retaining a spatially uniform but temporally varying value for v_c in Eq. (2). When there is sufficient river-delivered sediment available to allow $Ri = Ri_{cr}$, the model solves the aforementioned equations in rectangular coordinates to predict the maximum possible gravity flow velocity and rate of sediment deposition. If insufficient sediment is available and u_{max} exceeds a threshold value (u_{erode}), previously deposited sediment is eroded from the bed until $Ri = Ri_{cr}$. If sufficient sediment is still unavailable, subcritical gravity flows move downslope according to Eq. (1) without depositing sediment (Scully et al., 2003). For all of the model runs presented in this paper, $Ri_{cr} = 1/4$, $C_d = 0.003$ and $u_{erode} = 0.35$ m/s, the same values used for the Po shelf by Friedrichs and Scully (2007).

For the present application, the active model domain covered a region extending along-shore from 11 km northeast of the Waiapu River mouth to 19 km southwest of the river mouth, and from the coastline to offshore near the 170-m isobath of the Ruatoria Indentation (Fig. 1). The domain was composed of 145×127 rectangular element grids, and each grid cell represented an area of about 207 m in the along-shelf direction and 193 m in the across-shelf direction. Unsmoothed bathymetry, which is shown in Figure 1, was provided by NIWA (New Zealand National Institute of Water & Atmospheric Research). The shorelines were digitized from a world coastlines database (<http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/shorelines/shorelines.html>), and the water depth along the shoreline was assigned to be zero. Bathymetry was then smoothed in both the along- and across-shelf directions first via a two-dimensional triangle filter and then by a cubic spline on every seventh grid point. Finally, the shelf slopes in the along- and across-shelf directions were calculated based on the smoothed bathymetry.

The two-dimensional model was applied to the Waiapu shelf for the 12-month period extending from 1 September 2003 to 31 August 2004. This period was chosen to cover both storm and calm weather seasons, to encompass the observations of sediment accumulation collected by Kniskern (2007) and Kniskern et al. (2009), and to overlap the tripod observations reported by Ma et al. (2008). Wave period and height, shelf current speed, and riverine sediment discharge were the required time-varying model inputs. Since the simulation period was longer than the available tripod observations, hindcast data for wave height, wave period, and wind velocity

were derived from the NOAA WAVEWATCH-III global ocean wave model (NWW3). NWW3 is a publicly available, third generation global wave model with a resolution of 1.25° longitude and 1° latitude (Tolman, 2002). NWW3 wave heights then were calibrated based on wave heights inferred from tripod observations by Ma et al. (2008), and NWW3 winds were related to the observed along-shelf currents. The most reliable tripod data were from May to July 2004; the observed waves and currents were all obtained within this time interval from an Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter (ADV) mounted about 40 cm above the seabed on the tripod at the 60-m isobath (see Fig. 1).

4.2 Wave input

Although the NWW3 grid spacing (1.25 by 1 deg) is relatively coarse, the nearest NWW3 node is advantageously located, only 30 km offshore of the Waipua River mouth (Fig. 1). The NWW3 hindcast reported significant wave height (H_{sig}), whereas the two-dimensional model used r.m.s. wave height ($H_{rms} = H_{sig}/2^{1/2}$). To correct for this and also help compensate for other potential systematic differences, the NWW3 wave heights were multiplied by a constant such that the 90th percentile of all NWW3 wave heights reported from May to July 2004 equaled the 90th percentile of all H_{rms} values (H_{rms90}) observed at the 60-m tripod site (Fig. 3a). H_{rms90} was found by Friedrichs and Wright (2004) to be an appropriate statistic for predicting wave-supported gravity flows offshore of a variety of rivers around the globe. A

reasonably strong correspondence was found between observed waves at the tripod and the calibrated NWW3 hindcast with a correlation coefficient of 0.76 (Fig. 3a).

Efforts were made to relate NWW3 hindcast wave periods to those observed at the tripod, but no conclusive relationship was found (the correlation was only 0.06). Other researchers (Trembanis et al. 2007) have similarly found that comparisons between NWW3 hindcasts and observations were much better for wave height than for wave period. Following Friedrichs and Wright (2004), we instead estimated wave periods as a function of wave height for the NWW3 hindcast by assuming

$$T = C \cdot \sqrt{H_{rms}}, \quad (11)$$

in which C is a dimensional constant. Assuming the most reliable observations of wave period from our tripod data were from when waves were large (observed $T = 12$ s when $H_{rms} = 2.5$ m, see Ma et al., 2008), we used $C = 7.6 \text{ s m}^{-1/2}$. Time-varying r.m.s. near-bed orbital velocity amplitude was then predicted throughout the model domain using a spatially uniform wave height (from the calibrated NWW3 hindcast of H_{rms}), spatially uniform wave period (from Eq. (11)), spatially varying local water depth (from the smoothed bathymetry), and linear wave theory.

4.3 Current input

During storms, tidally-averaged currents on the Waiapu shelf were often stronger than wave orbital velocities (Ma et al., 2008). In contrast to the Eel and Po cases, where waves were assumed to dominate during storms, ambient mean currents on the Waiapu shelf could not be neglected in the calculation of u_{max} (see Eq. 2). If

one assumes that the along-shelf current (v_c) dominates the across-shelf current, and that v_c is predominantly driven by the along-shelf wind stress, it follows that

$$v_c \sim [v_{wind} \times (u_{wind}^2 + v_{wind}^2)^{1/2}]^{1/2}, \quad (12)$$

where v_{wind} and u_{wind} are the along- and across-shelf wind speed. The correlation between the observed along-shelf current and the right-hand-side of Eq. (12) using NWW3 hindcast winds for May to July 2004 was a reasonably strong 0.70.

Given this encouraging relationship, the NWW3 winds were converted to along-shelf currents based on a linear regression against Eq. (12), and then the result was multiplied by a constant to ensure that the hindcast currents had the same energy (i.e., sum of the squared current velocities) as the observed v_c (Fig. 3b). Finally, the time-series for along-shelf current velocity was assigned uniformly onto each model grid point without considering energy decay with water depth or possible topographic effects. Note that in the simulations considered here, ambient currents contributed to the carrying capacity of sediment gravity flows, but ambient currents did not advect sediment.

4.4 Sediment input

The model assumed that no pre-existing erodible sediment was available on the seabed at the beginning of each model run and that the only source of sediment input was fine-grained material delivered by the river. The sediment discharge time-series for the Waiapu River was provided by NIWA and was calculated by applying the Waiapu rating curve from Hicks et al. (2004) to the water discharge

measured by the Gisborne District Council. However, the sediment input to the gravity flow model was set to be only 23% of the amount predicted by the rating curve, based on the sediment budget of Kniskern et al (2009). Using ^{210}Pb accumulation rates for the Waiapu shelf between 40-m and 200-m water depth, Kniskern et al. (2009) could account for just 23% of the sediment discharge predicted by Hicks et al. (2004).

Sensible reasons for reducing the fraction of the total sediment load available for gravity flows include the following: (i) The rating curve includes sands, while only fine sediment is transported by the modeled gravity flows. (ii) According to Hicks et al. (2004), the rating curve contains inherent uncertainty on the order of 40% and may overestimate the sediment concentration at high discharge because of the weighting given to concentrations associated with a few very high concentration, extremely high-yield events. (iii) The river gauging station is 20 km upstream from the river mouth. Because of river channel aggradation, the amount of sediment delivered to the Waiapu coastal ocean is likely less than that inferred 20 km upstream. (iv) Some portion of the fine sediment exiting the Waiapu is likely to remain unflocculated, reducing the likelihood of it initially settling near the river mouth. (v) Riverine sediment are dispersed over the Waiapu shelf not only by gravity-driven flow, but also by other mechanisms, such as classical wave-current resuspension, which likely carries significant amount of sediment out of the model domain (Kniskern et al., 2009). (vi) In their application of the two-dimensional gravity flow model to the Po shelf, Friedrichs and Scully (2007) also reduced riverine sediment

input to a fraction of that predicted by the Po rating curve (56% in their case) for analogous reasons.

Sediment was introduced into the model along the coast as a line source. Two distinct line sources were considered, a base case which decreased sediment input linearly both north and south of the river mouth (Fig. 4), and a second case with spatially uniform input all along the model's landward edge. The southern and northern limits of sediment input (and the extent of the model domain) were set to coincide with coastal promontories that are likely to form a natural littoral cell. The methodology here was again consistent with the approach of Friedrichs and Scully (2007), who examined both spatially uniform and spatially varying line sources off the Po. Based on the bulk density of cores reported by Kniskern et al. (2009), a seabed porosity of 0.6 was used here to estimate the ultimate deposit thickness.

4.5 Low and high energy periods

A year-long time-series of waves and currents was generated by applying the methods discussed above to the available NWW3 hindcast. The estimated r.m.s. wave height and along-shelf current velocity from September 2003 to August 2004 are shown in Figures 5a and 5b, based on which the 12-month period can be divided into two portions: 1) a low-energy period (LEP) from early September 2003 to the mid-May 2004, and 2) a high-energy period (HEP) from mid-May to late August 2004. During the LEP, mean r.m.s. wave height and current speed were 0.8 m and 0.08 m/s, respectively, and only one significant sediment-yield event occurred (Fig.

5c). During the HEP, r.m.s. wave height and current speed were 1.3 m and 0.12 m/s on average. Several high discharge events occurred during the HEP, providing abundant sediment to feed gravity-driven flows (Fig. 5c).

Given the r.m.s. wave heights in Figure 5a, the ambient currents in Figure 5b, and the relation for wave period given by Eq. (11), it is straightforward to apply linear wave theory to solve for the time-series of depths at which the strength of the ambient mean current, v_c , first exceeded the r.m.s. amplitude of wave orbital velocity, u_w . Since the strength of the total sediment gravity flow velocity is a simple function of $u_w^2 + v_c^2$ (see Eq. 5), it follows that this depth was also approximately the point at which current-supported gravity flows first dominated wave-supported gravity flows. Figure 5d displays daily median values for this cross-over depth. During energetic periods, u_w commonly exceeded v_c down to about 60-m depth. The median depth at which v_c first exceeded u_w for all times with H_{rms} greater than 2 m in height was $h = 61.8$ m.

5. Base Case Results

5.1 Predicted versus observed gravity flow velocities

With the wave orbital velocity, current speed, and bed slopes known at each grid point, the two-dimensional model solved for across-shelf gravity flow velocity (u_g) as described in Section 4. Modeled u_g at the grid point nearest to the 60-m tripod site in response to calibrated NWW3 forcing was compared with observed u_g in Fig. 6 (using observations from Ma 2009). The observed u_g was defined as the near-bed

across-shelf velocity from the second bin of the downward-looking Pulse Coherent Acoustic Doppler Profiler (~ 43 cm above the bed) minus the free stream across-shelf velocity from the middle bin of the upward-looking Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler (~ 26 m above the bed) for the period of May to July 2004, when the most reliable tripod data were available.

The order of magnitude and frequency of the observed and modeled u_g time series match well (Fig. 6), which is key for successfully reproducing the general nature of the observed sediment deposits during the low- and high-energy hindcasts. The fine-scale time lags between the details of the observed u_g time series and the model calculations forced by NWW3 reflect some discrepancy between the actual ambient waves and currents and those inferred from NWW3 time series.

5.2 Deposition during low-energy period

The low-energy portion of the NWW3 hindcast covered 257 days, about 5 times the half-life of ^7Be . This period was divided into 10 segments, and at the end of each segment the modeled deposit thickness was multiplied by a decay factor so that

$$D_{j+1} = D_j \cdot e^{-\Delta t / t_{1/2}}, \quad (13)$$

where D_j is the deposit thickness predicted at the end of segment j , D_{j+1} is the deposit thickness saved for the next segment $j+1$, Δt is 25.7 days, and $t_{1/2}$ is the half-life of ^7Be (53.3 days). In this way, the final deposit was weighted toward more recent deposition in order to roughly represent the fraction of sediment potentially tagged

with actively decaying ^7Be . Finally, the LEP deposit thickness was normalized by its maximum thickness to represent relative ^7Be activity on a scale of 0 to 1.

Figure 7 displays the predicted ^7Be distribution for the LEP. The modeled high activity sediment was almost entirely deposited at water depths shallower than 80 m, with the maximum activity found along the 40-to-50-m isobath. The focusing of the deposit along the 50-m isobath, at least in the region of the tripods, was likely in response to a local maximum in bed slope just landward of that depth (Fig. 8). As discussed in Section 3.2, greatest deposition by sediment gravity flows under low wave conditions tends to occur where steep slopes first stop increasing with distance offshore. This is because a downslope-directed decrease in bed slope favors sediment flux convergence. Deposition during the LEP was generally closer to shore than during the HEP because the depth-dependent wave orbital velocities were small, and even a relatively low sediment supply overwhelmed the wave-supported gravity flow capacity in relatively shallow water.

Pockets of high activity deposition during the LEP were somewhat patchy, most likely in response to remaining local irregularities in the smoothed bed slope. This is consistent with the results from Kniskern et al. (2009) who examined the penetration depths of Kasten cores and found that muddy sediment deposits landward of the 80-m isobath were patchy. Deposition south of river mouth in particular may have been concentrated by a subtle bathymetric trough that extends southward from the river mouth near the coast and becomes indistinct toward the mid-shelf (Wadman

and McNinch, 2008). Gravity flows are expected to move sediment along the trough, following the local bathymetry (Wadman and McNinch, 2008).

The markers (stars, crosses, triangles) superimposed on the predicted LEP deposition (Fig. 7) indicate sites of observed non-zero ^7Be activities from within the model domain based on the May 2004 survey of Kniskern (2007). The highest observed ^7Be activity (shown as stars) generally matched modeled areas of high activity, while medium (crosses) and relative lower activities (triangles) surrounded the isolated depocenters. Both the model results and observations showed that in the short-term (~ 5 months), sediment delivered by the Waiapu River during periods of low energy was mainly trapped between the 20- and 80-m isobaths.

5.3 Deposition during high-energy period

The result of the 2-D model calculation for the high-energy period (HEP) is displayed in Figure 9. The main HEP depocenter was elongated and occurred southeast of the river mouth, between 60- and 120-m water depths, trending offshore toward the north, oblique to the shelf bathymetric contours. Its locus (Fig. 9) matched remarkably with that of the observed highest long-term accumulation rate as shown in Figure 2b. Across- and along-shelf profiles of deposition for the HEP base case are shown by solid lines in Figures 10a and 10b. The maximum accumulation calculated by the model for the outer shelf depocenter was about 5 cm (Fig. 10a), roughly consistent with the maximum observed long-term accumulation rate of 3.5 cm/yr. In contrast, the HEP base case predicted as much as 10 cm of deposition 8 km southwest

of the river mouth (Fig. 10b), over-predicting the long-term observed annual deposition by more than a factor of two. However, Kniskern et al. (2009) also documented the presence of individual, rapidly emplaced flood layers up to 20 cm thick. Local disagreement between observed and modeled thickness could be the result of several factors, with likely candidates including errors in the assumed distribution of riverine sediment input, non-gravity flow resuspension and transport, and localized errors in model bathymetry.

The location of the obliquely trending depocenter was just downslope of a likewise obliquely trending maximum in bed slope (Fig. 8). Thus deposition on the Waiapu shelf during the HEP was accentuated where bed slope first started decreasing offshore in a manner consistent with that suggested by the $\partial\alpha/\partial x$ term in Eq. (10). During the HEP there was also a tendency for a secondary depocenter to form along the 65-to-70-m depth contour (Fig. 9), presumably just offshore of the point where u_{max} could no longer transport all the available riverine sediment. Thus the mechanism which formed this secondary line of deposition is consistent with the behavior suggested by the $\partial u_w/\partial x$ term in Eq. (9). The line of first deposition was deeper during the HEP than during the LEP because of the greater transport capacity of the more energetic wave orbitals. Finally, the $1/R$ term in Eqs. (9) and (10) also helps explain enhanced deposition at ~70-m and ~120-m depths at the southwest and northeast ends of the main depocenter. Both these areas of concentrated deposition occurred where the bathymetric contours are embayed, favoring lateral transport convergence.

During the HEP simulation, of the 7.5 MT of sediment included in the gravity flow model, about 88% was deposited within the model domain; 10% escaped into the deep sea; 2% went northward out of the model domain; and less than 1% went southward out of the domain. Although this model could not evaluate the fate of sediment that was not associated with gravity flows, model results clearly suggested that it was during high-energy periods that the sediment delivered by the Waiapu River was transported by gravity-driven flows into the long-term shelf depocenter identified by Kniskern et al. (2009).

6. Model sensitivity

6.1 Currents vs. waves

As indicated by Eqs. (9) and (10), currents can compensate for the decay of wave orbital velocity with depth and hence can cause sediment to accumulate farther offshore and in deeper water. The sensitivity of sediment accumulation to current-supported gravity currents was tested by running the 2-D model with and without v_c . Solid and dashed lines in Figures 10(a) and 10(b) display predicted sediment deposition profiles with and without current-supported gravity flows. The across-shelf profile (Fig. 10a) passes through the tripod sites and the northern end of the primary and secondary depocenters in Figure 9. The along-shelf profile Fig. 10b) roughly parallels the 70-m isobath, cutting through the southwest portion of the main depocenter.

With strong currents, the location of greatest deposition was centered around 115 m, with secondary deposition near 65 m (solid line in Fig. 10a). The deeper depocenter, favored more by current-induced deposition, occurred just offshore of a local maximum in bed slope (α) (Fig. 10e), in a region of where α was decreasing offshore (Fig. 10g). This association of current-induced deposition with $\partial\alpha/\partial x < 0$ is consistent with the arguments presented in Section 5.3. Without currents, however, much more sediment was deposited near 65-m depth (dashed line in Fig. 10a), where the decay of wave orbital velocities with depth caused wave-supported gravity currents to first lose their capacity to carry all of the available riverine sediment. Deposition by wave-supported gravity flows is relatively more sensitive to total depth, while deposition by current-supported gravity flows is relatively more sensitive to seabed slope. This is why the wave-induced deposit more closely paralleled the bathymetry (following a pattern in h), while the current-influenced deposit cut diagonally crossed the bathymetry (following a pattern in α).

For the waves only case, the general trend of the along-shelf distribution of deposition (dashed line in Fig. 10b) more closely followed the along-shelf distribution of riverine sediment input (see Fig. 5). In contrast, the along-shelf distribution of deposition for the current-influenced case at ~70-m depth was strongly shifted to the south of the river mouth (solid line in Fig. 10b). This difference can be understood in part by examining the along-shelf distribution of the change in slope with depth (Fig. 10h). At 70-m depth north of the river mouth, $\partial\alpha/\partial x$ is positive, whereas at this depth south of the river mouth $\partial\alpha/\partial x$ is generally negative (Fig. 10h). Since $\partial\alpha/\partial x \geq 0$

favors bypassing by current-supported gravity currents and $\partial\alpha/\partial x < 0$ favors deposition, the current-influenced case at this depth (solid line) has deposition focused to the south. The wave-only case (dashed line) is more sensitive to absolute depth than to changing bed slope, so deposition at 70 m more-or-less mimics the distribution of sediment supply. However there is still a slight displacement of the wave-only case to the south, suggesting at least a minor sensitivity of wave-induced deposition to bed slope.

6.2 Along-shelf curvature of isobaths

Another factor that shifts the along-shelf pattern of deposition away from mirroring the distribution of riverine input is along-shelf curvature of isobaths, i.e., bathymetry with a finite radius of curvature (see Eqs. 8-10). Unlike the influence of the across-shelf profile, along-shelf curvature of isobaths can lead to lateral flux convergence or divergence. One way to evaluate the effect of curving bathymetry is to examine the component of bed slope along our along-shelf transect (Fig. 10f). From the southern end of the along-shelf transect to about 6 km south of the river mouth, the along-transect slope component tends to decrease overall (i.e., $1/R < 0$), favoring gravity flow convergence. In other words, isobaths in that region are generally embayed (see Fig. 9). But from that point northward in Figure 10f, the along-transect slope at 70-m depth increases (the contours are lobate with $1/R > 0$), favoring gravity flow divergence. (Note that at ~115 m, at the site of the offshore depocenter, the contours are embayed once more, favoring convergence – see Fig. 9).

The sensitivity of sediment accumulation to the curvature of isobaths was explicitly tested by re-running the 2-D model for the HEP base case, but with the bed slope in the along-shelf component of the model's rectangular grid set to zero (dot-dashed line in Figs. 10a and 10b). With the bed slope in the direction of the along-shelf transect turned off, the across-shelf distribution of deposition was changed notably in that more sediment was shifted to the shallower depocenter relative to the deeper depocenter (Fig. 10a). This makes sense because the divergent effect of lobate contours was no longer felt at 65 m, and the convergent effect of embayed contours was no longer felt at 115 m. With the along-shelf bed slope set to zero, the along-shelf shelf distribution of deposition at ~70 m was much smoother (Fig. 10b), indicating that much of the patchiness in the base run was likely to do local divergence and convergence associated with bathymetric curvature. In comparing Figures 10b and 10d it is clear that local changes in along-shelf slope are correlated to local changes in deposit thickness.

6.3 Along-shelf distribution of sediment input

To test the sensitivity of model calculations to the along-shelf input of riverine sediment, the 2-D model was also run using a line source that spread sediment input equally along the coast with the same total sediment load as the base model run (dashed line in Figs. 10c and 10d). Except for the region 10 to 15 km south of the river mouth, the relative thickness and spatial distribution of the resulting deposit was remarkably similar to the base case. This was an encouraging result, because the

original along-shelf distribution of riverine sediment input (see Fig. 5) was relatively arbitrary and unconstrained by observations. The deposit resulting from a uniform line source was proportionally thinner from 8 km south to 5 km north of the river mouth because the uniform line source provided less riverine sediment than the base case in that region. The only major change was between 11 and 16 km south of the river mouth, where the locally increased riverine supply combined with embayed contours led to a notably thicker deposit.

A key result was that even with uniform sediment input, the main depocenter created by the current-influenced gravity flow model was still in the same general location and was still oblique to the bathymetry, consistent with the observations of Kniskern et al. (2009). This supported the conclusion that subtle aspects of shelf bathymetry played a dominant role in controlling the location and shape of the depocenter.

6.4 Total sediment input

The appropriate factor by which to adjust the sediment rating curve for the base model run was weakly constrained. The base run adopted 23% of the total predicted sediment delivery, mainly based on the sediment budget of Kniskern et al. (2009) (see discussion in Section 4.4). To illustrate the impact of varying the total amount of sediment input, another model run was conducted with double the original amount of sediment and the same wave and current conditions as the base case.

With double the riverine sediment load, deposition increased proportionally more in shallow water than in deep water (Fig. 10c), because the depth at which the greater sediment supply overwhelmed the capacity of wave-supported gravity flows became shallower. Along the 70-m along-shelf profile, the thickness of the deposition more or less doubled (Fig. 10d), although the base-case peak in deposition 8 km southwest of the river mouth became less dominant. This is consistent with a greater role for wave-supported gravity currents at shallow depths ($< \sim 80$ m) as sediment load was increased. Current-supported gravity currents presumably remained dominant in deeper water, because the shelf-oblique mud deposit remained prominent.

Overall, doubling the sediment input relative to the base case caused the model to significantly overpredict the observed thickness sediment deposition on the Waiapu shelf. Nonetheless, the general spatial distribution of deposition remained almost the same. This provides a further support of our main conclusion that shelf bathymetry and associated bed slope strongly influenced the location and shape of the depocenter off the Waiapu River.

7. Summary and Conclusions

The Waiapu system provides a prototype for investigating the relative importance of wave- versus current-supported gravity flows on shelf deposition. Such flows are likely to be recognized in the future on many other energetic shelves. In this paper, the two-dimensional gravity-flow model developed by Scully et al. (2003) was applied to the Waiapu shelf by accounting for not only maintenance by waves but also

640 by wind-driven currents. The purpose was to evaluate the likely significance that
641 sediment gravity flows, especially current-supported flows, played in forming muddy
642 shelf deposits. Additional focus was placed on contrasting deposition during high
643 versus low energy periods and on better understanding the relative roles of local water
644 depth versus spatially varying bed slope in determining the location of the deposits.

645 The model and its interpretation was based on analytical theory for
646 critically-stratified gravity flows supported by ambient waves and currents as
647 described by Wright et al. (2001) and as further extended in this paper. Basic model
648 parameters, including the Richardson number (0.25), the bottom drag coefficient
649 (0.003), and the critical velocity for seabed erosion (0.35 m/s) were consistent with
650 those used previously for the Eel (Scully et al., 2003) and Po (Friedrichs and Scully,
651 2007) shelves. To account for support of gravity flows by wind-driven currents, winds
652 hindcast by the NOAA WAVEWATCH III were correlated to shelf current speed.
653 Tripod data collected at 60-m depth from May to July 2004 were used to calibrate the
654 WAVEWATCH III forcing, including wave heights and wind-induced along-shelf
655 currents.

656 The model successfully reproduced the main depositional features of the
657 riverine sediment on the Waiapu shelf by representing both the magnitude and
658 location of the observed muddy deposit. During the fair weather season from
659 September 2003 to May 2004, sediment tended to be trapped between the water
660 depths of 20 and 80 m, consistent with the distribution of ^7Be in May 2004 cores as
661 reported by Kniskern (2007). During the storm season in the months of May through

662 August 2004, riverine sediment was transported further offshore, because during this
663 time stronger waves and currents had an increased capacity to carry sediment. The
664 resulting shelf-oblique deposit was consistent with the long-term (100 yr)
665 accumulation pattern as indicated by ^{210}Pb (Kniskern et al., 2009). Analytical theory
666 and numerical results revealed that riverine sediment supply, marine forcing (waves
667 and currents), and bathymetry (depth, slope and along-shelf curvature) were the key
668 factors that influenced patterns of shelf deposition.

669 Currents and waves were shown to play distinct roles in sediment transport
670 and distribution of resulting deposits. Currents tended to dominate the sediment
671 gravity flows in water depths that exceeded about 60 m, where waves became
672 secondary due to rapid decay of orbital velocities. Where waves dominated
673 gravity-driven deposition, the deposits tended to occur at shallower water depths and
674 parallel to the isobaths. This pattern occurred because transport convergence due to
675 waves was driven by the strong dependence of near-bed orbital velocity on absolute
676 depth. In contrast, current-supported gravity flows were not a function of absolute
677 depth and thus could compensate for the decay of wave orbital velocity and move
678 sediment further offshore. Instead, current-supported flows were highly sensitive to
679 the slope of the seabed, and deposition by current-supported gravity currents occurred
680 where bed slope decreased with distance offshore and where isobaths were embayed.

681 Sensitivity tests revealed the relative importance of the magnitude and
682 along-shelf distribution of sediment input. The base case assumed 23% of the river's
683 load was available for shelf deposition (based on the budget of Kniskern et al. 2009)

and that a maximum in sediment input occurred directly offshore of the river mouth. Doubling the sediment load or using a uniform along-shelf sediment distribution locally changed the deposit thickness, but the location and oblique trend of the mid- to outer-shelf depocenter remained similar to observations. The relatively insensitivity of the depocenter to sediment load was encouraging since the details of riverine input were poorly constrained.

Sediment transport across the Waiapu shelf resulted from a combination of both wave- and current-supported gravity flows. However, we conclude that the longer term (~100 yr), shelf-oblique mud deposit found between the 60- and 120-m isobaths mainly reflects current-supported gravity flows and their response to local variations in seabed slope and bathymetric curvature. Under high-energy conditions, wave-supported flows over the inner shelf transition to current-dominated support as the flows move progressively into deeper water.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Study area of the Waiapu continental shelf (with bathymetry), northern island of the New Zealand. Two tripods (from Ma et al., 2008) at 40-m and 60-m isobaths are shown as triangles. The domain of 2-D gravity-driven flow model is shown as the bold square, which covers an area of $\sim 29 \text{ km} \times 25 \text{ km}$. The location of the NOAA WAVEWATCH-III global model node used for wind and wave forcing is shown as a square.

Figure 2. Waiapu shelf coring locations and resulting sediment accumulation patterns based on ^7Be (upper, from Kniskern, 2007) and ^{210}Pb (lower, from Kniskern et al., 2009). ^7Be indicates that sedimentation over 6-months previous to May 2004 was mainly confined to depths shallower than 80 m, but ^{210}Pb shows a high long-term (100 year) sedimentation rate between the 60-m and 120-m isobaths in a pattern oriented oblique to the isobaths. (Also shown in the lower figure are fault and fold lines delineating the Waiapu River shelf basin from Lewis et al. (2004)).

Figure 3. a) Root mean square wave height (H_{rms}) and b) along-shelf mean current velocity from ADV tripod observations at 60-m isobath (black), along with calibrated NOAA WAVEWATCH III ocean wave model hindcasts of a) H_{rms} and b) current velocity (gray).

848 Figure 4. Along-shelf distribution of fluvial sediment input off the Waiapu River
 849 mouth for the base-case model run.

850

851 Figure 5. Model inputs during September 2003 to May 2004 low energy period (LEP)
 852 and during May to September 2004 high energy period (HEP): a) Root mean square
 853 wave height (H_{rms}) and b) current velocity (v_c) from calibrated NWW3 wave and wind
 854 hindcasts; and c) sediment discharge (Q_s) from the Waiapu River based on 0.23 times
 855 the rating curve prediction from Hicks et al. (2004) using water discharge provided by
 856 the Gisborne District Council. d) Daily median values for the depth at which model v_c
 857 first exceeded the r.m.s. amplitude of near-bed wave orbital velocity (u_w).

858

859 Figure 6. Time series of gravity-driven flow at the 60-m tripod site from May to July
 860 2004. The solid line is observed velocity; the dashed line is from the two-dimensional
 861 model forced by NWW3 output. The observed gravity-driven velocity is defined as
 862 the across-shelf velocity observed 43 cm above the bed minus the across-shelf
 863 velocity observed 26 m above the bed (data from Ma, 2009). Both time series were
 864 passed through a 40 hour low-pass filter.

865

866 Figure 7. Modeled sediment deposition thickness during the low-energy portion (LEP)
 867 from September 2003 to May 2004. Also shown is the smoothed bathymetry used to
 868 calculate bed slope. The superimposed symbols (also shown in Fig. 2a) are observed
 869 non-zero ^7Be activities from Kniskern (2007) (triangle = low, cross = medium, star =

high) and a dashed line from Kniskern (2007) delineating the inferred offshore extent of observed ^7Be . Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods

Figure 8. Contour plot of the absolute value of bed slope calculated from the smoothed bathymetry (also shown). Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods.

Figure 9. Modeled sediment deposition thickness during the high-energy portion (HEP) from May to August 2004. Also shown are smoothed bathymetric contours (in black) and the Kniskern et al. (2009) observed 3 cm/year sediment accumulation contours (in dark green) from Figure 2b. The two straight grey lines are along- and across-shelf profiles used in Figures 10 and 11. Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods.

Figure 10. Comparisons of base case deposition (solid line) to (a) across- and (b) along-shelf deposition with no current (dashed line) and with zero along-shelf slope (dash-dotted line), and to (c) across- and (d) along-shelf deposition with uniform sediment input (dashed line) and with doubled sediment input (dash-dotted line). Component of bed slope in the direction of (e) across- and (f) along-shelf transect. Across-shelf gradient in bed slope ($\partial\alpha/\partial x$) along the (g) across- and (h) along-shelf transect. Locations of profiles are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 1. Study area of the Waiapu continental shelf (with bathymetry), northern island of the New Zealand. Two tripods (from Ma et al., 2008) at 40-m and 60-m isobaths are shown as triangles. The domain of 2-D gravity-driven flow model is shown as the bold square, which covers an area of $\sim 29 \text{ km} \times 25 \text{ km}$. The location of the NOAA WAVEWATCH-III global model node used for wind and wave forcing is shown as a square.

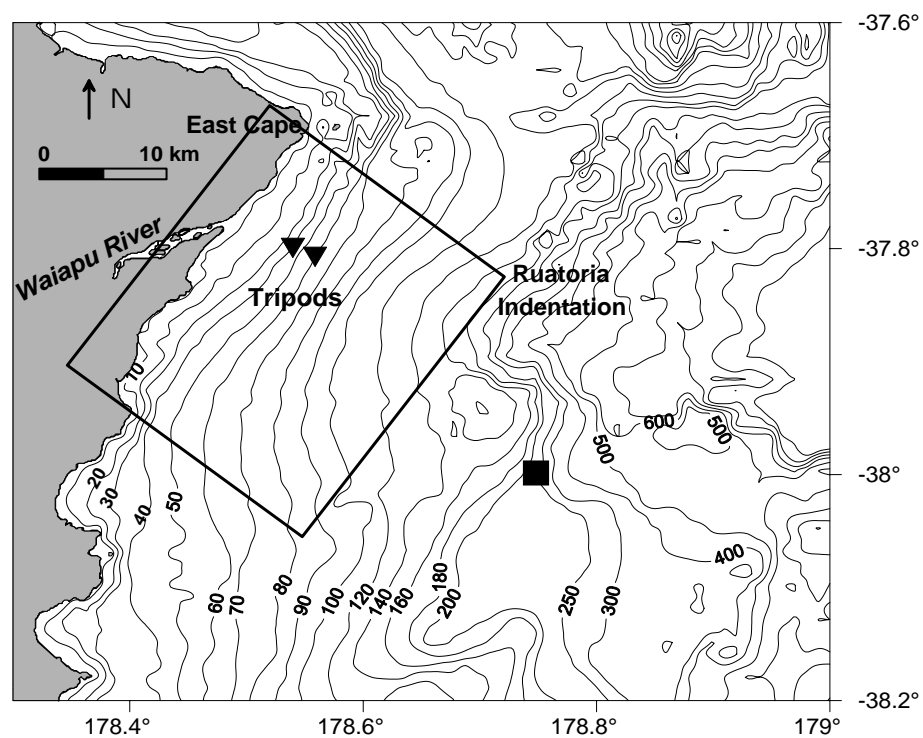


Figure 2. Waiapu shelf coring locations and resulting sediment accumulation patterns based on ^7Be (upper, from Kniskern, 2007) and ^{210}Pb (lower, from Kniskern et al., 2009). ^7Be indicates that sedimentation over 6-months previous to May 2004 was mainly confined to depths shallower than 80 m, but ^{210}Pb shows a high long-term (100 year) sedimentation rate between the 60-m and 120-m isobaths in a pattern oriented oblique to the isobaths. (Also shown in the lower figure are fault and fold lines delineating the Waiapu River shelf basin from Lewis et al. (2004)).

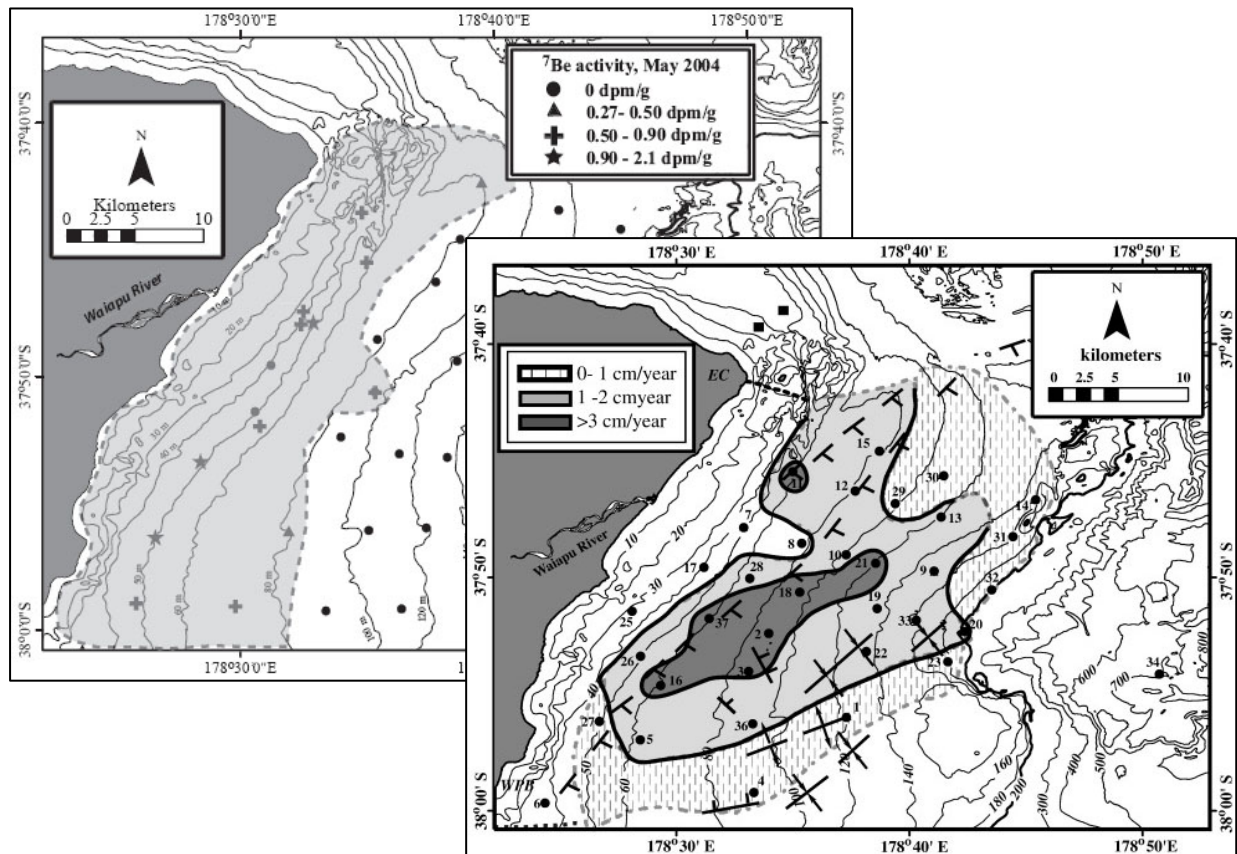


Figure 3. a) Root mean square wave height (H_{rms}) and b) along-shelf mean current velocity from ADV tripod observations at 60-m isobath (black), along with calibrated NOAA WAVEWATCH III ocean wave model hindcasts of a) H_{rms} and b) current velocity (gray).

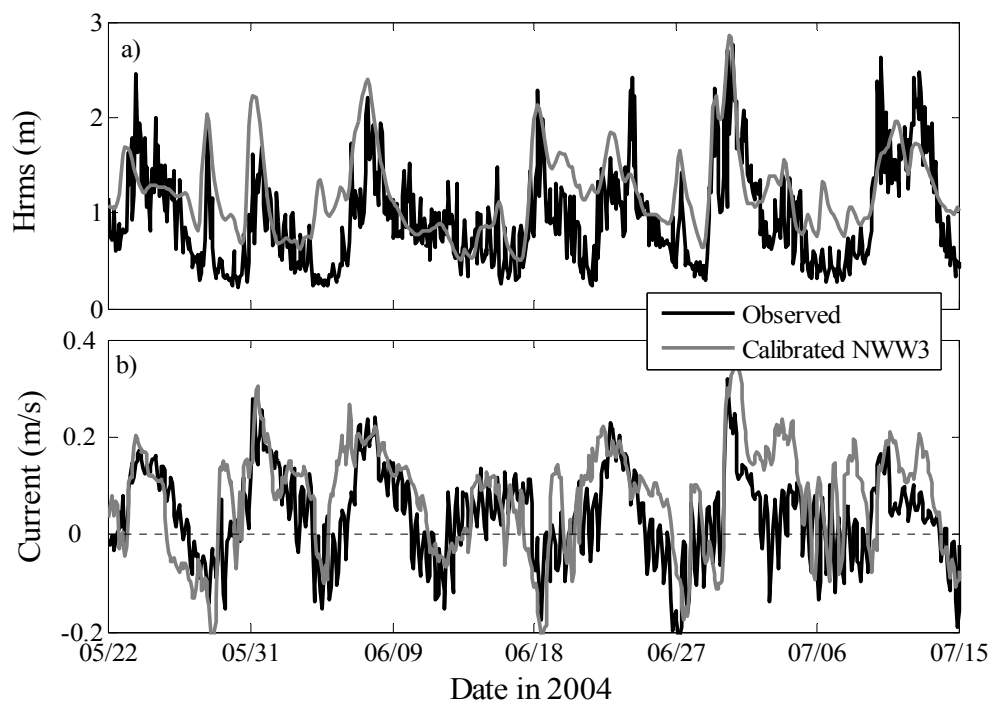


Figure 4. Along-shelf distribution of fluvial sediment input off the Waiapu River mouth for the base-case model run.

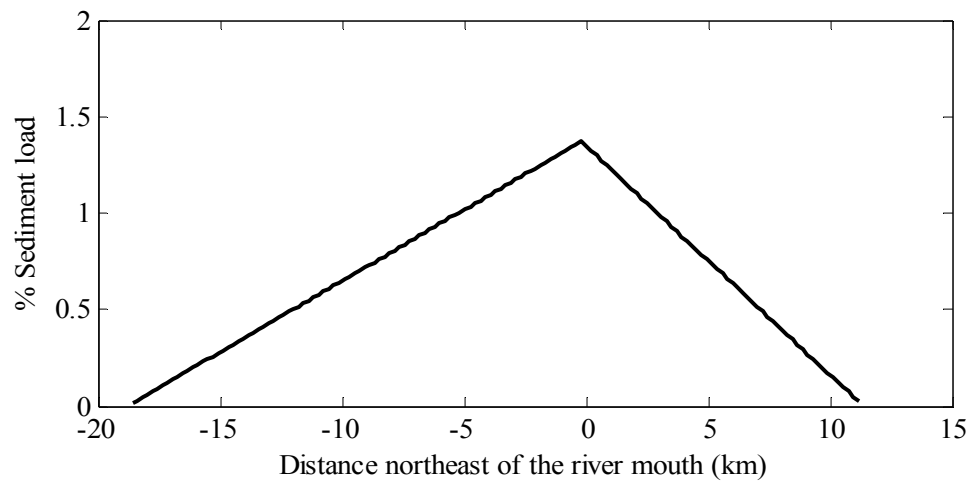


Figure 5. Model inputs during September 2003 to May 2004 low energy period (LEP) and during May to September 2004 high energy period (HEP): a) Root mean square wave height (H_{rms}) and b) current velocity (v_c) from calibrated NWW3 wave and wind hindcasts; and c) sediment discharge (Q_s) from the Waiapu River based on 0.23 times the rating curve prediction from Hicks et al. (2004) using water discharge provided by the Gisborne District Council. d) Daily median values for the depth at which model v_c first exceeded the r.m.s. amplitude of near-bed wave orbital velocity (u_w).

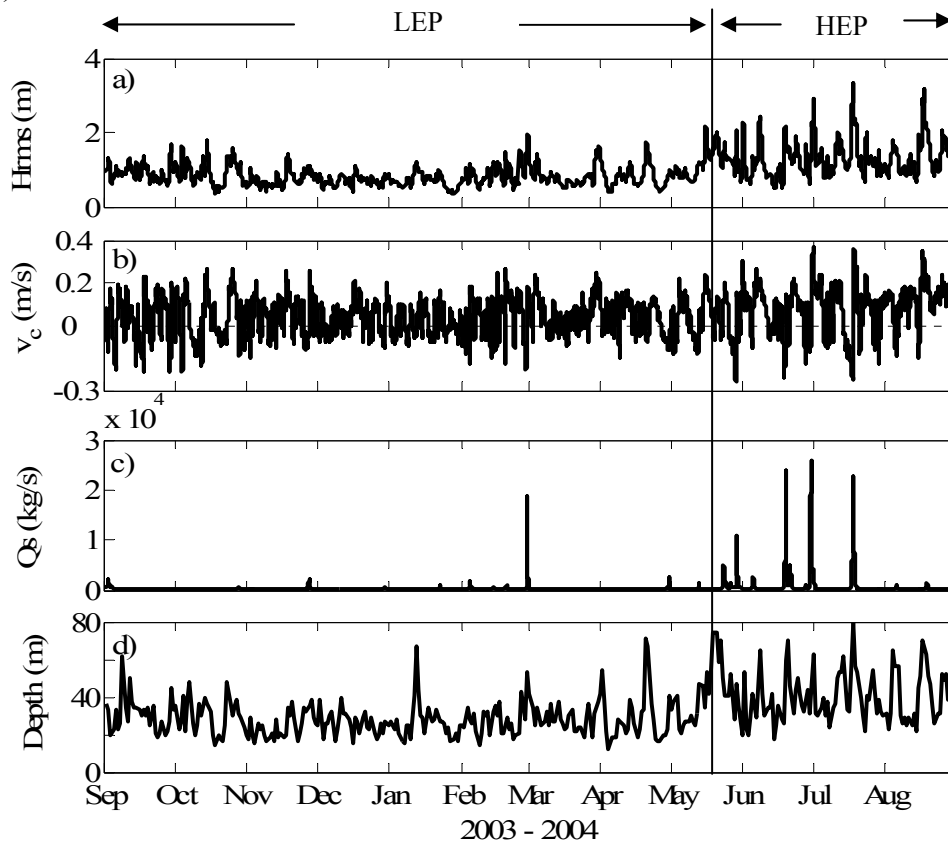


Figure 6. Time series of gravity-driven flow at the 60-m tripod site from May to July 2004. The solid line is observed velocity; the dashed line is from the two-dimensional model forced by NWW3 output. The observed gravity-driven velocity is defined as the across-shelf velocity observed 43 cm above the bed minus the across-shelf velocity observed 26 m above the bed (data from Ma, 2009). Both time series were passed through a 40 hour low-pass filter.

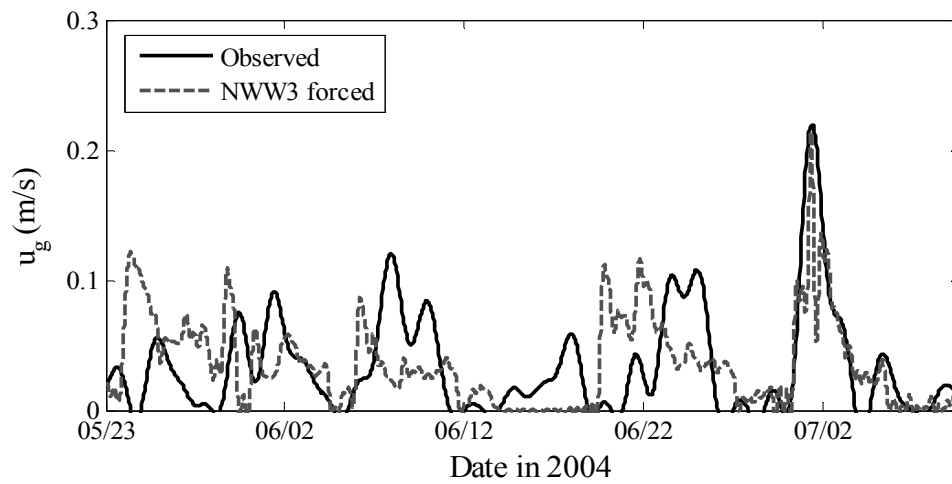


Figure 7. Modeled sediment deposition thickness during the low-energy portion (LEP) from September 2003 to May 2004. Also shown is the smoothed bathymetry used to calculate bed slope. The superimposed symbols (also shown in Fig. 2a) are observed non-zero ^7Be activities from Kniskern (2007) (triangle = low, cross = medium, star = high) and a dashed line from Kniskern (2007) delineating the inferred offshore extent of observed ^7Be . Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods

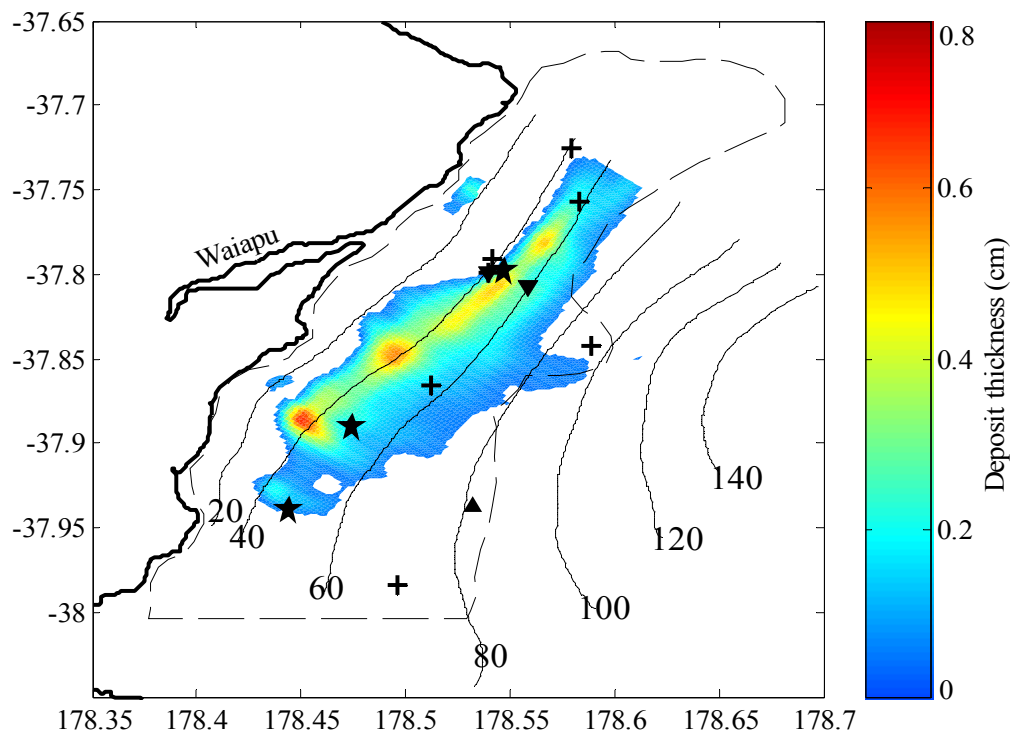


Figure 8. Contour plot of the absolute value of bed slope calculated from the smoothed bathymetry (also shown). Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods.

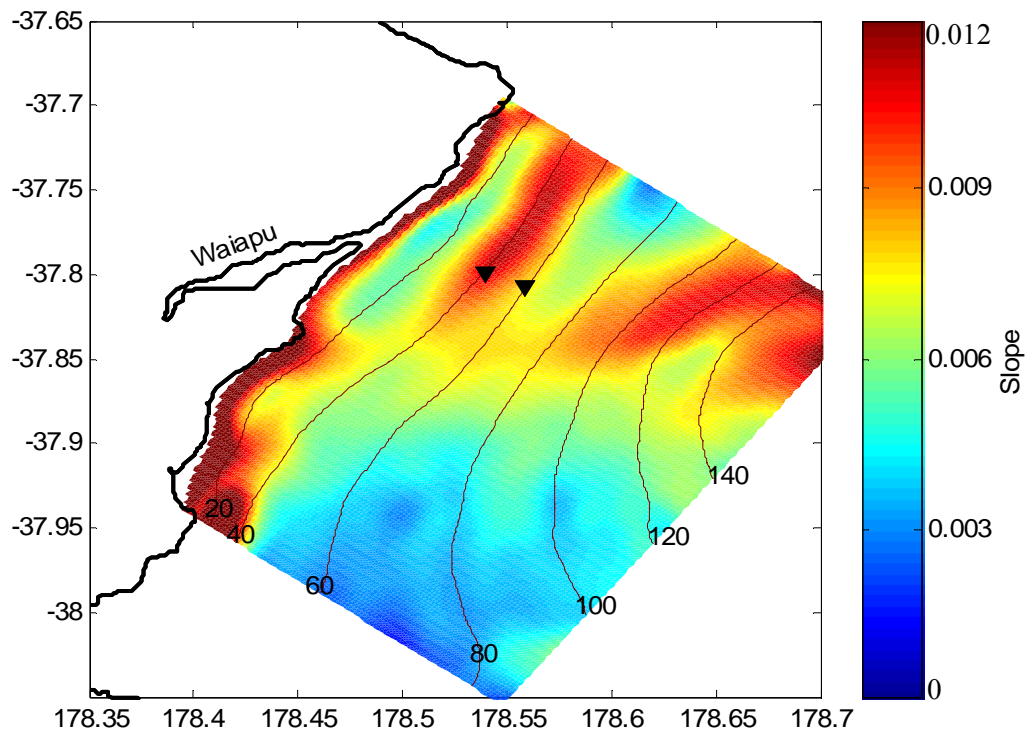


Figure 9. Modeled sediment deposition thickness during the high-energy portion (HEP) from May to August 2004. Also shown are smoothed bathymetric contours (in black) and the Kniskern et al. (2009) observed 3 cm/year sediment accumulation contours (in dark green) from Figure 2b. The two straight grey lines are along- and across-shelf profiles used in Figure 10. Inverted triangles indicate locations of Ma et al. (2008) tripods.

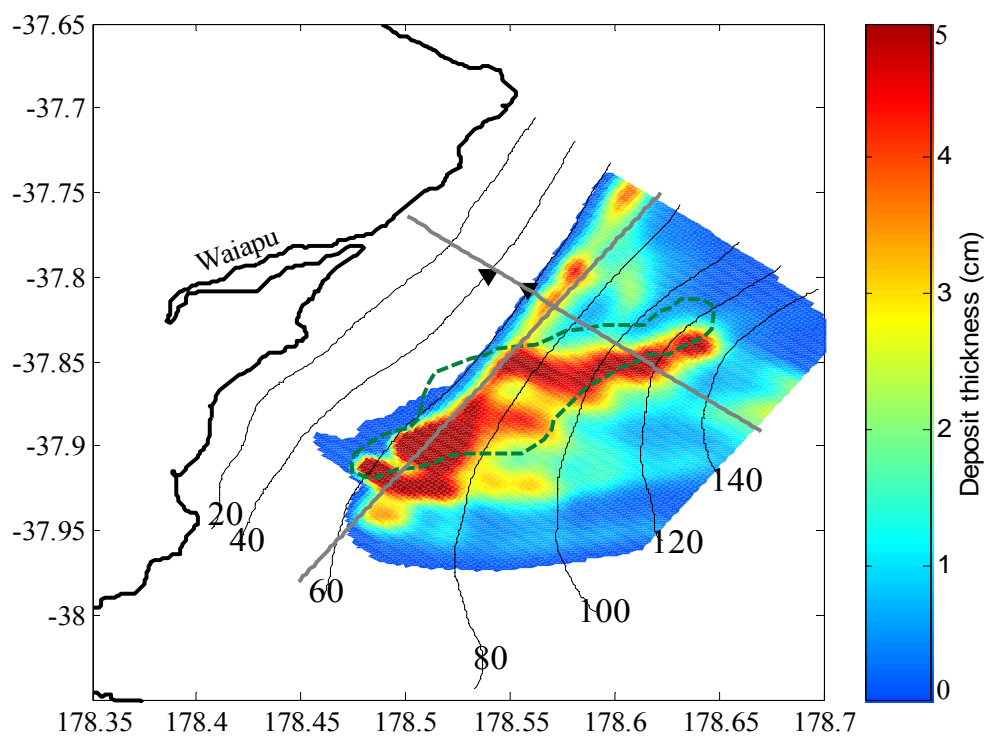


Figure 10. Comparisons of base case deposition (solid line) to (a) across- and (b) along-shelf deposition with no current (dashed line) and with zero along-shelf slope (dotted line), and to (c) across- and (d) along-shelf deposition with uniform sediment input (dashed line) and with doubled sediment input (dotted line). Component of bed slope in the direction of (e) across- and (f) along-shelf transect. Across-shelf gradient in bed slope ($\partial\alpha/\partial x$) along the (g) across- and (h) along-shelf transect. Locations of profiles are shown in Figure 9.

