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Two-dimensional modeling of fine sediment transport with mixed sediment and consolidation: Application to the Gironde Estuary, France.

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1. Introduction

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2 Located in the southwest of France, the Gironde Estuary is considered as the largest estuary in Western 3 Europe (180 km in length and 20 km wide, Fig. 1). In the lower and central areas, the Gironde fluvial-4 estuarine system is characterized by a pronounced turbidity maximum zone (TMZ) that plays an 5 important role in the sediment transport and morphodynamic of the study area (Jalón-Rojas et al., 2015; Sottolichio & Castaing, 1999). In such a highly turbid estuary (1-10 g/L near the bed), the maintenance 6 of the navigation channel is an important issue which arises with the growth of the ship capacity and 7 8 the predominance of maritime transport. Under this context, Grand Port Maritime of Bordeaux 9 (GPMB) has funded the Gironde XL 3D project, with the support of the European Union (EU). This 10 project aims to develop numerical tools to safely accommodate larger ships by better anticipating 11 channel maintenance requirements and operations. For both objectives, hydrodynamic and sediment 12 transport models are needed over different time scales. On the one hand, the model should be able to 13 predict in real time water levels, flow recirculation and concentrations of suspended particulate matter 14 (SPM) over short periods of time (36 hours) in order to maintain a safe under keel clearance for the 15 ship navigation for given hydrological conditions. On the other hand, the annual time-scale must be 16 considered for channel maintenance operations. 17 Over the years, several numerical models of the Gironde Estuary have been developed. The models can 18 be grouped according to their usage with the first group mainly dedicated to hydrodynamics (Denot et 19 al., 2000; Huybrechts et al., 2012; Laborie et al., 2014). The second group analyzes the turbidity 20 maximum dynamics via three-dimensional models with a fixed bed configuration (Cancino & Neves, 21 1999; Li et al., 1994; Sottolichio et al., 2001, Diaz et al., 2018, van Maanen & Sottolichio, 2018). The 22 last group focuses on two-dimensional, depth-averaged models (2DH) of sediment transport and bed 23 evolution (Chini, 2007; Huybrechts & Villaret, 2013; Van, 2012; Villaret et al., 2011). Huybrechts and 24 Villaret (2013) simulated a 5 year morphodynamic evolution using three sand classes, while Villaret et 25 al. (2011) and Van (2012) did numerical simulations considering cohesive sediment and bed consolidation. 26 27 The mouth of the estuary is mainly composed of sand (> 90%) while a sand-mud mixture is osberved 28 in the intermediate estuary (75 % of mud upstream the P2 station on Fig. 1 according to the GPMB). In 29 the former area, some migrating sand banks also are observed (Kapsimalis et al., 2004). A 2DH modeling approach is selected here as a good compromise between computational cost and hydro-30 31 sedimentary processes. Compared to previous works (Huybrechts & Villaret, 2013; Van, 2012), a sand-32 mud approach is chosen in order to better reproduce the variability of the bed composition. In 33 consequence, even if the model will also be used to predict bed evolution, this paper focuses on the 34 development and the validation of a hydro-sedimentary model. In this way, the model must provide 35 reliable predictions of water levels, current velocities, and SPM concentrations to further set up a 36 Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) ship squat model (Ali et al., 2018). To the best of the authors 37 knowledge, few models combining mixed sediment and consolidation processes have been applied for the Gironde Estuary. 38 39 This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 the main features of the Gironde Estuary are briefly 40 presented. In Section 3, the hydro-sedimentary mathematical model and its numerical solution are introduced. In Section 4, numerical model calibration and validation are done for different hydrological 41 conditions using measurements of water level, current velocity, salinity, and suspended-sediment 42 43 concentration collected during the project. In Section 5, a sensitivity analysis for sediment parameters 44 is done to improve the knowledge and the prediction of suspended-sediment concentrations in the 45 Gironde Estuary. Ongoing studies also are discussed in the latter section.

2. Study area

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47 The Gironde Estuary is a macrotidal and convergent estuary with a tidal range varying from 1.5 m 48 during neap tides to 5.5 m during spring tides at the estuary mouth (Fig. 1). The propagation of the tide 49 along the estuary induces an amplification of tidal waves and an asymmetry in the rise and fall of the 50 water level with values of 4 h and 8 h 25 min, respectively. The limit of the tide propagation is located 51 about 170 km upstream of the estuary mouth. Dordogne River and Garonne River contributions to the freshwater discharge are estimated to 35% and 65%, respectively (Sottolichio, 1999). For 2018, the 52 53 total daily river discharge varied from 133 to 5560m³/s-1 during low and high river discharges periods, 54 respectively. The annual volume of freshwater delivered to the sea is approximately 2.5x1010m³. The 55 highest velocities are observed in the navigation channel for the intermediate estuary and on the side 56 channel for the lower estuary. Near the bottom, average current velocities are approximately equal to 57 0.75 m/s-1 during spring tides and never exceed 0.5m/s-1 during neap tides (Castaing, 1981). 58 The Gironde Estuary is considered the largest estuary in Western Europe, with the width varying from 59 20 km at the estuary mouth to 3 km for the narrowest sections and with length of 70 km from the Bay 60 of Biscay to the confluence of the Dordogne and Garonne rivers. Based on the bed composition, the 61 estuary can be decomposed into 3 zones comprising (i) a sandy facies in the estuary mouth; (ii) a mixed facies dominated by mud (primarily composed of clays) along the central part, and (iii) a fluvial 62 63 estuary, in the most upstream parts, characterized by the presence of sand, pebbles, and gravel (Mélières & Martin, 1969; Jalón-Rojas et al., 2015). 64 65 Fine suspended-sediment observed in the Gironde Estuary are mainly characterized (> 90%) by 66 sediment diameters smaller than 16 µm (Jouanneau & Latouche, 1981). A large part of these fine 67 sediment composes a pronounced Turbidity Maximum Zone (TMZ) with concentrations ranging 68 between 1 and 10 g/Ll-1 (Sottolichio & Castaing, 1999). The TMZ formation is mainly due to the tidal

- 69 asymmetry and partly to the vertical density gradient which maintains suspended sediment in the TMZ
- 70 (Allen, 1972; Castaing, 1981; Sottolichio et al., 2001). Its location along the estuary migrates between
- 71 Portets and off the estuary mouth depending on hydrological conditions (Castaing, 1981; Jalón-Rojas et
- 72 al., 2015).

73 **3.** Materials and methods

- 74 1.1. Mathematical models
- 75 Hydrodynamics processes are simulated using the continuity and momentum equations solve as the
- 76 shallow water equations. This model includes parameterizations for the diffusion term and bottom
- 77 friction. For further details, see Santoro et al. (2017). Bed composition is considered as a mixture of
- 78 two sediment classes (sand and mud), characterized by their fraction and properties, such as the grain
- 79 size, the settling velocity, and the concentration. The depth-averaged sediment concentration equation
- 80 for suspended sediment transport is computed as follows:

$$81 \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + V \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{h} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(h \varepsilon_x \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(h \varepsilon_y \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} \right) \right] + \frac{E - D}{h}$$
(1)

- 82 where C is the depth-averaged concentration of the size class of sediment, in kg/m^3 , U and V are the
- 83 depth-averaged velocity component along the x and y directions, respectively, in m/s, h is the water
- depth in m, ε_x and ε_y are the diffusion coefficients along the x and y directions, respectively, in m²/s. In
- 85 Eq. 1, the net sediment flux equals the summation of sediment erosion flux E, $kg/s/m^2$, and sediment
- 86 deposition flux D, kg/s/m², computed according to the Parthenadies (1965) and the Krone (1962)
- 87 formulations, respectively.
- 88 The bed is discretized with a fixed number of layers in which each layer thickness and sand and mud
- 89 classes are initialized at time t = 0. The state of consolidation is reckoned through a linear relationship
- 90 between the critical shear stress for erosion of mud (0.5 < τ_{ce} < 1.5 N/m²) and the mud concentration of

each layer (75 < C_{mud} < 500 g/L). Erosion constants, E_0 , are set constant for all layers. The critical shear stress for erosion (τ_{ce}) and the erosion rate are computed according to the mud fraction (f_m) (Waeles et al., 2005). To consider the influence of mixed sediments on bed properties, the authors compute erosion rates for mud (E_m) and sand (E_s) separately and depending to the regime type (cohesive, non-cohesive, or mixed). For non-cohesive (f_m < 30%) and cohesive (f_m > 50%) regimes, different formulations for the critical shear stress for erosion are used accounting for the sediment type (Eq. 2).

$$97 E = f \cdot E_0 \cdot T^a (2)$$

Where depending on the sediment type (mud or sand), E_s and E_m are the erosion rates of sand and mud, g_s kg/m²/s, f_s is the proportion of sand or mud, between 0 and 1, E_{0s} and E_{0m} are the erosion constants of sand or mud, respectively, kg/m²/s, $T = (\tau_b - \tau_{ce})/\tau_{ce}$ with τ_b the bottom shear stress, in kg/m/s², τ_{ce} the critical shear stress for erosion, and g_s is a constant equal to 0.5. For the mixed regime (30% < f_m <

$$E_{s} = (1 - f_{m}) \left(E_{0s} + \frac{E_{0m} - E_{0s}}{f_{m,crit*} - f_{m,crit}} \left(f_{m} - f_{m,crit} \right) \right) T^{a + \frac{1 - a}{f_{m,crit*} - f_{m,crit}} \left(f_{m} - f_{m,crit} \right)$$
(3)

$$E_{m} = f_{m} \left(E_{0s} + \frac{E_{0m} - E_{0s}}{f_{m,crit*} - f_{m,crit}} \left(f_{m} - f_{m,crit} \right) \right) T^{a + \frac{1 - a}{f_{m,crit*} - f_{m,crit}} \left(f_{m} - f_{m,crit} \right)}$$
(4)

Deposition fluxes of sand and mud are computed by including the deposition probabilities for each fraction in the Krone equation (Eq. 5). For both classes, the settling velocity W_s is set to a constant equal to 7.5 10^{-4} m/s. Following Le Hir et al. (2001) and van Maanen and Sottolichio (2018), a high critical shear velocity for deposition of mud is applied ($u_{cd}^* = 10$ m/s). Sand and mud suspensions can, thus, occur during the whole tidal cycle.

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$$D = \begin{cases} W_s C[(1 - \frac{u^*}{u^*_{cd}})^2] & \text{if } u^* < u^*_{cd} \\ D = 0 & \text{if } u^* > u^*_{cd} \end{cases}$$
 (5)

111 Where u^* is the shear velocity, m/s. Consolidation processes are accounted for with an iso-112 concentration multi-layer consolidation model for mixed sediment (Villaret & Walther, 2008; Villaret et al., 2011) that assumes that the vertical flux of sediment between layers is proportional to the sediment 113 114 mass in each layer, via the use of mass transfer coefficients. This approach was chosen to consider the 115 sediment as a mixture in bed consolidation and differs from previous studies which include bed consolidation using the Gibson theory (Santoro et al., 2017; Thiebot et al., 2011; Van, 2012) with mud 116 only. The bed is discretized with 20 layers characterized by a sediment concentration, a thickness, and a 117 118 mass transfer coefficient set empirically to reproduce consolidation. During the simulation, only layer 119 thicknesses vary and the mass balance computed for each layer is computed using Eq. 6.

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$$\frac{M_i(t + \Delta t) - M(t)}{\Delta t} = F_i(t) - F_{i+1}(t) = -a_i M_i(t)$$
(6)

- where *i* is the layer number, M_i is the mass per unit surface, kg/m², F_i is the sediment flux at the lower boundary of the *i*-th layer, kg/s/.m, and a_i is the mass transfer coefficient s⁻¹.
- 123 *1.2. Model setup*
- 124 Numerical computations done using the open source Telemac-Mascaret are system 125 (www.opentelemac.org). Hydrodynamics are computed using the module TELEMAC-2D which solves 126 the shallow water equations using the finite element method (Hervouet, 2007). This module is coupled 127 at each time step with the module SISYPHE which solves the sediment transport and the bed evolution 128 for both suspended and bedload transport processes. In the current study, only suspended sediment 129 transport processes are considered. The domain is discretized with an unstructured triangular mesh of 130 27,000 nodes that spreads over an area of 2,200 km2. The numerical domain extends over the entire 131 estuary from the Bay of Biscay to the limit of the tide influence 170 km upstream from the estuary 132 mouth. The study focuses on the intermediate estuary at the confluence of the Dordogne and Garonne 133 rivers (Fig. 1). Inside this study area, cell lengths vary from 180 m and up to 300 m. Bathymetric data

134 from 2009-2016 collected by the national hydrographic service (SHOM) and the GPMB has been 135 interpolated on the mesh grid. The computational time requires 2 h to simulate 50 d with a time step of 10 s (using a work station with 12 cores of 2.4 GHz and 48 Go Ram). 136 137 Offshore boundary conditions are imposed from North East Atlantic (NEA) tidal atlases (Pairaud et al., 138 2008) including 46 harmonic constituents for better predictions of water levels (Huybrechts et al., 2012) and upstream boundary conditions are imposed from daily river discharges for both main 139 tributaries. Mean sea level is obtained from the annual average of water levels collected at the Verdon 140 141 station (Fig. 1) and defined at a value of 0.442 m. This latter value is then applied to the maritime 142 boundary with also a constant salinity of 35 g/L and null values for the SPM. At upstream boundaries, fresh water is imposed while SPM values are taken from Jalón-Rojas et al. (2015). 143 144 The bottom friction is parameterized over 10 zones with a Strickler formulation, with roughness coefficients varying from 40 to 100 m1/3/s-1, obtained from the calibration of water levels and currents 145 (Huybrechts et al., 2012 and Ross et al., 2017). The lower value corresponds to sandy areas of the 146 147 estuary mouth and is relatively close to the value predicted using the van Rijn formulation considering 148 the bedform influence (van Rijn, 2007; Huybrechts et al., 2012). Higher values of the bed friction imposed in the intermediate and upper estuaries correspond to flat muddy beds. 149 One of the main issues to deal with for mixed sediment (sand-mud or graded sand) is to impose the 150 initial distribution of the mixture over the computational domain and for the bed structure. Due to lack 151 of measurements, the initial distribution is numerically determined assuming a sandy bed (mean 152 153 diameter = 0.4 mm) at the estuary mouth as suggested by Van (2012). At the intermediate estuary, the 154 mud fraction is predominant in the bed composition with the presence of sand in some locations (Villaret et al. 2010). The bathymetry is defined by the port around 1200 kg/m³ (McAnally et al., 2016, 155 Xu & Yuan, 2007), corresponding to a concentration layer of ~330 g/L. The fluid mud is initially 156

157 provided on the navigation channel as proposed by Sottolichio (1999). It is distributed along the first five layers (from 75 to 147 g/L) over an area of 40 km and has a thickness of the order of 0.5 m. A 2.5 158 159 m mud thickness is also distributed along layers from 237 to 500 g/L which corresponds to a more consolidated substrate below the bathymetry definition. Simulations are run without considering bed 160 evolution, but the layers update in order to distribute the fluid mud along the estuary. 161 162 In order to simulate mud consolidation, a calibration procedure was applied to obtain the most representative temporal evolution of the sediment height and associated massive sediment 163 concentrations (Fig. 2). Vertical profiles computed with the consolidation model are adjusted according 164 165 to the values obtained from settling column experiments (Van, 2012). The maximum number of bed 166 layers has been increased up to 20 layers in order to obtain a better discretization of the bed. Fair 167 agreement between measured and computed values is obtained after the calibration of mass transfer 168 coefficients for each layer. The values of the mass transfer coefficients and sediment concentrations 169 vary from 3x10-3 to 1x10-6 s-1 and from 75 to 507 g/L-1, respectively, over layers 1 to 20. These 170 concentrations have been defined according to the experiments of Van (2012) and are in agreement 171 with field observations in the Gironde Estuary (Abril et al., 2000) and other estuaries (McAnally et al.,

2. Numerical model calibration and validation

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2007a, b).

Numerical model calibration and validation are done by comparing measurements acquired during the project and simulated values for the following parameters: (i) water level; (ii) current velocity; (iii) salinity; and (iv) suspended-sediment concentration.

Water levels 177 2.1.

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178 Huybrechts et al. (2012) calibrated the bed friction coefficient of the model in order to make the water 179 level difference between measured and simulated lower than 10 cm at the mouth and the central part of the estuary. The calibration and validation have been done for flow currents and water levels obtained 180 during field investigations in August 2006 and October-November 2009. These two events were 182 characterized by low river discharges and calm weather conditions. The hydrodynamic model only included river and tidal forcings. Ten years later, the morphodynamics of the Gironde Estuary may 183 184 have changed. More recent bathymetric surveys have been performed and can be now considered in the model. It is, thus, necessary to check the validity of the calibration, then to analyze how the model 185 behaves for different hydrological conditions in the upper estuary where the port terminals are located. 186 The calibration update and validation of the hydrodynamics are realized during low (< 200 m³/s) and high river discharges (between 1000 and 2000 m³/s) for neap and spring tide conditions. During 15 days of low flow conditions (between 08/26 and 09/06/2018), the total river discharge varied 189 190 from 161 to 235 m3./s-1. Comparison between measured and computed water levels shows the ability 191 of the model to predict the tidal amplitude, as well as, the tidal asymmetry with Root Mean Squared 192 Error (RMSE) values up to 18 cm at the Bordeaux station (Fig. 3). Better results are found at the 193 Verdon and Pauillac stations, in the lower and intermediate parts of the estuary (Fig. 1), with RMSEs 194 below 10 cm. Maximum errors are mainly observed during high and low water conditions at the 195 Bordeaux station in the upper estuary. Regression analysis shows a very good fit for every station with coefficients of determination, r², of 0.99 confirming the robustness of the model to predict water levels. 196 However, these accurate predictions of the water level obtained during low river discharges could be 197 198 degraded during flood periods. Indeed, seasonal variation of river discharges induces the migration of 199 the turbidity maximum (Sottolichio, 1999) which can modify the estuarine bed texture and may have a 200 significant impact on the bed friction (Jalón-Rojas et al., 2018).

Differences observed between measured and simulated water levels can come from two sources: a calibration using constant bed friction coefficients with hydrological conditions and/or variation of mean sea level due to tide-surge interactions. To distinguish the influence of the friction calibration and the impact of mean sea level on numerical results, harmonic analysis (Pawlowicz et al., 2002) is also performed on a longer time series at Verdon, Pauillac, and Bordeaux stations (Fig. 4). The lack of data for the year 2018 resulted in the harmonic analysis being done with water levels measured during 2015 over a period of 3 months. As expected, the analysis revealed the predominance of the M2 harmonic constituent (principal lunar semidiurnal) in the composition of the tidal amplitude for the predicted and measured values with values varying around 1.55 m (Fig. 4a). The N2 (larger lunar elliptic semidiurnal) and S2 (principal solar semidiurnal) constituent harmonics complete 90% of the signal with amplitudes around 0.3 m and 0.5 m, respectively. Moreover, the amplification of shallow water overtides M4 and M6 is noticed at upstream stations (Fig. 4b-c). Differences between measured and predicted values of amplitude are small and never exceed 7 cm for all harmonic constituents and for all stations. For semi-diurnal constituents (M2, N2, and S2) at the Verdon station, amplitude errors are below 5 cm with a maximum value for the M2 harmonic (4.2 cm). Phase lags are also well reproduced with computed delays of 4 min and of less than a minute for M2 and S2 harmonics, respectively (Fig. 4d-e-f). For M4 and M6 harmonics delays increase up to 16 min. For overall harmonics, phase lags do not show significant variations during the tidal propagation. In summary, the harmonic analysis points out that differences in amplitude of the main tidal components are small. For two-dimensional (2D) modeling, this analysis supports the hypothesis of a seasonal calibration of the model. Trial and error methodology as done by Huybrechts et al (2012) is not suitable to do regular updates of the bed friction calibration. Therefore, the application of automatic calibration and optimization procedures is more suitable (Smaoui et al 2018).

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224 2.2. Current velocities

As also observed for water levels, the accuracy of current velocity predictions decreases in the 225 upstream direction. According to the Fig. 5a-b, results are good enough at Stations P1 and P4 with r² of 226 0.79 and 0.90, respectively. However, the robustness of the model decreases at Station P5 where 227 228 simulations overestimate the strength of ebb currents, particularly during spring tides. For the latter 229 conditions, the measurements describe a well-marked tidal asymmetry characterized by short flood tides and long ebb tides. However, at Station P5 where the measured asymmetry is the strongest, mean 230 231 velocities of flood and ebb currents are equivalent and equal to 1 and 0.98 m/s, respectively (Fig. 5c). For the same station, the RMSE reaches the maximum value of 0.14 m/s which is not so high compared 232 to other stations where the minimum value is 0.09 m/s. The best results are obtained at Station P1 233 234 where ebb currents are accurately predicted. For other stations, ebb currents are difficult to predict with 235 an underestimation of the peak ebb velocity and an overall overestimation of velocities during the fall 236 of the tide (Fig. 5b-c).

237 2.3. Salinity

238 Validation of salinity predictions used data collected near the bed during mooring surveys and for 239 different hydrological conditions (see Section 3.3). The simulation started during neap tides characterized by low tidal amplitudes of measured salinity (below ~10 psu) for all stations (Fig. 6c-d-240 241 e). Conversely, maximum tidal amplitudes are observed during spring tides between days 9 and 13 with a maximum value of 17 psu. However, for the last half of the simulation, the overall salinity tends to 242 decrease in response to a steep increase of the total river discharge of 821 m³/s in 6 d (Fig. 6b-c-d). 243 Despite these changing conditions, the model correctly predicts tidal and fortnightly variations, but 244 tends to underestimate the amplitude of tidal variations, particularly near the estuary mouth at station 245 P1 (Fig. 6c). These differences ranging between 3.12 and 6.7 psu are mainly due to the fact that 246

measurements are taken near the bed, while numerical values of salinity correspond to depth-averaged quantities.

A few kilometers upstream, at Station P2, the amplitude is better reproduced, particularly between days 8 and 12 (Fig. 6d). However, for some tidal cycles, measured salinity shows rapid changes not captured by the numerical model. This observation could be explained by the presence of a strong vertical density gradient in this area which cannot be reproduced by 2DH model. In the intermediate estuary, at the Station P4, measured salinity decreases rapidly below 5 psu indicating that the salt intrusion limit is close under this hydrological condition (Fig. 6e). In this area, where salinity values are generally low but could increase considerably near the bed, the 2DH model is less accurate but still provides reliable predictions.

For the low river discharges period, the highest flowrates are observed between days 29 and 32 with a maximum value of $235 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (Fig. 7b). In this hydrological condition, density stratification is weak and allows accurate predictions, particularly at Station P4 with $r^2 = 0.84$ (Fig. 7d). At Station P1, the model correctly predicts tidal variations of salinity but slightly overestimates salinity during slack waters with a difference up to 2.7 psu for both high and low water slacks, respectively (Fig. 7c). As observed for the flood period, surrounding areas of the salt intrusion limit, where salinity is low, are difficult to predict. At Station P5, conversely to the flood period, the model overestimates salinity, but measurements seem to be wrong and describe a linear signal since day 30 owing to the malfunctioning of the probe (Fig. 7e).

266 2.4. Suspended-sediment

In order to compare predicted and measured values, a correction factor estimated using a simplified Rouse profile has been applied. The Rouse profile was set using a linear increase of the vertical diffusivity and a reference altitude z_a of 1 m. During the flood period, only two stations were available

270 due to the loss of a probe and the saturation of a sensor at the other one. Hydrological conditions are 271 characterized by higher river discharge periods between days 26-28 and 39-40 (Fig. 8b). However, no clear relation appears with SPM due to the short duration of the simulation. 272 273 For both Stations P1 and P2, measured and simulated SPM are strongly related to the fortnightly cycle 274 with maximum values observed during spring tides between days 30 and 34 (> 3 g/L for measurements) and null values during neap tides at the end of the simulation (Fig. 8c-d). The dynamics 275 of SPM is reliably predicted by the model excepted at the tidal scale. At this temporal scale, differences 276 277 between ebb and flood maximum resuspension are not substantial, particularly at Station P1 (Fig. 8c). 278 Although the model tends to underestimate SPM values for both stations, it provides reliable predictions for high river discharges. 279 During the simulation of low river discharges, flowrates are below 300 m³/s and spring and neap tides 280 281 occurred during days 26-29 and 32-35, respectively. For these hydrological conditions, the TMZ migrates landward near Bordeaux inducing a decrease of SPM in the lower estuary, as observed at 282 283 Station P2 (Fig. 9c). At this station, the model also accurately predicts the fortnightly dynamics, particularly during neap tides. As observed with high river discharges, tidal variations are still difficult 284 to predict with no clear delineation between flood and ebb resuspensions. For Stations P4 and P5, SPM 285 levels are clearly underestimated by the model by approximately 29 and 125%, respectively, and these 286 underestimations could be explained by a combination of several factors (Fig. 9d-e). First, the model 287 experiences some difficulties to keep suspended particles in the numerical domain over time due to 288 289 deposition in shallow areas. Second, the numerical reproduction of the TMZ with a 2DH model does 290 not consider the influence of vertical density gradients which act to maintain high suspended-sediment 291 concentrations above the bed.

3. Sensitivity analysis

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293 A sensitivity analysis is performed to study the influence of several physical parameters such as the 294 critical shear stress for erosion, the settling velocity, the consolidation on depth-averaged SPM (Fig. 10) and fluid mud thickness (Fig. 11). The latter parameter corresponds to the sum of the first five 295 296 layers (< 150 g/L). Results are extracted from the intermediate estuary near the Pauillac station (Fig. 1). For the initial configuration, constant values are chosen for the settling velocity (W = 0.75 mm/s), the 297 -3 critical shear velocity for deposition ($u_{cd}^* = 10 \text{ m/s}$) and the Partheniades constant (M = 2x10298 kg/m /s). For the erosion law, a linear relation between the critical shear stress and the mud layer 299 300 concentration is considered (Sect. 3.1). This choice of relation is similar to those selected by van 301 Maanen and Sottolichio (2018). 302 The first test compares the influence of erosion parameters: the critical shear stress for erosion and the 303 Parthenadies constant (Fig. 10a). Reducing of 20% the critical shear for erosion yields an increase in SPM of 73% and amplifies tidal variations. Conversely, halving the Parthenadies constant induces an 304 overall decrease of SPM of 53% and expands the availability of sediment for consolidation increasing 305 306 the thickness of the fluid mud layer (Fig. 11a). 307 Similar trends are observed with bed parameters including one simulation without bed consolidation 308 and one simulation with the presence of sand in the intermediate estuary (Fig. 10c). As expected, without bed consolidation SPM concentrations increase and the fluid mud thickness becomes thicker 309 310 (Fig. 11d). During the first month of the simulation, the fluid mud layer firstly becomes thinner until 311 the mud deposit is completely resuspended and reaches an equilibrium on day 30 (Fig. 11d). However, for simulations covering a period of time of few months, fluid mud deposits in shallow areas are 312 overestimated and reached unrealistic values (> 5 m). For short-term simulations (up to 36 h), 313

consolidation processes can be neglected. Figure 10c also shows the strong influence of the assumption of the sand content. The addition of sand (10% per layer) in the intermediate estuary increases the critical shear stress for erosion, and, therefore, reduces resuspension. Moreover due to consolidation, the fluid mud is transferred to more consolidated layers which tends to increase the sand influence on the first layers. However, imposing 10% of sand in the intermediate estuary and in the entire mud substrate does not seem realistic. Sand is probably located around some banks or between muddy layers which may be exposed to sediment transport according to the turbidity maximum migration or dredging activities. This result points out the importance of monitoring spatial and temporal variations of the bed material composition in order to provide reliable inputs for the model. The last comparisons check the influence of two deposition parameters: the critical shear velocity for deposition and the settling velocity. Reducing by a factor of two these parameters leads to higher suspended-sediment concentrations up to 4.8 g/Ll-1 and higher tidal variations (Fig. 10b). However, for the settling velocity no significant differences are noticed in fluid mud deposits since the deposition flux is proportional to the concentration of suspended sediment and the settling velocity (Fig. 11b). For the critical shear velocity for deposition, the fluid mud thickness reaches values up to 7-8 cm whereas it reaches 1-2 cm with the baseline simulation (Fig. 11c). A more energetic exchange, thus, is observed between the mud layer and the water column. This parametric study illustrates the sensitivity of the model to the values of sediment parameters. These values are mostly imposed as constants over the computational domain. For the settling velocity it could be interesting to add spatial and temporal variability considering the influence of the suspended-sediment concentration. Similar improvement can be made for the critical shear stress for deposition according to the transport capacity, as suggested by Bi and Toorman (2015).

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4. Conclusions

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The purpose of this paper is to develop a mixed sediment transport model for the prediction of the under keel clearance in the Gironde Estuary. The current study allows the hydrodynamics and sediment transport to be set up and validated with good accuracy. The harmonic analysis of the astronomical tides reveals (i) a strong distortion of the tidal wave inducing the growth of overtides constituents and (ii) the non-significant effect of tide-surge interactions for annual-scale predictions. Transport for sandmud mixtures is considered for erosion, deposition, and consolidation processes with two sediment classes (sand and mud) and as a function of the mud fraction. Overall simulations were done with a fixed bed to validate suspended-sediment dynamics. The model was firstly validated for hydrodynamics by comparison with measured water levels and current velocities with high coefficients of determination. Predictions of salinity values also are reliable but show some deviations when the river discharge increases abruptly. Strong vertical density gradients also can explain observed differences. Suspended-sediment concentrations are correctly predicted during flood conditions, but with a less-marked tidal dynamic. When river discharges are low, the model underestimates SPM levels probably due to the difficulty to maintain the TMZ without vertical density gradients. The sensitivity analysis has revealed a strong influence of (i) the settling velocity (ii) the critical shear stress for deposition, and (iii) the chosen erosion parameter for the computation of suspended-sediment concentrations and mud layer thicknesses in the intermediate estuary. This model will be used in the near future to compute the bed morphological changes and analyze the influence of bed load and suspended load transport and dredging/dumping operations in the navigation channel.

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Fig. 11. Time series of the fluid mud thickness computed by the numerical model with different settings for (a) the Parthenadies constant (M), (b) the settling velocity (W_s) , (c) the critical shear velocity for deposition (U_{cd}^*) , and (d) the consolidation. Numerical results were extracted near the Pauillac station for a period of 60 days.

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