

1           **Toward understanding complexity of sediment dynamics in geomorphic systems**

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11

12 Processes of sediment detachment, transport, and deposition vary over a wide range of temporal  
13 and spatial scales (Yair and Kossovsky, 2002; Collins and Walling, 2004; Orwin and Smart,  
14 2004; Vericat and Batalla, 2006; Gao, 2008; Smith et al., 2011; Jones and Preston, 2012; Wirtz  
15 et al., 2013; Wainwright et al., 2015). Spatially, sediment load measured at one spatial scale of a  
16 watershed is not representative of that at another (FitzHugh and Mackay, 2000; Parsons et al.,  
17 2004; de Vente and Poesen, 2005; Van Dijk and Bruijnzeel, 2005). Temporally, the cumulative  
18 effects of these complex processes over long time periods give rise to various landforms in  
19 geomorphic systems that have long challenged scientists in revealing their evolutionary history  
20 (Gilbert and Dutton, 1877; Gilbert, 1909; Carson and Kirby, 1972). In recent decades, intensified  
21 anthropogenic activities, such as agriculture, urbanization, channelization, and/or dam removals  
22 (Gomi et al., 2005; Estrany et al., 2009; Warrick et al., 2015) and the increased likelihood of  
23 extreme weather (Zhang et al., 2013; Foulds et al., 2014; Jena et al., 2014) make it more difficult  
24 to characterize sediment dynamics at different temporal (event, seasonal, annual, or decadal) and  
25 spatial (plot, reach, or subwatershed) scales (Walling and Zhang, 2004; Owens et al., 2005;  
26 Wilkinson and McElroy, 2007).

27  
28 The complexity of sediment dynamics is generally reflected in the variable processes and  
29 environmental heterogeneity that dominate at different scales (Fryirs, 2013). As such, the true  
30 sediment transport rates, loads, and yields are more relevant to localized and unsteady processes  
31 at different spatial and temporal scales that can often not be characterized by traditionally used  
32 spatial- and/or time-averaged hydraulic variables and morphologic indices (Yager et al., 2012;  
33 Segura and Pitlick, 2015). Therefore, existing theories on sediment initiation, transport, and  
34 deposition—based on these averaged quantities—often poorly quantify sediment dynamics in  
35 various geomorphic systems. Consequently, it is imperative to explore new perspectives and  
36 ideas that may more efficiently link the complexity of sediment dynamics over various spatial  
37 and temporal scales.

38  
39 The 49th Binghamton Geomorphology Symposium (BGS), held 5–7 October 2018, was in  
40 response to this need with a focused theme of ‘Sediment complexity within geomorphological  
41 systems’. The BGS has been held annually since 1970 (Sawyer et al., 2014). The fundamental  
42 goal of these symposia has been to discuss and advance timely topics in geomorphology. In the  
43 past 48 symposia (Table 1), half of them have involved, to varying degrees, topics related to  
44 sediment dynamics. Five of them concentrated on five traditional subdisciplines in  
45 geomorphology (1973, 1974, 1980, 1991, and 1998), and erosion and sediment transport was an  
46 essential part of each. Seven of them have discussed geomorphic processes from the theoretical  
47 perspective (1975, 1978, 1992, 1993, 1996, 2007, and 2016). Chronologically, these symposia  
48 reflect the evolution of geomorphological theories in the past four decades. In particular, the last  
49 two (i.e., 2007 and 2016) reflect recent transformations in geomorphic theories from early pure  
50 physical and/or (relatively) simple interaction between nature and human beings to integrated  
51 coupling among physical, ecological, and social aspects. The 49th BGS carried on the  
52 intellectual merit of past symposia through its strong influence on the scientific community.  
53 Novel ideas and approaches of resolving these challenges emerging from the 2018 BGS promote  
54 multidisciplinary collaborative research on sediment complexity.

55  
56 Partially derived from this symposium was this virtual special issue, which includes a collection  
57 of 11 peer-reviewed papers addressing sediment complexity using a variety of methods such as

58 field survey, computer simulation and modeling, flume experiments, fingerprinting, and  
59 statistical analysis. The topics of these papers involve (i) mechanics of bedload transport at short  
60 or long temporal scales; (ii) modeling sediment-transport processes over multiple spatial and  
61 temporal scales; (iii) characterization of channel morphologic response to natural processes and  
62 anthropogenic activities; and (iv) characterizing sediment dynamics in larger spatial scales and  
63 longer temporal scales using models of reduced complexity. We summarize these papers in two  
64 categories. The first includes 8 papers showing various types of sediment complexity; the second  
65 contains 3 papers using simplified methods to characterize key processes of sediment  
66 complexity.

67  
68 Bedload is transported by hydraulic processes in river flows. Although shear stress has been  
69 recognized as one of the fundamental hydraulic variables controlling bedload movement,  
70 numerous studies have confirmed that bedload equations based on reach-averaged  
71 (dimensionless) shear stress not only have limited abilities in predicting bedload in different  
72 flume experiments and rivers but also can generate large errors in the same river in which these  
73 equations were developed. Building upon this knowledge, Yager et al. (this issue) demonstrated  
74 that spatially variable near-bed shear stress is better correlated with bedload flux than the single-  
75 value reach-averaged shear stress. Nonetheless, near-bed shear stress may be calculated using  
76 velocity profiles, Reynolds stresses, or flow turbulence. The comparative analysis of Yager et al.  
77 (this issue) showed that near-bed shear stresses computed from velocity profiles had the best  
78 correlation with the associated local bedload fluxes, though the predicted bedload fluxes were  
79 still markedly different from the measured ones. This study suggested that velocity-based, near-  
80 bed shear stress is still insufficient to capture the spatially and temporally variable hydraulic  
81 processes controlling bedload transport. A different type of complexity in bedload transport was  
82 addressed by An et al. (this issue). Most gravel-bed rivers have typical bi-mode bed materials:  
83 coarse grains in the range of gravels and cobbles, and finer grains that are often sands and silts.  
84 Thus far, the mobility of bed surface layer is well known to increase by increased supply of sand.  
85 However, its long-term effect is difficult to measure directly. An et al. (this issue) examined this  
86 effect by attempting to explain the massive bed degradation in the Shi-ting River, Sichuan  
87 Province, China. Using a one-dimensional river morphodynamic model, they simulated riverbed  
88 response to the increased amount of sand delivered to the channel after the 2008 Wenchuan Ms.  
89 8.0 earthquake over multiple temporal scales. Based on the measured bed degradation rate over  
90 7 years after the earthquake, the authors concluded that sand augmentation could encourage bed  
91 degradation by reducing the critical shear stress for the initiation of bed surface materials. This  
92 mechanism is quantitatively embodied in the bedload transport equation developed by Wilcock  
93 and Crowe (2003) as a term called reference shear stress, which captures the well-known hiding  
94 effect in gravel-bed rivers (Einstein and Chien, 1953; Egiazaroff, 1965; Gomez, 1983; Andrews  
95 and Parker, 1987; Sutherland, 1987; Lisle and Madej, 1992; Montgomery et al., 2000). However,  
96 An et al. (this issue) also recognized that long-term bed degradation in gravel-bed rivers can only  
97 be partially explained by this mechanism. Mao (this issue) examined the impact of flood history  
98 on bedload-transport rates using a series of carefully designed flume experiments. These flume  
99 experiments used different hydrograph sequences and compared magnitudes of the bedload flux  
100 produced by these sequences. Mao (this issue) showed that bedload-transport rates produced by a  
101 given hydrograph under constant sediment supply are not only controlled by the magnitude and  
102 duration of this hydrograph but also affected by the characteristics of its previous hydrograph.

103 This 'memory' of sediment dynamics manifests the complexity of sediment dynamics over  
104 temporal scales.

105  
106 Sediment dynamics is directly involved in migration processes of meandering rivers by affecting  
107 channel morphology in a variety of ways. Among the debates is whether the processes  
108 controlling bar development in meander channels are linear or nonlinear (Hooke, 2013). Nelson  
109 and Morgan (this issue) provided new insight by investigating formation and development of  
110 gravel bars under variable water discharges and sediment supply rates in a laboratory flume  
111 within a meandering channel of mixed materials of coarse sand and gravels. Their results suggest  
112 that rather than causing downstream migration of the developed alternate bars, unsteady flows  
113 and variable sediment supply mainly led to variations of bar sizes, which subsequently control  
114 bedload transport rates. Yet, the existing linear bar theory could not capture these processes as  
115 the width-to-depth ratios of the created meander channel were lower than is required by the  
116 theory.

117  
118 An essential process of meander migration is cutoff. While chute cutoff has been widely studied  
119 through in situ measurement, flume experiments, and modeling simulation, neck cutoff has  
120 rarely been examined mainly because it is hard to observe in natural meandering rivers and to  
121 reproduce in laboratory flumes. Li et al. (this issue) successfully triggered neck cutoff in a  
122 pre-designed highly sinuous meandering channel with a mobile bed and uniformly sized sands in  
123 a laboratory flume. By analyzing neck narrowing processes dominated by local bank erosion,  
124 they reveal that while neck cutoff was promoted by progressive bank-erosion processes, it finally  
125 initiated seepage-based bank collapse owing to the cross-neck hydraulic gradient caused by  
126 water level difference between the upstream and downstream sides of the neck. They conclude  
127 that sediment dynamics characterizing local bank erosion processes was insufficient to explain  
128 the occurrence of neck cutoff.

129  
130 The complexity of interaction among processes controlling sediment dynamics across multiple  
131 spatial and temporal scales is demonstrated in the following papers. Suspended sediment  
132 transport through an entire watershed is commonly determined by establishing sediment rating  
133 curves. Although factors that may undermine the predictability of these curves have been well  
134 documented (Gao, 2008), such as effects of hysteresis, the fundamental assumption that the  
135 relationship between water discharge and suspended sediment loads is stable over time has not  
136 been systematically verified. Gray (this issue) sought to test this assumption by examining the  
137 temporal dependence of these relationships for small rivers in the U.S. west coast area. Using  
138 data recorded from 24 gauging stations in these rivers for more than a decade, he found that in  
139 most of the rivers a persistent relationship only existed for an average period of 8.6 years, beyond  
140 which the relationship was of the long-term nonstationary nature. Gray (this issue) showed that if  
141 this relationship were used to predict long-term suspended sediment loads, the error could be one  
142 order of magnitude.

143  
144 Spatial complexity of sediment dynamics is often embodied by intricate pathways of sediment  
145 movement among connected compartments of geomorphic systems. Wittmann (this issue)  
146 studied the long-term sediment variation in lower Amazon floodplains using the fingerprinting  
147 method based on meteoric cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and the  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  ratio where  $^9\text{Be}$  is the mobilized  
148 fraction of  $^{10}\text{Be}$ . Her results showed that sediment stored in the floodplains was controlled by

149 seasonal cyclic floods that brought sediment from upstream sources to the floodplains. However,  
150 present floodplain sedimentation was well-mixed by multiple cycles of storage and  
151 remobilization, making disentangling of individual sediment sources very difficult, if not  
152 impossible. Viparelli et al. (this issue) examined morphologic responses of tidal channels under  
153 the influence of flow hydrodynamics and base-level changes. Using a one-dimensional model,  
154 they modeled the effects of sediment with nonuniform sizes on channel morphologic adjustment.  
155 Their modeling revealed that combination of sinusoidal tidal forcing with constant input of sand  
156 from the ocean results in cyclic deposition in such channels. This finding provided a base for  
157 further quantifying the possible impact of sea-level rise on tidal channels.

158  
159 A common feature of these papers on complex sediment dynamics is that processes controlling  
160 sediment dynamics in any geomorphic system are so complex that they cannot be quantified by  
161 classic theories or single mathematical equations. The following two studies attempted to  
162 provide opposite cases. Czuba (this issue) argued that the key channel morphologic responses to  
163 the complex sediment connectivity throughout the network of rivers within a large watershed  
164 may be effectively characterized under a framework represented by a physically based, mixed-  
165 sized sediment transport model. He showed that this simplified one-dimensional model may  
166 capture some key processes, such as reaches dominated by sediment aggradation and segments  
167 controlled by locally decreased transport capacity that affects downstream sediment delivery.  
168 Thus, the model provides a framework for further understanding complex sediment dynamics  
169 over larger spatial scales. Berni et al. (this issue) examined channel response over relatively short  
170 periods to the decreased sediment transport rates owing to bed armoring and development of  
171 bedforms using a model with reduced complexity. Their analysis showed that a characteristic  
172 time for the channel to reach equilibrium may be identified and that this time is affected by five  
173 parameters: the dimensionless bed shear stress, the ratio of dimensionless bed shear stress ratio  
174 to its critical value for inception of movement, the Reynolds particle number, the standard  
175 deviation of sediment distribution, and the width-to-depth ratio. Briant et al. (this issue) showed,  
176 using a case of modeling long-term climatic effect on river sediment adjustment, that the  
177 relatively simple model may be very useful in examining more complex processes of sediment  
178 dynamics in natural rivers.

179  
180 Among 11 papers included in this virtual special issue, 8 demonstrated a variety of sediment  
181 complexity in geomorphic systems. These studies continuously accumulate examples of complex  
182 sediment connectivity that transfers in various integrated ways sediment across different sources  
183 and sinks over different spatial and temporal scales (Bracken et al., 2015). It is foreseeable that  
184 in the future more specific cases on the complexity of sediment dynamics will be reported in  
185 scientific community. Theoretically, new ideas and strategies are needed to quantify and model  
186 all kinds of sediment complexity efficiently. Yet, developing them confronts a fundamental  
187 challenge: how to integrate appropriately different processes dominating sediment dynamics at  
188 different spatial and temporal scales. Quantifying these processes require different levels of  
189 detail at different spatial and temporal scales (Harvey, 2002; Larsen et al., 2014). Use of models  
190 with reduced complexity to capture the dominant processes at a given temporal (decades or  
191 centennial) or spatial scale (a hillslope section, river reach, or watershed), as exemplified in the 3  
192 studies included in this virtual issue, has been successful in many cases (Hunter et al., 2007;  
193 Murray, 2007; Nicholas, 2010). Unfortunately, no general rules to determine how much  
194 complexity may be reduced in a given geomorphic system have been established. The current

195 status of our understanding of sediment complexity calls for more research on these general rules  
196 if they exist. A recently developed multiscalar framework based on near-census developments  
197 (Wheaton et al., 2015; Pasternack and Wyrick, 2017) appears to be a promising solution. We  
198 believe that more studies in the two apparently opposite directions illustrated by the 11 papers in  
199 this virtual issue will foster more new approaches to constructing various multiscalar frameworks  
200 for determining the complexity of sediment dynamics in geomorphological systems.

201

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203

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328

**Table 1.** List of all Binghamton geomorphology symposia.

Title	Editor(s)	ISBN
1. Environmental Geomorphology (1970)	D.R. Coates	Oct. 1970***
2. Quantitative Geomorphology (1971)	M. Morisawa	Oct. 1971***
3. Coastal Geomorphology (1972)	D.R. Coates	0-045-51038-5
4. Fluvial Geomorphology (1973)	M. Morisawa	0-045-51046-6
5. Glacial Geomorphology (1974)	D.R. Coates	0-045-51045-8
6. Theories of Landform Development (1975)	W.N. Melhorn and R.C. Flemal	0-686-10458-7
7. Geomorphology and Engineering (1976)	D.R. Coates	0-045-51040-7
8. Geomorphology in Arid Regions (1977)	D.O. Doehring	0-045-51041-5
9. Thresholds in Geomorphology (1978)	D.R. Coates and J.D. Vitek	0-045-51033-4
10. Adjustments of the Fluvial System (1979)	D.D. Rhodes and E.J. Williams	0-840-32108-2
11. Applied Geomorphology (1980)	R.G. Craig and J.L. Craft	0-045-51050-4
12. Space and Time in Geomorphology (1981)	C.E. Thorn	0-045-51056-3
13. Groundwater as a Geomorphic Agent (1982)	R.G. LeFleur	0-045-51069-5
14. Models in Geomorphology (1983)	M.J. Woldenberg	0-045-51075-X
15. Tectonic Geomorphology (1984)	M. Morisawa and J.T. Hack	0-045-51098-9
16. Hillslope Processes (1985)	A.D. Abrahams	0-045-51102-0
17. Aeolian Geomorphology (1986)	W.G. Nickling	0-045-51133-0
18. Catastrophic Flooding (1987)	L. Mayer and D. Nash	0-045-51,142-X
19. History of Geomorphology (1988)	K.J. Tinkler	0-045-51138-1
20. Appalachian Geomorphology	T.W. Gardner and	0-444-88326-6

(1989)	W.D. Sevon	
21. Soils and Landscape Evolution (1990)	P.L.K. Knuepfer and L.D. McFadden	0-444-88692-3
22. Periglacial Geomorphology (1991)	J. Dixon and A. Abrahams	0-471-93342-2
23. Geomorphic Systems (1992)	J.D. Phillips and W.H. Renwick	0-444-89809-3
24. Geomorphology: The Research Frontier and Beyond (1993)	J.D. Vitek and J.R. Giardino	0-444-89971-5
25. Geomorphology and Natural Hazards (1994)	M. Morisawa	0-444-82012-4
26. Biogeomorphology, Terrestrial and Freshwater Systems (1995)	C.R. Hupp, W.R. Osterkamp, A.D. Howard	0-444-81867-7
27. The Scientific Nature of Geomorphology (1996)	B.L. Rhoads and C.E. Thorn	0-471-96811-0
28. Engineering Geomorphology (1997)	J.R. Giardino, R.A. Marston, M. Morisawa	0-444-50301-3
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