# Modeling dispersal of the Pearl River-derived sediment over the

| 2 | Shelf  |
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| 3 | Guang Zhang <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Suan Hu <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Xiaolong Yu <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Heng Zhang <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Wenping Gong <sup>1,2,3</sup> * |
| 4 | <sup>1</sup> School of Marine Sciences, Sun Yat-sen University, Zhuhai, 519082, China  |
| 5 | <sup>2</sup> Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Marine Resources and Coastal Engineering, Zhuhai, 519082, China                                    |
| 6 | <sup>3</sup> Pearl River Estuary Marine Ecosystem Research Station, Ministry of Education, Zhuhai 519082, China  |
| 7 | Corresponding author: Wenping Gong (gongwp@mail.sysu.edu.cn)   |
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## Abstract

| This study employs the Coupled-Ocean-Atmosphere-Wave-Sediment-Transport                    |
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| (COAWST) modeling system to quantitatively assess the seasonal suspension,                 |
| transport, and annual fate of Pearl River-derived sediment (riverine slow-settling         |
| single fine grains and high-settling flocs) on the northern continental shelf of the       |
| South China Sea (SCS). Following careful model validation, a series of sensitivity         |
| experiments were conducted to investigate the effects of tides, waves, background          |
| circulation, sediment settling velocity, critical shear stress, and sediment spin-up       |
| durations. The results reveal strong seasonal variations in sediment dynamics driven       |
| by the East Asian monsoon. During the wet summer, weaker hydrodynamic                      |
| conditions promote the initial deposition of riverine sediment via the surface buoyant     |
| plume. In contrast, stronger winds and waves during winter enhance sediment                |
| resuspension and southwestward transport, particularly toward the Beibu Gulf.              |
| Spatially, approximately two-thirds of the annual Pearl River-derived sediment load is     |
| retained near the estuary. About 9% reaches the continental shelf east of the PRE,         |
| while similar proportions accumulate in the Beibu Gulf and south of Hainan Island.         |
| Sensitivity experiments highlight the distinct roles of different physical forcings: tidal |
| dynamics strongly influence sediment behavior in the estuary, where the absence of         |
| tidal forcing reduces bottom shear stress, leading to increased local deposition and       |
| reduced offshore transport. Wave forcing plays a dominant role in sediment                 |
| resuspension near the river mouth and along the coast, especially during winter.           |
| Excluding waves leads to greater sediment retention near the estuary and diminished        |

| transport toward distant regions. Ambient circulation, particularly in summer, is      |
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| essential for eastward sediment transport; when it is omitted, northeastward dispersal |
| is greatly diminished. Model outcomes are also sensitive to sediment parameterization  |
| Using non-seasonal critical shear stress for erosion increases wintertime sediment     |
| mobility east of the Leizhou Peninsula. Higher settling velocities decrease suspended  |
| sediment concentrations and promote near-source retention, limiting long-distance      |
| transport. Spin-up duration experiments indicate that Pearl River-derived sediment,    |
| which enters and accumulates in various regions of the model domain during the first   |
| year, continues to migrate southwestward in the second year under the influence of     |
| the mean annual flow field. In contrast, the spin-up duration of seabed sediment has   |
| little impact on the retentions of Pearl River-derived sediment on the shelf. Overall, |
| this study reveals the transport pathway and fate of the Pearl River-derived sediment  |
| and provides a model-based assessment of its seasonal behavior and dispersal           |
| mechanisms on the northern SCS shelf. It identifies key physical drivers regulating    |
| sediment transport and deposition patterns, offering new insight into sediment fate in |
| a monsoon-dominated shelf system.  |
| This study employs the Coupled Wave Ocean Sediment Transport Model to                  |
| quantitatively assess the seasonal suspension, transport, and annual fate of Pearl     |
| River derived sediment on the northern South China Sea (SCS) continental shelf.        |
| After careful model validation, several sensitivity model simulations were conducted.  |
| Results reveal pronounced seasonal variations in sediment dynamics driven by the       |
| monsoonal climate. During the wet summer, calm conditions favor initial deposition     |

via the river plume, whereas stronger winter winds and waves resuspend and transport sediments into the Beibu Gulf. Spatially, 66.45% of the total sediment load is retained within the estuarine vicinity, 9.2% is deposited on the eastern continental shelf, and 8.86% and 10.3% accumulate in the Beibu Gulf and the area south of Hainan Island, respectively. Sensitivity experiments highlight the distinct roles of tidal forces, wave action, and background circulation in sediment transport and deposition. Tidal dynamics govern sediment behavior in the Pearl River Estuary, where neglecting tidal effects underestimates bottom shear stress, overestimates sediment deposition, and underestimates distal retention. Wave action dominates sediment resuspension at the river mouth, nearshore regions, particularly during high-energy winter periods. Excluding waves leads to overestimated deposition in these areas and underestimates accumulation in the Beibu Gulf. Background circulation is most influential in summer, with a strong northeastward current transporting sediments to the eastern shelf. Without this current, only 0.84% of sediments reach the eastern shelf, leading to an overestimation of distal deposition. The sediment model results are also highly sensitive to sediment parameterization and initial conditions. Neglecting seasonal variations in critical shear stress for erosion overestimates winter resuspension and erosion east of the Leizhou Peninsula, increasing distal retention. Higher settling velocities lower SSC while overestimating proximal retention and underestimating distal retention. Additionally, initial sediment conditions significantly impact sediment transport, with the retention of pre-existing sediment leading to further offshore transport. However, the model is relatively insensitive to the initial bed grain

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size distribution. This study provides a comprehensive assessment of Pearl River derived sediment dynamics and highlights key physical mechanisms governing sediment fate in the northern SCS.

#### Kevwords

- 80 Riverine sediment transport; Sediment retention; Numerical modeling; Pearl River
- 81 Estuary

#### 1. Introduction

The transport process of suspended sediment from river source to ocean sink is an important link in the global material cycle (Geyer et al., 2004; McKee et al., 2004; Kuehl et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2019). Much of the riverine sediment is trapped on the shallow shoals in estuaries, while the rest is transported by buoyant river plume out of the estuary (Meade, 1969; Burchard et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). The riverine sediment carried by the buoyant river plume has a significant impact on the water quality, ecology, and geomorphology of the estuaries and continental shelves (Wright and Coleman, 1973; Turner and Millward, 2002).

The transport and deposition of riverine sediments from river source to estuarine,

coastal, and shelf environments are <u>controlled governed</u> by <u>diverse various</u> physical processes, including tidal forces, wave action, and shelf circulation dynamics (<u>Dalyander et al., 2013</u>; <u>Gao and Collins, 2014</u>; <u>Xu et al., 2016</u>; <u>Warner et al., 2017</u>; <u>Zang et al., 2019</u>; <u>Wang et al., 2020</u>). Tides play a critical role <u>in sediment transport dynamics</u> in estuarine <u>and shelf regions sediment transport dynamics</u>, as spring tides typically produce higher bed shear stress, enhanced sediment resuspension, and

greater offshore sediment transport flux compared to neap tides (Bever and MacWilliams, 2013; Zhang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020). In nearshore regions, wave-induced bed shear stress is often exceeds current-induced stress by an order of magnitude higher than that generated by currents (Xue et al., 2012; Dalyander et al., <u>2013</u>). Furthermore, wave-driven sediment resuspension frequently <u>surpassesexceeds</u>, and is often several times greater than, the peak levels achieved by current-induced resuspension (Sanford, 1994; Harris et al., 2008; Brand et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2016). In shelf regions, shelf-circulation patterns significantly modulate influence-sediment transport, with the magnitude of along-shelf transport substantially exceeding the cross-shelf component in most areas locations (Nittrouer and Wright, 1994; Geyer et al., 2004; Gao and Collins, 2014; Wang et al., 2020). Furthermore, sediment properties, including settling velocity (Xia et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2013), critical shear stress for erosion (Dong et al., 2020), and bed grain size distribution (Xue et al., 2012; Bever and MacWilliams, 2013), significantly influence sediment transport dynamics and deposition/resuspension processes. Settling velocity can influence the location of sediment depocenters, with higher settling velocities leading to more proximal entrapment and vice versa (Ralston and Geyer, 2017). Similarly, critical shear stress for erosion can affect the resuspension of deposited sediment, with higher critical shear stress resulting in less resuspension and more deposition especially during neap tides and weak wind wave periods (Dong et al., 2020; Choi et al., 2023).

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A comprehensive understanding of sediment transport and deposition from river

source to ocean sink requires the integrated consideration of both physical forcing factors and inherent sediment characteristics. Here, we present the transport and deposition of the Pearl River-derived sediments on the continental shelf as a case study. The Pearl River, ranking as China's second-largest river in terms of freshwater discharge (<u>Hu et al., 2011</u>), forms the Pearl River Estuary (PRE) in its lower reaches (Figures 1 and S1). Its freshwater and sediment discharge are primarily delivered through eight major outlets (Figure S1b; Wu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2025), forming distinct buoyant plumes that extend across the northern South China Sea (SCS) shelf (Zhang et al., 2025). The present average annual (2001-2022) freshwater and riverine sediment loads are  $2.74 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$  and  $2.84 \times 10^7 \text{ tons}$ respectively, as reported by the Ministry of Water Resources of the People's Republic of China (http://www.mwr.gov.cn/sj/#tjgb). The distribution of these inputs shows significant seasonal variability: approximately 80% of the freshwater and 95% of the sediment load are transported during the wet summer season (April to September), while the remaining portion is discharged during the dry winter season (Xia et al., 2004). The northern SCS, shaped by the East Asian Monsoon, displays marked seasonal contrasts, featuring winter monsoon winds averaging 7-10 m s<sup>-1</sup> and summer winds typically below 6 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Su, 2004; Ou et al., 2009). This seasonal shift drives coastal currents: northeastward in summer and southwestward in winter (Gan et al., 2009; Gan et al., 2013). Beyond the coastal zone, the consistent SCS Warm Current (SCSWC) flows northeastward along the shelf break and inner continental slope

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toward the Taiwan Strait, originating near Hainan Island and persisting year-round, even during the winter northeast monsoon, across a remarkable distance of 600-700 km to the southern tip of the Taiwan Strait (Su, 2004; Yang et al., 2008).

The PRE is situated in the central part of the northern South China Sea boundary, positioned between the Taiwan Banks and Hainan Island. The PRE has a micro-tidal and mixed semi-diurnal regime, with daily inequality in the range and in the time between the high and low tides (Mao et al., 2004). The neap and spring tides alternately influence the water elevation downstream of the estuary, with tidal ranges varying from approximately 0.7 m during neap tides to over 2 m during spring tides (Chen et al., 2016; Gong et al., 2018b). The PRE and the nearby shelf exhibit strong seasonal variation in water column stability and are highly stratified during the wet summer season, while the PRE becomes partially mixed or vertically well-mixed during the dry winter season (Dong et al., 2004). Offshore of the PRE region, wave conditions display distinct seasonal patterns: the waves are mild during summer, and become stronger during winter, marked by larger southeasterly waves (Gong et al., 2018a; Gong et al., 2018b; Zhang et al., 2021).

Previous studies have focused on sediment transport within the PRE\_(Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2024). Most Pearl River-derived sediments are deposited within the estuary, and neglecting tidal effects can lead to higher overestimating deposition rates and lowerwhile underestimating offshore sediment flux when compared to those with tides (Hu et al., 2011). The depositional dynamics of sediments from different PRE outlets are shaped regulated by outlet location,

topography, and tidal conditions, with neap tides favoring sediment accumulation on shoals and spring tides driving erosion and enhancing offshore sediment transport (Zhang et al., 2019). Waves further intensify both lateral trapping within the PRE and offshore sediment transport (Liu and Cai, 2019; Zhang et al., 2021).

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However, numerical studies on the transport of the Pearl River-derived sediments across the continental shelf remain scarce, even amidst the widespread adoption of computer modeling approaches. Previous research on the distribution of these sediments has primarily relied on analyses of seismic profiles, gravity cores, and laboratory-based radiometric dating of sediment samples (Ge et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). Outside the PRE, gravity core and seismic survey data were used to examine the Holocene sedimentary processes, revealing two distinct mud depo-centers: an eastward proximal depo-center extending southeastward from the PRE's mouth and a southwestward distal mud belt (Ge et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2023). However, seismic and drilling data cannot confirm that the Pearl River sediment can be transported to the Beibu Gulf (Ge et al., 2014). Due to the lack of sufficient gravity core samples and seismic data, it is difficult to quantitatively attribute the sediment in the Beibu Gulf to the Pearl River-derived sediment (Cao et al., 2019). Afterward, Lin et al. (2020) used the <sup>226</sup>Ra—<sup>238</sup>U and <sup>232</sup>Th—<sup>238</sup>U endmembers model based on measurements of radionuclides in the surface sediment samples. They found that approximately 15% of the surface sediment in the nearshore area of the Beibu Gulf originates from the PRE region. However, their studies only address the proportion of the PRE sediment in the

surface sediment of the Beibu Gulf, without directly indicating the seasonal transport pathways, flux, and annual deposition mechanisms of the sediment from the Pearl River.

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A gap persists in understanding how physical processes (such as tides, waves, and ambient circulations) and sediment characteristics (such as critical shear stress for erosion, settling velocity) and sediment initial conditions influence the seasonal suspension, transport, and annual deposition of the Pearl River-derived sediment on the shelf. Specifically, this study focuses on sediment classes 4 and 5 in Table 1, which represent the Pearl River-derived components: slow-settling single fine grains (Class 4) and fast-settling flocs (Class 5), in contrast to the background seabed sediments represented by classes 1 to 3. To address this In this study, we utilize numerical modeling, complemented by extensive collection of field observations and seabed grain size distribution data for model calibration and validation—a highly effective approach for exploring mechanisms and testing hypotheses derived from limited observational datasets. This study aims to systematically investigate the dispersal dynamicsfocused on the processes of the Pearl River-derived sediment suspension, transport, and deposition over the northern South China Sea continental shelf, with particular emphasis on the following objectives. Several specific questions addressed in this paper include:

- (1) Quantify What are the seasonal dispersal and annual deposition patterns of the Pearl River-derived sediment (classes 4 and 5 in Table 1) over the continental shelf?.
  - (2) Examine the relative roles of How do physical processes forcings (tides, waves,

and ambient circulations), sediment characteristics (critical shear stress for erosion, settling velocity) and (Pearl River-derived versus Seabed) sediment spin-up durations initial conditions influence on the dispersal of the Pearl River-derived sediment?



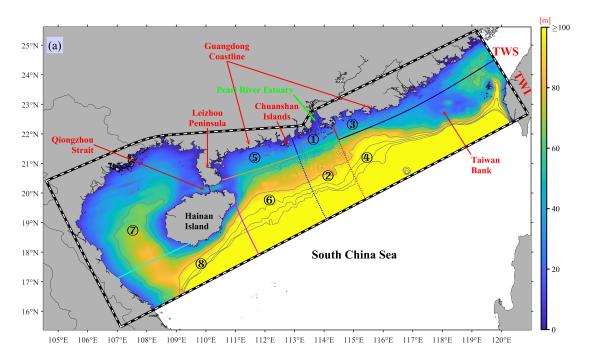


Figure 1. Bathymetry (shading) and isobath contours of the study area, with the ROMS/SWAN model grid domain outlined by black-to-white dashed lines. Circled numbers ①-⑧ denote the eight regions: "Proximal", "Southern", "Eastern", "Southeastern", "Western", "Southwestern", Beibu-"Gulf", and "Distal" regions, as defined by transects and detailed in Section 2.14.2. The abbreviations TWI and TWS mean Taiwan Island and Taiwan Strait, respectively. The gray contours represent 30-180 m isobaths at 30 m intervals, a consistent feature maintained in all subsequent figures that include these isobath contours.

### 2. Methods

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### 2.1 Model coupling

224 This study employed the Coupled Ocean Atmosphere Wave Sediment Transport (COAWST, version 3.4) modeling system (Warner et al., 2005; Warner et al., 2008; 225 Warner et al., 2010), which includes a Model Coupling Toolkit (MCT) to facilitate 226 227 data exchange among different modules (Jacob et al., 2005; Larson et al., 2005). The 228 COAWST system consists of several modeling components, mainly comprises a hydrodynamic module (Regional Ocean Modeling System; ROMS) (Shchepetkin and 229 McWilliams, 2005; Haidvogel et al., 2008), an atmospheric module (Advanced 230 231 Research Weather Research and Forecasting; WRF) (Skamarock et al., 2005), a wave 232 module (Simulating Waves Nearshore; SWAN) (Booij et al., 1999), and a sediment transport module (Community Sediment Transport Modeling System; CSTM) 233 234 (Warner et al., 2008). 235 In this study, we established a coupling between ROMS, SWAN, and CSTM. The 236 model grid covered covers the northern continental shelf of the South China Sea, 237 including the PRE (Figure 1). The regional model was configured with  $170 \times 482$ 238 horizontal grid cells, with horizontal resolution varying from approximately 0.1 km 239 near the PRE to about 10 km at outer open boundaries (Hu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 240 2025). The model grid bathymetry data was obtained from nautical charts compiled by the China Maritime Safety Administration and the General Bathymetric Chart of 241 242 the Oceans (GEBCO) (Weatherall et al., 2015). The vertical grid used a 243 terrain-following S-Sigma-coordinate system (Song and Haidvogel, 1994) with 20

| 244 | layers and a stretching transformation for higher resolution near the surface and                 |
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| 245 | bottom, with stretching parameters of $\theta_s$ =3.0 and $\theta_b$ =3.0, respectively (Song and |
| 246 | Haidvogel, 1994). For model validations, please refer to the Supplementary Material               |
| 247 | (Supplement Figures S1-S10).  |
| 248 | To improve the understanding of the spatial-temporal variabilities in the riverine                |
| 249 | sediment dispersal, and the estimation of the fate of the Pearl River sediment during             |
| 250 | the wet summer season, dry winter season, and throughout the year, we partitioned the             |
| 251 | model domain into eight distinct regions delineated by various transects as illustrated           |
| 252 | in Figure 1. The division criteria are mainly based on the distance from the estuary              |
| 253 | and the natural separation by the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island (Figure 1).                 |
| 254 | These regions include:  |
| 255 | ① Proximal region: Proximity to the estuary,  |
| 256 | 2 Southern region: Located deeper in the southern part of the estuary,                            |
| 257 | 3 Eastern region: Eastern side of the estuary, closer to the shoreline,                           |
| 258 | Southeastern region: Further offshore on the eastern side of the estuary,                         |
| 259 | (5) Western region: Western side of the estuary, closer to the shoreline,                         |
| 260 | 6 Southwestern region: Offshore on the western side of the estuary,                               |
| 261 | 7 Gulf region: Mainly the Beibu Gulf,   |
| 262 | 8 Distal region: South of the Hainan Island.  |
| 263 | By dividing the model domain into these delineated regions, we calculated the                     |
| 264 | riverine sediment flux for each transect, thereby determining the total riverine                  |
| 265 | sediment volume retained in each region.  |

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#### 2.2 ROMS model setup

For the ROMS model, we utilized the Generic Length Scale turbulence closure scheme (Warner et al., 2005) for vertical turbulence parameterization. The method of Smagorinsky (1963) was employed to calculate the horizontal eddy viscosity and diffusivity. The Flather and Chapman boundary conditions were applied to barotropic current and water elevation at open boundaries, respectively (Flather, 1976; Chapman, 1985). Meanwhile, the open-boundary conditions for temperature, salinity, and sediment concentration were imposed by radiation methods (Orlanski, 1976; Raymond and Kuo, 1984). Surface forcing (including wind, net shortwave radiation, air temperature, atmospheric pressure, specific/relative humidity, and rain, etc.) data were sourced from the Climate Forecast System Reanalysis of the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) (Saha et al., 2014), with a temporal resolution of 1 h and a spatial resolution of  $0.3^{\circ} \times 0.3^{\circ}$ . Water level and current open-boundary conditions comprised two components: tidal and subtidal. The tidal component was obtained from the Oregon State University Tidal Prediction Software database (Egbert and Erofeeva, 2002), while the subtidal component was interpolated from the HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) outputs (Chassignet et al., 2007).

#### 2.3 Wave model setup

The SWAN model was executed and coupled to the same grid as the ROMS model (Warner et al., 2010). It was driven by surface atmospheric forces, real-time water level, and current fields from the ROMS and boundary reanalysis data. Wave

boundary conditions were specified using nonstationary wave parameters from outputs of the NOAA WAVEWATCH III global ocean wave model solutions (Tolman et al., 2016). Information was exchanged at 15-minute intervals to introduce wave-current interaction (WCI) between the ROMS and SWAN models (McWilliams et al., 2004; Kumar et al., 2012). This exchange included significant wave height (Hsig), surface peak wave period, mean wave direction and length, wave energy dissipation, and the percentage of breaking waves from SWAN to ROMS, as well as water level and current from ROMS to SWAN.

Additionally, the wave-current bottom boundary module based on Madsen (1994); incorporated into COAWST, was activated to simulate the wave-current bottom boundary layer. The vortex force module of wave forces was also activated to compute the wave-induced momentum flux, utilizing the method proposed by McWilliams et al. (2004) and implemented in COAWST by Kumar et al. (2012). The bottom friction was computed based on a logarithmic velocity profile (Warner et al., 2008).

#### 2.4 Specifications of riverine input and sediment model

The freshwater discharge for the Pearl River was specified at the northern boundary using daily measured data from the Pearl River Water Resources Commission, while downstream precipitation within the Pearl River Basin was neglected. The full simulation model was initialized on the first day of January 2016 using temperature, salinity, and current fields interpolated from the HYCOM model, and it concluded on March 31, 2018. More than one year of hydrodynamic and

sediment spin-up is sufficient to achieve appropriate seabed sediment particle size distribution, as well as stable circulation and thermohaline fields. This study primarily analyzes the last 12 months, specifically from April 1, 2017, to March 31, 2018. This year is was selected because the freshwater discharge and sediment load of the Pearl River closely approximated the average values of the past two decades, with a runoff of  $3.35 \times 10^{11}$  m<sup>3</sup> and a sediment load of  $3.45 \times 10^{7}$  tons, closely resembling the averages from 2001 to 2022.

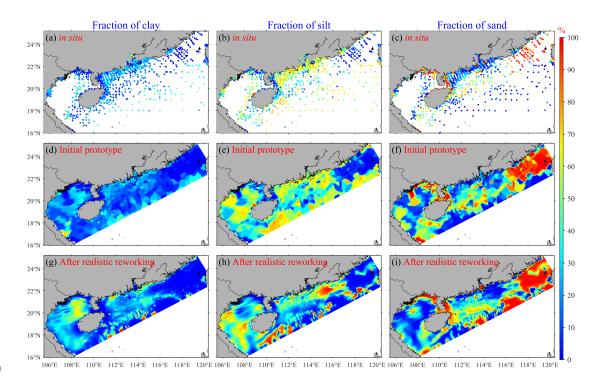
Since the daily riverine sediment loads were unavailable, we modified the previous research results on sediment rating curves (Zhang et al., 2012) to suit for our study, as expressed by

$$y = 0.00002263x^{1.792} \tag{1}$$

where *y* is the Pearl River-derived suspended sediment concentration (mg L<sup>-1</sup>), *x* is the Pearl River freshwater discharge rate (m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). Based on this relationship, the total amount of Pearl River sediment input over our 12-months study period (Figure- 3b) was 34.52 million tons, aligning closely with the annual load reported in 2017 by the Pearl River Water Resources Commission. The riverine sediment input, derived from the river discharge, was allocated across the eight outlets along —the north boundary (Figure S1b) based on the distribution approach of Hu et al. (2011). The subsequent step involved involves—establishing the proportion of seabed sediment particle size components. Sediments are typically categorized into three grain-size classes: clay (0-4 μm), silt (4-63 μm), and sand (63-2000 μm), as outlined by Shepard (1954). Data on sediment particle size composition for the northern continental shelf of the South

China Sea and the PRE area were acquired through multiple voyage observations (Zhang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2019). Furthermore, publicly available data from published literature were compiled (Gao et al., 2007; Kirby et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Ge et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018; Ge et al., 2019). Finally, component distribution data for different particle size classes of seabed sediment were obtained from a total of 1981 measured stations (Figure 2a-c).





**Figure 2.** Row 1 presents the spatial distribution patterns of seabed sediment fractions derived from 1981 sampling sites, while Row 2 demonstrates the initial spatial distribution prototype of seabed sediment fractions developed based on the observational data presented in Row 1. Row 3 shows the spatial distribution patterns of seabed sediment fractions following the completion of spin-up phase in the Control

run case on April 1st, 2017, with Columns 1, 2, and 3 representing the fractions of clay, silt, and sand, respectively.

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As illustrated in Figure 2a-c, the measured stations exhibit a widespread distribution, offering comprehensive coverage of the entire northern continental shelf of the South China Sea, including the PRE. Particularly dense distribution is observed in the PRE and the coastal areas of western Guangdong. These regions represent the primary scope of transport and deposition associated with the Pearl River-derived sediment. Hence, the stations utilized in this study well represent the distribution of bed sediment particle size components in these study areas. It is evident that among the stations in the offshore area of the northern continental shelf of the South China Sea, silt dominates, followed by clay, while sand with the largest particle size is the least abundant. This suggests a significant presence of terrestrial sediment or Pearl River sediment in the offshore area of the northern continental shelf of the South China Sea. It should be noted that the lack of in situ grain size distribution data in specific regions of the model domain, especially in the Beibu Gulf area, may lead to uncertainties in sediment transport predictions. We will address these limitations and quantify their potential errors in the discussion part of this study.

To derive the component proportions of the initial prototype field on the model grid, this study employed the Kriging method (Krige, 1951), widely recognized for spatially interpolating various types of observational data. The sediment distribution pattern obtained through interpolation (Figure 2d-f) closely resembles the original

1981 measured sediment particle size distribution patterns (Figure 2a-c), suggesting the suitability of this interpolation method for the study area.

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The initial prototype field underwent a 15-month spin-up period (from January 1, 2016, to March 31, 2017), during which the bottom sediment composition it evolved under was adjusted by realistic reworking, incorporating realistic hydrodynamics forcings from the in-ROMS, SWAN, and CSTM models. This adjustment allowed for the redistribution of seabed sediment fractions based on the modeled hydrodynamics. This method has been utilized in numerous previous studies, including those by **Bever** et al. (2009), van der Wegen et al. (2010), and Zhang et al. (2021). The realistic spin-up greatly reduced the irregularities and prepared a more suitable seabed sediment particle size distribution field for subsequent simulations than the initial prototype (Figures 2d f vs. 2g i). This process allows the initially idealized sediment distribution to evolve under realistic dynamic forcings, including tides, waves, and currents, thereby minimizing unreasonable spatial patterns introduced by the Kriging interpolation method. Such unreasonable spatial patterns may arise due to limitations in the number, representativeness, and timing of field sediment samples relative to the model start date. As a result, the sediment field after the spin-up period (Figures 2g-i) exhibits spatial patterns that are more physically plausible and better aligned with the hydrodynamic conditions of the study region.

During <u>both</u> the 15-month spin-up <u>period</u> and the subsequent 12-month formal model <u>experiments</u> (see Section 2.6 and <u>Table 2</u>) simulations, the CSTM utilized five sediment classes (Table 1), <u>which</u> representing a range of sediment sizes and

characteristics. These included including three types of seabed sediments (clay, silt, and sand, corresponding to sediment Classes 1 to 3the first three categories of sediments in Table 1) and two types of Pearl River-derived sediments (Class 4 and Class 5 in Table 1). the sum of the fourth and fifth categories of sediments in Table 1. namely the The riverine sediments consisted of slow-settling single fine grains (Class 4) and high-settling flocs (Class 5), which were delivered into the model domain during both the 15-month spin-up period and the subsequent 12-month formal model experiments). The riverine flocs correspond to the flocculated fractions of clay and silt, whereas the single fine grains represent the non-flocculated components within the Pearl River-derived sediments, following the setting of Bever and MacWilliams (2013). To clarify, at the start of the 12-month formal model experiments, the retained Pearl River-derived sediments (Classes 4-5 in Table 1) that entered the model during the 15-month spin-up period were added as Class 1 and Class 2, respectively, to avoid contaminating the data analysis of the formal experiments. This approach allows for a better distinction between Pearl River sediment and seabed sediment, enabling separate analysis of the suspension, transport, and deposition of Pearl River-derived sediment (Harris et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2019). To clarify, the initial setup of the formal model simulations excludes the retained riverine sediment (Class 4 and Class 5 in Table 1) from the model domain during the spin-up period. The riverine floes correspond to the flocculated fractions of clay and silt, whereas the single fine grains represent the non-flocculated components within the Pearl River-derived sediments, following the setting of Bever and MacWilliams (2013). Specifically, the fractions of

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the two types of Pearl River-derived sediments were set at 40% and 60%, respectively, following Zhang et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2021). The parameters for all five sediment classes are summarized in Table 1. Sediment density, porosity, and erosion rate for all sediment classes were set to 2650 kg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.672 (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021), and  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  kg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Ralston et al., 2012), respectively. The settling velocity  $(w_s)$ , critical shear stresses for erosion  $(\tau_{ce})$ , and other parameters were set following previous studies or were based on model calibration (Ralston et al., 2012; Warner et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2025). Our model configuration incorporates seasonal variations in  $\tau_{ce}$ , supported by multiple lines of evidence from field observations, laboratory experiments, and numerical analyses (Dong et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2025). Previous studies have established a distinct seasonal pattern in the PRE, with winter  $\tau_{ce}$  values significantly exceeding those in summer. Dong et al. (2020)'s laboratory experiments using the UMCES-Gust Erosion Microcosm System (U-GEMS) on 2017-winter sediment samples yielded a  $\tau_{ce}$  of 0.26 Pa, which effectively reproduced observed suspended sediment concentration (SSC) in winter simulations. However, this value proved excessive for summer conditions, when where a  $\tau_{ce}$  of 0.15 Pa provided better agreement with field observations in summer simulations, indicating a winter-to-summer  $\tau_{ce}$  ratio of 1.73. Recent 2020-summer in situ measurements by Cao et al. (2025) using a benthic quadrapod-mounted 3D Profiling Sonar revealed a two-layer erosion threshold system: a surface "fluffy layer" with  $\tau_{ce} = 0.06$  Pa

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overlying a consolidated seabed with  $\tau_{ce} = 0.13$  Pa. The latter value aligns with <u>Dong</u> et al. (2020)'s summer calibration, suggesting that <u>Dong et al.</u> (2020)'s laboratory measurements, potentially affected by sediment consolidation during sample transport, might have missed the lower  $\tau_{ce}$  of the surface fluffy layer. Based on these consistent findings, we implemented a seasonal  $\tau_{ce}$  adjustment factor of 1.73 (winter/summer) in our model configuration (Table 1).

**Table 1.** CSTM model Sediment Properties

| Source  | <u>Seabed</u>                       |                |                         | Pearl River          |                     |  |
|---|-------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--|
| Class   | 1                                   | 2              | <u>3</u>                | 4                    | <u>5</u>            |  |
| Sediment Type                                       | Sediment Type Clay                  |                | Silt Sand               |                      | Flocs               |  |
| $\underline{w_{\underline{s}} \text{ (mm s}^{-1})}$ | <u>0.02°</u>                        | <u>1.2</u>     | <u>57<sup>d</sup></u>   | <u>0.005°</u>        | <u>0.6</u>          |  |
| Summer τ <sub>ce</sub> (Pa)                         | <u>0.14<sup>e</sup></u>             | 0.03           | <u>0.27<sup>d</sup></u> | $0.15^{\text{abef}}$ | 0.05 <sup>abe</sup> |  |
| Winter $\tau_{ce}$ (Pa)                             | <u>0.24<sup>f</sup></u>             | $0.05^{\rm f}$ | 0.47 <sup>df</sup>      | $0.26^{abf}$         | 0.09 <sup>abf</sup> |  |
| Fraction  | Spatially variable, see Figure 2g-i |                |                         | 40% ab               | 60% ab              |  |

<sup>a</sup>Zhang et al. (2019), <sup>b</sup>Zhang et al. (2021), <sup>c</sup>Calibrated, <sup>d</sup>Warner et al. (2017), <sup>e</sup>Cao et al. (2025), and

(Dong et al., 2020).

**Table 1. CSTM model Sediment Properties** 

| Source |   | Seabed |   | <del>Pear</del> l | Pearl River |  |
|--------|---|--------|---|-------------------|-------------|--|
| Class  | 1 | 2      | 3 | 4                 | 5           |  |

| Sediment Type                              | Clay               | Silt                            | Sand               | single grains        | flocs                |
|--|--------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>₩<sub>s</sub></i> (mm s <sup>=1</sup> ) | 0.02 <sup>e</sup>  | 1.2 <sup>e</sup>                | 57 <sup>d</sup>    | 0.005 <sup>e</sup>   | <del>0.6</del> °     |
| Summer τ <sub>ee</sub> (Pa)                | 0.14 <sup>eg</sup> | 0.03 <sup>e</sup>               | 0.27 <sup>d</sup>  | 0.15 <sup>abfg</sup> | 0.05 <sup>abeg</sup> |
| Winter τ <sub>ce</sub> (Pa)                | 0.24 <sup>ef</sup> | 0.05 <sup>ef</sup>              | 0.47 <sup>df</sup> | 0.26 <sup>abf</sup>  | 0.09 <sup>abef</sup> |
| <del>Fraction</del>                        | <del>Spatial</del> | <del>ly variable, see Fig</del> | 40% ab             | 60% <sup>ab</sup>    |                      |

<sup>a</sup>Zhang et al. (2019), <sup>b</sup>Zhang et al. (2021), <sup>c</sup>Ralston et al. (2012), <sup>d</sup>Warner et al. (2017), <sup>c</sup>Calibrated,

f(Dong et al., 2020), and gCao et al. (2025).

## 2.5 Wet and dry season regimes

The study area exhibits pronounced seasonal variability, which can be distinctly categorized into two primary seasons (Dong et al., 2004; Su, 2004; Liu et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). This seasonal classification is supported by multiple environmental parameters, including river freshwater discharge, riverine sediment load (Figure 3a), wind patterns (Figure 3b), air temperature (Figure 3c), and modelled wave conditions (Figure 3d-f) at a representative site (21.5°N, 114°E; corresponding to station W1 in Figure S1a, located immediately south of the PRE). The meteorological data for wind and air temperature were obtained from the NCEP reanalysis dataset, while wave parameters were derived from numerical model simulations. These comprehensive indicators collectively characterize the distinct seasonal patterns observed in the study area (Figure 3). The entire year (from April 1, 2017, to March 31, 2018) is typically divided into two main seasons: wet summer

463 (from April 1, 2017, to September 30, 2017) and dry winter (from October 1, 2017, to464 March 31, 2018).

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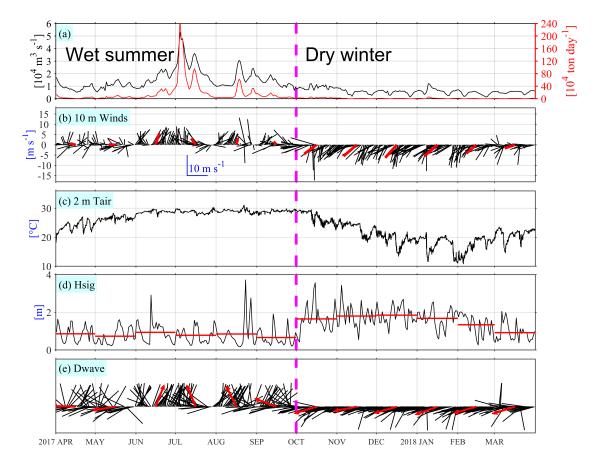
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During the wet summer season, freshwater discharge tends to be notably high, often exceeding 10,000 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and reaching a maximum of 53,000 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, with an average value of 15,266 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. This discharge constitutes a significant portion of the entire year, accounting for 72.06% of the annual total. During this period, the river carries a substantial sediment load of 32.85 megatons, constituting 95.17% of the total annual sediment transport. Prevailing winds predominantly blow from the south. For example, Figure 3b depicts the average monthly wind vector direction during the summer months as northward, with weak southeasterly winds in April, May, and September, and moderate southeasterly winds in July. June and August experience moderate southwesterly winds. The 2 m height air temperatures typically range between 20°C and 30°C. The daily average Hsig remains relatively low, with the monthly average Hsig less than 1 m. The wave propagation direction is generally consistent with the wind direction, being easterly in April and May, and southerly from June to September.

In stark contrast, the dry winter season demonstrates markedly lower runoff, typically falling below 10,000 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, with an average value of 5,953 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The sediment load during this period is significantly reduced to merely 1.67 megatons, marking a substantial decrease compared to the wet summer season. Prevailing winds during the dry winter are predominantly northeasterly, with relatively high wind speeds. Except for moderate wind intensity in March, the monthly average wind speed

in other months exceeds 5 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The 2 m height air temperatures typically range between 10°C and 25°C during this season. The wave propagation direction aligns with the prevailing northeasterly winds of the season, predominantly northeasterly.





**Figure 3.** Time series of (a) the daily Pearl River freshwater discharge and sediment load, (b) daily (black vectors) and monthly (red vectors) averaged 10-meter height winds, (c) hourly 2-meter height air temperature, daily (black) and monthly (red) averaged (d) significant wave height (Hsig, lines) and (f) wave propagation direction (vectors) weighted by Hsig<sup>2</sup>. Two distinct seasons are delineated by the dashed magenta line.

### 2.6 Model experiments

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To assess the relative importance of tides, waves, ambient shelf currents and residual water levels, seasonal variation in critical shear stress for erosion, the settling velocity, and the spin-up duration of Pearl River-derived sediment (Classes 4-5 in Table 1) initial conditions in the transport and dispersal of Pearl River-derived sediments, we conducted seven simulation experiments (Table 2). In all experiments, we implemented the Charnock approach within COAWST's bulk air-sea flux parameterization scheme to calculate surface wind stress using the NCEP 10-m wind product (Charnock, 1955; Fairall et al., 1996), ensuring consistency in wind stress forcing across all simulations. Exp 1 (the **Control** run) incorporated all the aforementioned forcing agents (including winds) and accounted for the seasonal variation in critical shear stress for erosion, with the winter critical shear stress for erosion set to be 1.73 times of that in summer. Exp 2 (NTS hereafter) was identical to Exp 1 but excluded tides, while Exp 3 (NWS hereafter) excluded waves. In Exp 4 (NAS hereafter), waves, tides, and the seasonal variation in critical shear stress for erosion were included, but the shelf current and residual water levels were was omitted (i.e., no subtidal circulation forcing at open boundaries) to examine the influence of the South China Sea circulation. Exp 5 (NVS hereafter) replicated the setup of Experiment 1, but with one modification: it used a constant critical shear stress for erosion ( $\tau_{ce}$ ) across both seasons, specifically adopting the summer  $\tau_{ce}$  value from Table 1 throughout the simulation (i.e., no seasonal adjustment between winter and summer). Then, Exp 5

(NVS hereafter) was identical to Exp 1, except that it did not account for the seasonal variation in critical shear stress for erosion, keeping the winter and summer values the same. Exp 6 (**DSV** hereafter) was identical to Exp 1, except that it set a double sediment settling velocity of the Exp 1. Finally, to assess the model's sensitivity to the spin-up duration of Pearl River-derived sediment, particularly regarding the retention of riverine sediments in both the water column and the seabed, we adopted the sediment distributions (Classes 1 to 5) from the Control run on March 31, 2018, as the alternative initial conditions for the Cycle experiment (designated as Exp 7, Cycle hereafter). This setup carries over the full year's evolution of riverine sediment transport and deposition from the Control run (Exp 1), including changes in all sediment classes, into the start of Exp 7. As a result, Exp 7 mainly evaluates how the presence of previously deposited riverine sediments influences subsequent sediment transport estimates. Finally, to evaluate the model's sensitivity to sediment initial conditions, particularly focusing on the retention of riverine sediments within the water column and the seabed, we utilized the Control run's Class 1-5 sediment suspensions and depositions recorded on March 31, 2018, as alternative initial conditions for the five sediment classes. This configuration was implemented in the second control simulation, designated as Exp 7 (Cycle hereafter). Consequently, this setup introduces a full year's worth of Pearl River derived sediment suspensions and depositions into the model domain at the start of the Cycle experiment.

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#### **Table 2.** Experiment Settings

| Experiments  | <u>Tides</u>                              | Waves       | Ambients       | <u> </u>        | <u>w</u> <u>s</u> | Re-run        |  |  |
|--|---|-------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------|--|--|
| Exp 1 (Control)  | Exp 1 (Control) $\checkmark$ $\checkmark$ |             | ✓              | <u>Variable</u> | Original          | ×             |  |  |
| Exp 2 (NTS) $\underline{\times}$ $\underline{\checkmark}$ Variable Original $\underline{\times}$                 |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| Exp 3 (NWS)   ✓   ×   Variable Original   ×  |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| Exp 4 (NAS)  | <u>✓</u>                                  | <u>✓</u>    | ×              | <u>Variable</u> | <u>Original</u>   | ×             |  |  |
| Exp 5 (NVS)  | $\checkmark$                              | <u>✓</u>    | <u>✓</u>       | Constant        | <u>Original</u>   | ×             |  |  |
| Exp 6 (DSV)  | <u>✓</u>                                  | <u>✓</u>    | <u>✓</u>       | <u>Variable</u> | <u>Double</u>     | ×             |  |  |
| Exp 7 (Cycle)  | <u> </u>                                  | <u>✓</u>    | <u>✓</u>       | <u>Variable</u> | <u>Original</u>   | <u>✓</u>      |  |  |
| The term 'Ambient  | s' denotes                                | ambient s   | shelf currents | and residua     | al water leve     | els. Variable |  |  |
| indicates simulations employing seasonally varying $\tau_{ce}$ values (from Table 1), while                      |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| <u>'Constant' refers to runs using exclusively the summer <math>\tau_{ce}</math> value throughout the entire</u> |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| experiment. 'Origin  | nal' desig                                | nates case  | es utilizing   | the settling    | velocities s      | specified in  |  |  |
| Table 1, whereas 'E  | ouble' in                                 | dicates sin | nulations wit  | h these valu    | es doubled.'      | <u>'</u>      |  |  |
|  |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| In all experiments, we implemented the Charnock approach within COAWST's   |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| bulk air sea flux parameterization scheme to calculate surface wind stress using the                             |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| NCEP 10 m wind product (Charnock, 1955; Fairall et al., 1996), ensuring consistency                              |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
| in wind stress forcing across all simulations.   |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |
|  |   |             |                |                 |                   |               |  |  |

3 Results

3.1 Seasonal hydrodynamics and <u>transport patterns of the</u> Pearl

River-derived sediment transport patterns

We quantified the spatial distributions of seasonal mean wind stress, Hsig, wave bottom orbital velocity (WBOV), and bottom shear stress for both the wet summer and dry winter periods (as defined in Section 2.5). These distributions serve as representative hydrodynamic conditions for typical summer and winter scenarios, respectively (Figure-4).

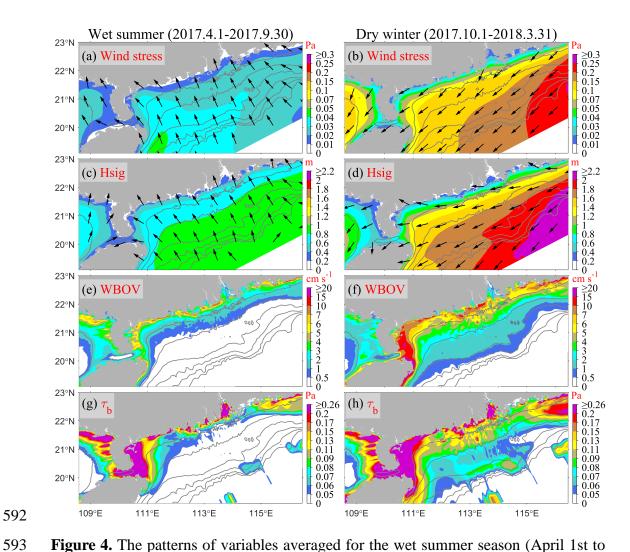
During summer, the prevailing winds predominantly originate from the south, with the average wind stress generally below 0.03 Pa, except in the eastern coastal waters of Hainan Island, where localized values reach up to 0.05 Pa (Figure: 4a). In contrast, during the dry winter season, the prevailing winds shift to a northeasterly direction, resulting in generally higher average wind stress compared to summer (Fig-ure 4b), with values typically exceeding 0.1 Pa in areas deeper than 40 m and surpassing 0.2 Pa in the offshore eastern Guangdong Coast near the Taiwan Bank (see Figure 1).

Corresponding to the seasonal wind stress (Figures 4a-b), the seasonally averaged wave characteristics in the PRE and the adjacent northern continental shelf of the South China Sea exhibit significant seasonal variations (Figures 4c-d).

During the wet summer season, the Hsig in the studied areathese areas is relatively low, with waves predominantly coming from the southeast (Figure 4c). The seasonal average Hsig across the entire shelf remains below 1 m, with areas deeper than 60 m showing Hsig values above 0.8 m, while in shallower nearshore regions (water depth < 20 m), Hsig is less than 0.6 m (Figure 4c). Corresponding to the lower Hsig in the wet summer, the seasonally-averaged WBOV is also relatively small,

generally less than 1 cm s<sup>-1</sup> in areas deeper than 40 m, except in some nearshore shallow water regions where it reaches up to 10 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 4e). The seasonally-averaged bottom shear stress during the wet summer is relatively high in the PRE, nearshore regions, and the Taiwan Bank, where tidal dissipation is strong (Figure 4g).

In the dry winter season, the Hsig increases significantly compared to the wet summer, with waves primarily coming from the northeast, although refraction occurs in some nearshore regions, changing the wave direction to southeasterly (Figure 4d). The area with water depths exceeding 60 m has a Hsig greater than 1.5 m, while in the 20-meter depth region, the Hsig reaches approximately 1 m (Figure 4d). Compared to the wet summer, the WBOV increases significantly in the PRE mouth and many nearshore regions, reaching up to 10-20 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 4d). The average bottom shear stress on the continental shelf outside the estuary also increases significantly during the dry winter compared to the wet summer (Figure 4f).



September 30th, 2017; Column 1) and the dry winter season (October 1st to March 31st, 2018; Column 2) in the Control case. Row 1 (a-b) depicts wind stress (color) and direction (vectors), Row 2 (c-d) shows Hsig (color) and propagation direction (vectors) weighted by Hsig², Row 3 (e-f) presents wave bottom orbital velocity (WBOV), and

Row 4 (g-h) displays bottom shear stress magnitude.

The patterns of residual sediment dispersal, flux, and deposition over the simulation period provide clear information on the mechanisms for sediment redistribution on both annual and seasonal timescales. The following This section

presents a detailed analysis of the seasonally averaged fields of salinity, flow, riverine SSC, depth-integrated riverine sediment flux, and riverine sediment deposition patterns during the wet summer season (Figure 5) and dry winter season (Figure 6) on the continental shelf.

During the wet summer season, when freshwater discharge is high and water column stratification is strongthe Pearl River discharges a significant amount of freshwater and sediment (Figure 3a), riverine SSC ("riverine" means only Pearl River-derived sediment, classes 4-5 in Table 1, as follows) is primarily influenced by advection from the buoyant river plumeresulting in an extensive expansion of the river plume (salinity less than 33.5 in Figure 3a, as follows) into the shelf sea, primarily in the surface layer (Figures 5a-b), high SSC regions closely align with the buoyant plume, as sediment is efficiently transported by the low-salinity, high-momentum freshwater outflow (Figures 5a-d). The buoyant river plume extends both northeastward and southwestward along the coastline (Figure 5a). Due to the influence of southerly winds (Figure 4a) and ambient shelf currents, the extent of the buoyant river plume extending northeastward is significantly higher than that extending southwestward.

In terms of riverine sediment suspension, its <u>estuarine turbidity maxima</u> (ETM)maximum turbidity zone (~100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) is situated in the shallow water area within the estuary (water depth < 10 m) (Figure 5c-d). Beyond the estuary, suspended riverine sediment disperses across the shelf through the <u>buoyant river</u>-plume. Further away from the estuary, its distribution aligns with that of the <u>buoyant river</u>-plume,

with concentrations diminishing as dispersal distance increases. The depth-integrated Integrating the advective horizontal flux (without including vertical processes such as settling, resuspension, or diffusion, which are handled separately within the model) of riverine sediment vertically offers a clear indication of the primary net transport pathway of the riverine sediment (Figure 5e). The riverine sediment exhibits both southwestward and northeastward fluxes (Figure 5e). Southw\textward coastal transport can extend as far as the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island. On the eastern side, the northeastward transport extends toward the Taiwan Bank. However, the primary transport pathway there is diverted southward (Figure 5e) due to the obstruction caused by summer upwelling near the Guangdong east coast (Chen et al., 2017a; Chen et al., 2017b), as evidenced by the cross-shore current in the bottom layer (Figure 5b). The southwestward transport pathway follows the region where the water depth is shallower than 30 m, with a riverine sediment flux of 10-20 g m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> m s<sup>4</sup>. In contrast, the northeastward transport pathway occurs in the 30–60 m depth range, but the riverine sediment flux is below 10 g m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> m·s<sup>-1</sup>. Throughout the wet summer season, substantial amounts of riverine sediment are deposited near the estuary (Figure 5d), particularly leading to notably high deposition of riverine sediment near the river mouth (> 100 mm). Outside the estuary, the thickness of riverine sediment is comparatively lower, but it can reach approximately ~0.5 mm during the wet summer season in certain areas off the coast of western Guangdong coast.

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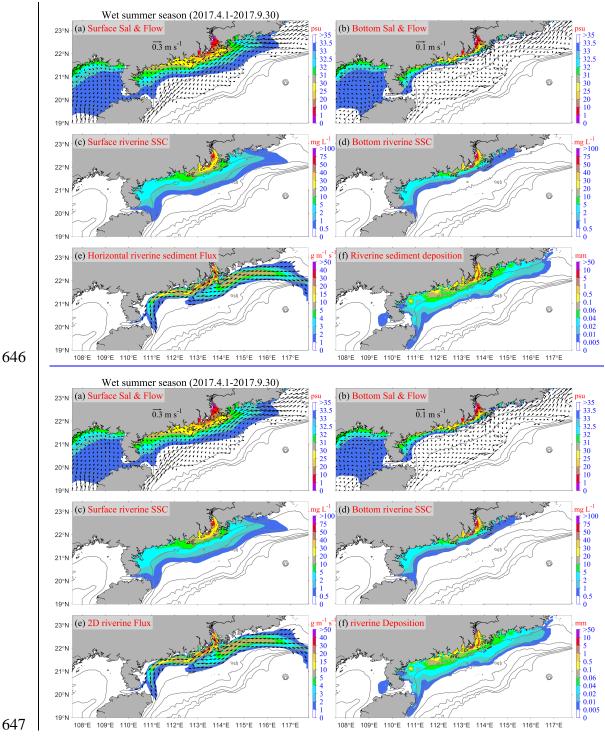
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**Figure 5.** Patterns averaged over the entire wet summer season in the Control case: (a) surface and (b) bottom salinity (color, psu) and flow (arrows, m s<sup>-1</sup>); (c) surface and (d) bottom riverine (classes 4 and 5 in Table 1, as follows) SSC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>); (e) depth-integrated horizontal riverine sediment transport rate (color, g m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and

direction (arrows); and (f) riverine <u>sediment</u> deposition thickness (mm) on the <u>seabed</u> during the wet summer season (mm). Flow vectors in regions with water depths exceeding 100 m are masked for clarity.

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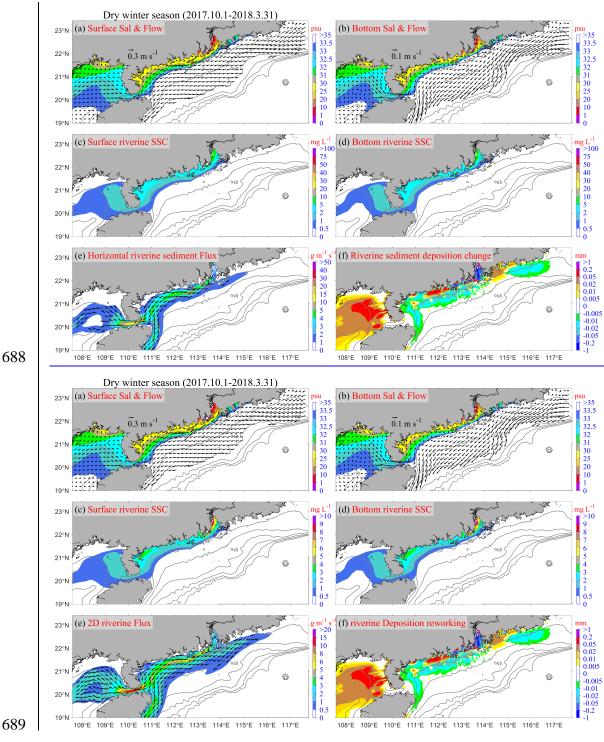
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In contrast, during winter, when river discharge is low and vertical mixing is more intense, the correlation between the buoyant plume and riverine SSC is much weaker, and the riverine SSC is largely governed by resuspension processes driven by strong northeasterly winds and waves, rather than by freshwater transport. During the dry winter season, runoff from the Pearl River significantly decreases compared to the wet summer (as indicated in Figure 3a), accompanied by strong northeasterly winds (Figure 4b). Consequently, the The expansion of the Pearl River buoyant plume is constrained to the southwestward direction by strong northeasterly winds only (Figure <u>6a</u>), resulting in a narrow cross-shore width of the <u>buoyant</u> plume and the formation of a strong horizontal salinity gradient (i.e., a salinity front, particularly within the 30–33.5 psu range shown in Figure 6a) outside the estuary (Figure 6a). Flow velocity increases is increased near this the salinity front, facilitating the allowing river plume to extend westward extension of the buoyant plume through the Qiongzhou Strait into the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf. With sediment load during winter nearly negligible, the suspended concentration of riverine sediment The riverine SSC is significantly lower than in compared to the wet summer: in the ETM zone inside the PRE, riverine SSC falls from roughly 100 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in summer to about 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, while on the offshore shelf, it decreases from approximately 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> to around 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (Figures 6c-db vs.

Sc-d). In areas beyond the estuary, it is typically less than 3 mg L<sup>+</sup>, whereas inside the estuary, it is around -5 mg L<sup>+</sup>. During the dry winter, following the transport path of river plumecoastal current, the riverine suspended sediment primarily moves southwestward along the coast, deflecting southward along the topography near the Leizhou Peninsula (Figure 6c). It then bifurcates near the east entrance of the Qiongzhou Strait, with one branch continuing into the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf, and the other one branch proceeding southward along the east coast of Hainan Island. Stronger winds and waves in the dry winter lead to the resuspension of a considerable amount of riverine sediments, originally deposited in "Proximal", "Western", and "Eastern" regions estuaries and shelf seas during summer. The resuspended sediments are then transported to coastal bays as well as to the sides and rears of the islands (Figure 6d). Additionally, a portion of the riverine sediment transported to the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf gets deposited on the seabed during the dry winter season.



**Figure 6.** Same as Figure 5, but for the dry winter season in the Control case. Notably, (f) illustrates the changes in riverine sediment (classes 4 and 5 in Table 1) deposition on the seabed at the end of the dry winter season compared to the end of the wet summer season.

| 7   | <b>D:</b> | 1 4      | 114     |            | -1 4       |          | 116   |
|-----|-----------|----------|---------|------------|------------|----------|-------|
| 3.4 | Kiverine  | seaiment | nuagets | and annual | deposition | over the | sneit |

To improve the understanding of the spatial temporal variabilities in the riverine sediment dispersal, and the estimation of the fate of the Pearl River sediment during the wet summer season, dry winter season, and throughout the year, we partitioned the model domain into eight distinct regions delineated by various transects as illustrated in Figure 1. The division criteria are mainly based on the distance from the estuary and the natural separation by the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island. These areas include:

- 1 Proximal region: Proximity to the estuary,
- 2 Southern region: Located deeper in the southern part of the estuary,
- To Seastern region: Eastern side of the estuary, closer to the shoreline,
- 706 Southeastern region: Further offshore on the eastern side of the estuary,
- Western region: Western side of the estuary, closer to the shoreline,
- 708 Southwestern region: Offshore on the western side of the estuary,

By dividing the model domain into these delineated regions, we calculated the riverine sediment flux for each transect, thereby determining the total riverine sediment volume retained in each region. Additionally, We present the sediment fluxes and retention amounts in different regions. Figure 7a-c illustrates the proportion of riverine sediment retention budget within each region, expressed as a

percentage of the total annual river sediment input, for the wet summer season, the dry winter season, and the entire year under the Control run case, respectively.

Meanwhile, Figure 7d illustrates the annual deposition over the shelf.

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The retention of Pearl River sediment on the continental shelf exhibits significant seasonal variations (Figures 7a-c). During summer (characterized by high discharge and low wind/waves), the PRE and continental shelf receive 95.17% of the annual sediment load from the Pearl River (Figures 3a and 7a). Approximately two-thirds of this sediment is retained in the "Proximal" region (Figure 7a). Additionally, influenced by the prevailing southerly winds and northeastward shelf background circulation, 13.01% of the annual sediment load is retained on the shelf east of the PRE, specifically in the "Eastern" and "Southeastern" regions (Figure 7a). Meanwhile, the shelf west of the PRE (5–8 regions) retains 15.87% of the annual load, with the "Western" region being the primary receiver, accounting for 8.48% (Figure 7a). Only 0.92% and 2.3% of the annual load enter the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions, respectively, during summer (Figure 7a). The "Southern" region retains a mere 1.3322% of the sediment (Figure 7a). In winter (characterized by low discharge and energetic winds/waves), the PRE and the continental shelf receive only 4.83% of the annual sediment load (Figures 3a and 7b). The sediment distribution during this season is primarily a result of the dynamic reworking of the sediments of summer deposition (Figure 7b). While the "Proximal" region continues to receive sediment, with a 1.38% increase in retention, the other five regions 2-6 regions east of the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island experience a decrease in sediment retention. This

sediment is predominantly transported and retained in to the more distant "Gulf" and "Distal" regions (Figure 7b). The annual sediment budget reveals that 66.45% of the Pearl River sediment is retained in the "Proximal" region (Figure 7c). Additionally, 9.2% is retained in the "Eastern" and "Southeastern" regions on the shelf east of the estuary (Figure 7c), primarily during summer (Figures 7a vs. 7c), while 24.12% is retained on the shelf west of the PRE estuary (5-8 regions), with the majority deposited in the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions distal regions of the Beibu Gulf and south of Hainan Island, mainly during winter (Figures 7b vs. 7c).

The annual deposition thickness of the Pearl River sediments, as illustrated in Figure 7d, reveals significant proximal deposition within and near the "Proximal" regionestuary, with many areas exceeding 10 mm despite winter resuspension and transport. Additionally, deposition on the inner shelf (water depth <60 m) to the "Eastern" regioneast of the PRE reached a magnitude of 0.1 mm, while the western shelf of the PRE ("Western" and "Gulf" regions) exhibited significantly greater accumulation. For instance, the deposition west of the Chuanshan Islands reached a magnitude of 0.5 mm. In the "Gulf" Beibu Gulf region, deposition was primarily concentrated in the northeastern part of the gulf, extending southwestward along the 30-60 m isobaths. Sediments transported southwestward along the eastern coast of Hainan Island and retained in the "Distal" regions did not predominantly settle on the seabed due to the greater water depth but remained largely suspended in the water column.

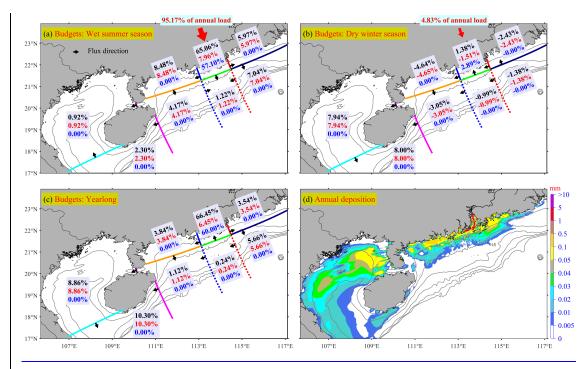


Figure 7. Riverine sediment (classes 4 and 5 in Table 1) retention budget percentages at eight regions (see Figure 1) during (a) the wet summer season, (b) the dry winter season, and (c) the entire year in the Control run case. (d) the annual deposition patterns spanning from April 1st, 2017, to March 31st, 2018 in the Control Run. All percentages displayed in the figure are relative to the annual riverine sediment load (see Figure 3a). The black percentage values represent the combined total of riverine sediment Class 4 and Class 5, while the red and blue values denote sediment Class 4 and Class 5, respectively. Arrows indicate the direction of net riverine sediment flux at each transect during the specified period.

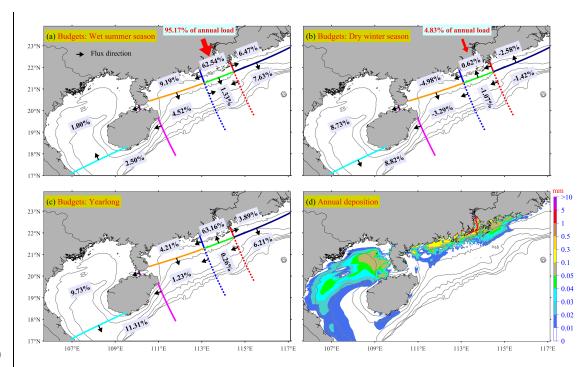


Figure 7. Riverine sediment retention budget percentages at eight regions during (a) the wet summer season, (b) the dry winter season, and (c) the entire year in the Control run case. (d) Same as Figure 5d, but shows the annual deposition patterns spanning from April 1st, 2017, to March 31st, 2018 in the Control Run. All percentages displayed in the figure are relative to the annual riverine sediment load. The black percentage values represent the combined total of riverine sediment Class 4 and Class 5, while the red and blue values denote sediment Class 4 and Class 5, respectively. Arrows indicate the direction of net riverine sediment flux at each transect during the specified period.

# 3.3 Model sensitivity experiments: relative roles of physical processes, sediment properties, and initial conditionspin-up durations

Six sensitivity simulations, namely Exp 2-7 (NTS, NWS, NAS, NVS, DSV, and

Cycle), were conducted (Table 2). As the latter three experiments do not impact hydrodynamics, we focus on presenting the seasonal mean differences in bottom shear stress between the Control run and the first three cases (NTS-Control, NWS-Control, NAS-Control) for both summer and winter (Figure 8).

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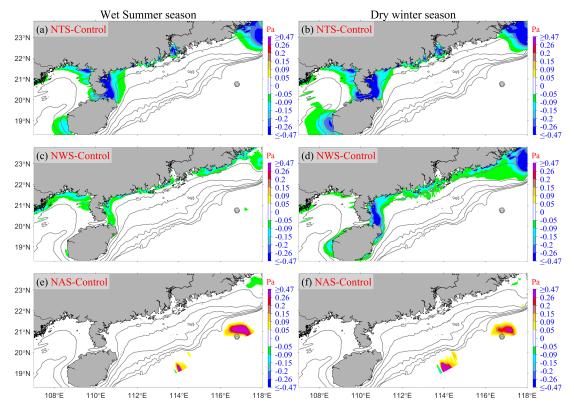
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Tidal and wave forces significantly influence bottom stress. In the NTS case, where tidal forces were excluded, the underestimation of bottom shear stress is was reduced relative to the Control run by a similar amount in both summer and winter due to the minimal seasonal variation in tidal intensity. This reduction underestimation primarily occurs occurred in the PRE, around the Taiwan Bank, and near the Leizhou Peninsula (Figures 8a-b). In contrast, in the NWS case, the reduction in bottom shear stress is greaterwhich excluded wave forces, showed a greater underestimation in winter than in summer, reflecting the intense seasonal variability of wind and wave activities (Figures 3b, 3d-e, and 4a-f). Unlike the NTS case, the NWS-induced decrease occurs mainly case mainly underestimated the bottom stress in the nearshore areas outside the PRE, although similar declines are also foundthough it similarly underestimated the bottom stress around the Taiwan Bank and along the eastern side of the Leizhou Peninsula (Figures 8c-d). For the NAS case, where ambient shelf currents and residual water levels at the model boundaries were excluded, the impact on bottom stress is was minimal compared to the NTS and NWS cases. The effect is was almost negligible on the inner shelf at depths less than 100 m, with widespread impacts generally below 0.02 Pa. Some pronounced deviations overestimations are were noted in localized deeper areas near the southern boundary boundaries of the

domain (Figures 8e-f). These deviations, likely arising from boundary condition effects, are situated far from the Pearl River-derived sediment distribution areas (Figures 5-6). Consequently, probably being artifacts, but these changes in bottom stress, being distant from the Pearl River sediment distribution areas, they do not influence did not affect the dynamics of the Pearl River-derived sediment transport over the continental shelf (Figures 8e-f).





**Figure 8.** The seasonal mean differences in bottom shear stress between the Control run and the following cases: (a-b) NTS (NTS minus Control), (c-d) NWS (NWS minus Control), and (e-f) NAS (NAS minus Control). The first column represents the wet summer season, while the second column corresponds to the dry winter season.

Following the bottom shear stress analysis (Figure 8)Then, we analyzed seasonal riverine sediment transport and deposition patterns ("riverine" means only the Pearl River-derived sediment, classes 4-5 in Table 1, as follows) by comparing the control run with six sensitivity experiments (NTS-Control, NWS-Control, NAS-Control, NVS-Control, DSV-Control, and Cycle-Control) (Figures 9-11). The study focuses on the Pearl River-derived sediment dynamics, indicated by surface circulation and riverine SSC distribution patterns (Figures 5 and 6). Specifically, Figures 9 and 10 present seasonal surface currents and SSC differences between control and sensitivity runs, complemented by deposition pattern differences in Figure 11.

For the NTS case versus Compared to the Control case, the NTS case demonstrates that while tides significantly enhance affected bottom stress (Figures 8a-b) but have had minimal impact on the mean circulation (Figures 5a, 6a, and 9a-b), and their. The exclusion of tides substantially reduced reduces bottom shear stress by over 0.2 Pa in the PRE and near the Leizhou Peninsula, weakening sediment resuspension. Consequently, increased deposition of the Pearl River-derived sediments occurs occurred inside the PRE, its adjacent areas, and on both sides of the Leizhou Peninsula (Figure 11a). During summer, riverine SSC notably decreased decreases in the 1-6 regionsPRE and the inner shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula (Figure 9a). This reduction pattern persisted persists in winter, particularly in the PRE and on both sides of the Leizhou Peninsula (Figure 9b).

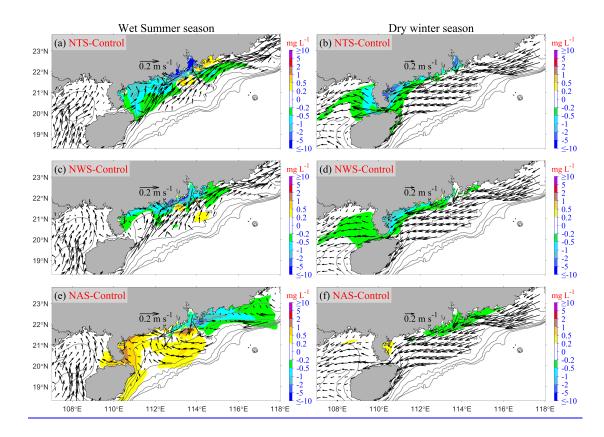
In the NWS case with waves excluded, like Like the NTS, NWS had has a relatively minor impact on circulation (Figures 5a, 6a, and 9c-d). However, NWS

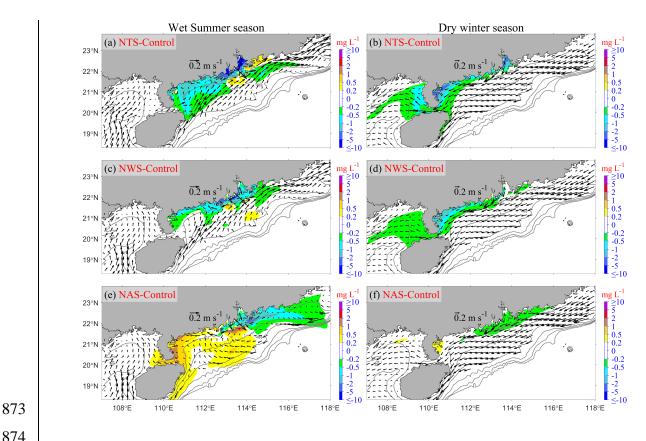
Pearl River-derived sediment being deposited outside the PRE and in the nearshores of "Western" and "Eastern" regions nearshore shallow waters along the Guangdong Coastline (regions significantly affected by waves) (Figure 11b). Consequently, the riverine SSC in summer is was much lower in the downstream of the PRE and in 2—6 regions on the inner shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula (Figure 9c). This similar reduction pattern persisted persists in the winter, but is slightly in more western regions (Figure 9d).

For the NAS case in which ambient shelf currents and residual water levels at the model boundaries were excluded, the impact on bottom stress is was minimal compared to the NTS and NWS cases. However, NAS has had a relatively large impact on the mean circulation (Figures 5a, 6a, and 9e-f). It mainly influences influenced the summer circulation. Specifically, ignoring these factors would cause the relatively strong northeastward flow along the Guangdong coast to become very weak (Figure 9e). When it comes to winter, the influence of NAS on circulation is was relatively small. That is, in the absence of the background residual water level and residual circulationeurrent, due to the strong northeastward northeasterly winds in winter, the overall circulation is was still southwestward (Figure 9f). The underestimated decreased northeastward flow in summer leads led to the Riverine SSC being scarcely transported to the vicinity of the "Eastern" and "Southeastern" regions Eastern Guangdong Coastline. Consequently, the Riverine SSC there is was decreased (Figure 9e) and sediment deposition is was significantly reduced (Figure

11c). Most of the suspended Riverine sediment <u>is\_was\_transported southwestward</u>, resulting in an increase in the Riverine SSC along the <u>"Western" regionWestern Guangdong Coastline</u>. In winter, since most of the suspended Riverine sediment <u>has had</u> been transported southwestward in summer, the Riverine SSC <u>decreases decreased</u> compared to the Control run (Figure 9f). Ultimately, NAS mainly <u>causes caused</u> a significant reduction in sediment deposition <u>in the "Eastern" regionnear the Eastern Guangdong Coastline</u>, while sediment deposition <u>increases increased</u> in the "Gulf" <u>Beibu Gulf</u> and the "Distal" regions (Figure 11c).







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Figure 9. Same as Figure 8, but for seasonal mean differences in surface riverine SSC between the Control run and the following cases: (a-b) NTS-Control, (c-d) NWS-Control, and (e-f) NAS-Control. The first column represents the wet summer season, while the second column corresponds to the dry winter season. Vectors show the seasonal mean surface current fields in each experiment. Note that the riverine SSC values shown in the figure correspond to classes 4 and 5 as defined in Table 1.

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For the NVS case, in which the winter and summer critical shear stress for erosion were kept identical, the summer conditions of NVS are were precisely the same as those of the Control run (Figure 10a). Since the critical shear stress for erosion in winter is was lower than that in the Control run, this leads led to an increase

in re-suspension within in the PRE, along the Western Guangdong Coastline, "Proximal", "Western" and in the "Gulf" regions Beibu Gulf area, increasing resulting in an increase in Riverine SSC (Figure 10b). Eventually, this causes caused a reduction in the deposition thickness of the Pearl River-derived sediments on the continental shelf in these regions (Figure 11d). In the DSV case, where sediment settling velocity was doubled compared to the Control run, riverine SSC patterns remained broadly similar between tothe two scenarios in both summer and winter. However, significant reductions occur occurred in the primarily primarialy high SSC areas in the Control run in both summer and winter, with regions of higher SSC in the Control run experiencing the most pronounced declines (Figures 5c, 6c, 10c-d). This The enhanced settling velocity results resulted in an increased deposition of Pearl River-derived sediments along the Guangdong coastline ("Western" and "Eastern" regions) and the eastern "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf, accompanied by a reduced deposition thickness in the western

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"Gulf" region Beibu Gulf (Figure 11e).

In the Cycle case, the initial conditions for the five sediment classes were set using the Class 1-5 sediment suspensions and depositions from the Control run on March 31, 2018, initiating a second control simulation. new riverine sediment input and its transport processes during the Cycle experiment are nearly identical to those in the Control run. Therefore, compared to the Control run, the Cycle experiment specifically focuses on examining the impact of the presence of pre-existing Pearl River-derived sediments on estimating the riverine SSC and the annual seabed

riverine sediment budget in the second year. This setup introduced a full year's result of Pearl River derived sediment suspensions and depositions into the model domain at the start. Consequently, during the initial summer period, the Cycle case experiences elevated riverine SSC in the primary depocenters identified in the Control run (Figures 7d and 10e), while this effect is diminished by winter (Figure 10f). This experiment specifically examines the impact of pre-existing Pearl River derived sediments in the water column and seabed on annual seabed budgets. To isolate this effect, the sediment thickness from the Control run's end on March 31, 2018, was subtracted as a baseline before comparing annual depositions with the Control run (Figure 11f). Figure 11f thus captures the transport trends of pre-existing riverine sediments in the second year, demonstrating that riverine sediments deposited during the first year can be resuspended and transported further southwestward during the second year. This migration is driven by the annually averaged net alongshore coastal current, which remains predominantly directed toward the southwest. The current becomes stronger during the winter monsoon under the influence of prevailing northeasterly winds, whereas the opposing summer southerly winds are comparatively weaker, indicating a persistent southwestward sediment transport trend over multi-year timescales. The Cycle case changed the downstream PRE deposition patterns, with increased sediment accumulation in downstream regions and notable changes in deposition thickness in parts of the Beibu Gulf, revealing a long-term southwestward sediment transport trend.

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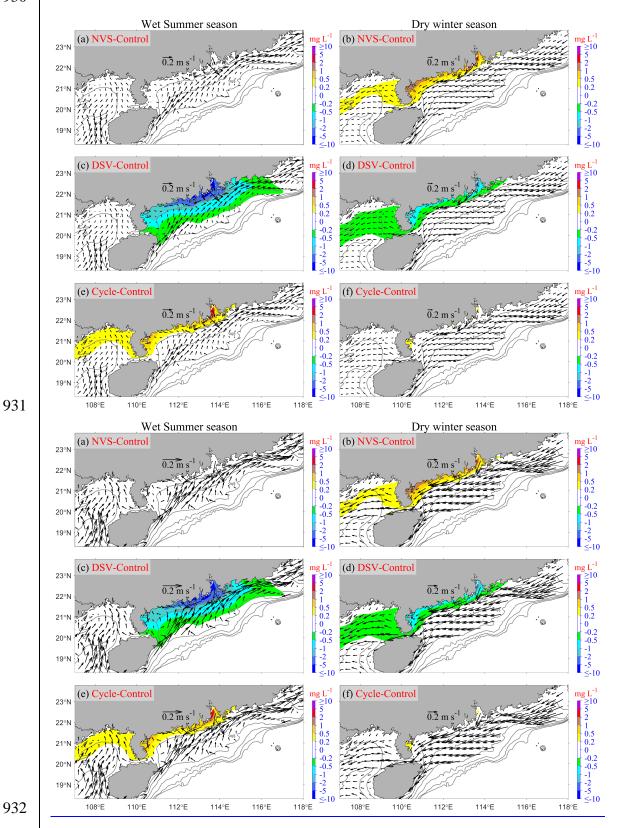
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**Figure 10.** Same as Figure 9, but for the latter three experiments (NVS, DSV, Cycle). (a-b) NVS-Control, (c-d) DSV-Control, and (e-f) Cycle-Control.

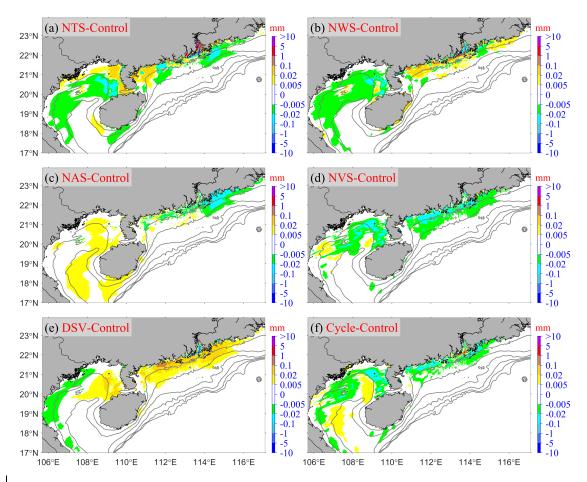


Figure 11. The differences in annual deposition <u>patterns of Pearl River-derived</u> <u>sediment (classes 4-5, Table 1) on the seabed</u> between the Control run and the following cases: (a) NTS-Control, (b) NWS-Control, (c) NAS-Control, (d) NVS-Control, (e) DSV-Control, and (f) Cycle-Control.

# 3.4 Modeled regional retention budgets in sensitivity experiments

Finally, we analyze the impact of various factors on the annual riverine sediment

retention budget across different regions. Specifically, Figure 12 illustrates the annual riverine sediment retention budget in various regions under six sensitivity simulations, namely Exp 2-7 (including NTS, NWS, NAS, NVS, DSV, and Cycle). It should be noted that the retention percentages budget and their variations discussed hereinafter are all relative to the annual riverine sediment load (Figure 3a).

As shown in Figure 12, tides and sediment settling velocity have the most significant impact on the retention in the "Proximal" region. In the NTS case and the DSV case, the retention in the "Proximal" region is 70.92% and 71.57%, respectively (Figures 12a and 12e), which is higher than 66.45% in the Control run (Figure 7c). This indicates that ignoring tides will cause the "Proximal" region PRE—to capture more riverine sediments, and a larger settling velocity will result in more riverine sediments being retained within the "Proximal" regionPRE. In these two cases, compared with the Control run, the retention in the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions decreases. Meanwhile, the DSV case causes the greatest increase in retention in the "Western" region, with an increase of +1.91%.

Furthermore, the NWS also leads to a 2.2% increase in retention in the "Proximal" region (Figure 12b), which is lower than that in the NTS case. This shows that tides dominate resuspension versus deposition in the "Proximal" region estuary more than waves do. However, for the "Western" region on the shelf west of the PRE, compared with the NTS case, the NWS causes a greater increase in retention, indicating that waves dominate the resuspension of Pearl River-derived sediments in these nearshore areas more than tides do.

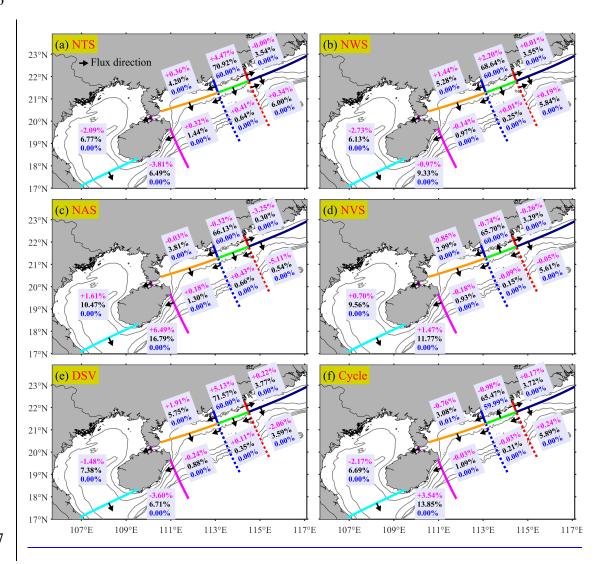
For the shelf east of the PRE (i.e., the "Eastern" and "Southeastern" regions), NAS brings about the most dramatic changes. In the absence of ambient shelf currents and residual water levels, the retention of Pearl River-derived sediments in these regions drops from 9.1% to 0.84% compared to the Control run (Figure 12c). Meanwhile, ignoring these background circulations results in a substantial overestimation increase in of the retention in the "Distal" region, with an increase of 6.49%.

In tThe NVS case, where the winter and summer critical shear stress for erosion are set to be identical, ignoring the fact that the critical erosion stress in winter should be higher than that in summer leads to a decrease in the retention of the Pearl River-derived sediments in ①-⑥ regionson the shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island compared to the Control run. The reduction ranges from -0.05% to -0.85% (Figure 12d), which in turn causes the retention in the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions to increase by 0.7% and 1.47%, respectively. Overall, compared with scenarios that ignore physical processes and alter sediment settling velocity (NTS, NWS, NAS, and DSV), the NVS scenario, which does not take into account the seasonal variation of critical shear stress for erosion, has a relatively smaller impact on the retention of the Pearl River-derived sediments.

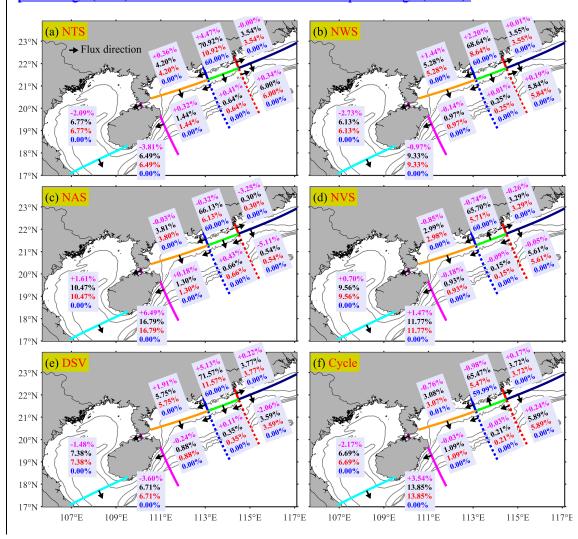
Finally, in the Cycle case, the end state of the Control run is used as the initial conditions, and a second control simulation is performed. To to isolate the pre-existing Pearl River-derived sediments, the initial retentions (the end conditions of the Control run on March 31, 2018) were are subtracted before calculating the retention in the

Cycle case (Figure 12f). In the Cycle case, tThe retention of Pearl River-derived sediments in 1-6 regions on the shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island shows little variation, with values ranging from -0.98% to +0.24% compared to the Control run (Figure 12f). The most significant changes are the decreases and increases in retention in the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions, which are -2.17% and +3.54%, respectively, compared to the Control run. This demonstrates the long-term trend of southwestward transport of Pearl River-derived sediments on the shelf (relative to the Control run).





**Figure 12.** Same as Figure 7c, but for the other six cases: (a) NTS, (b) NWS, (c) NAS, (d) NVS, (e) DSV, and (f) Cycle, respectively. All percentages shown in the figure are expressed relative to the annual riverine sediment load (see Figure- 3a). Magenta values denote the differences in retention percentage of riverine sediments (Classes 4 and 5; Table 1) between the Control run and each sensitivity case. Black values represent the combined retention of Classes 4 + 5, while blue values indicate Class 5 alone. To obtain the retention percentage for Class 4, simply subtract the Class 5 percentage (blue) from the combined Classes 4 + 5 percentage (black).



| 1007 | Figure 12. Same as Figure 7c, but for the other six cases: (a) NTS, (b) NWS, (c) NAS, |
|------|---|
| 1008 | (d) NVS, (e) DSV, and (f) Cycle, respectively. The magenta percentage values          |
| 1009 | indicate the retention percentage budget differences between the Control run and the  |
| 1010 | sensitivity cases.  |
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#### 4. Discussions

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# 4.1 Fidelity of our model results

We simulated the suspension, transport, and deposition of the Pearl River-derived sediment over the shelf from April 2017 to March 2018. Comparisons with multiple types of observations demonstrated that the model simulation reasonably well captured the regional patterns and temporal variability of water levels (Figures S2-S4), surface waves (Figures S5-S6), estuarine and shelf currents (Figures S8a-b and S9-S10), salinity and temperature (Figures S7a-b and S8c-d), and SSC (Figures S7c and S8e-f). Even though we have made substantial efforts to collect observational data and conduct calibration and validation, the large scope of the study area and the fact that the study covers an entire year mean that there are some inherent challenges to achieving a complete analysis. The real-world situation may be extremely complex, and these validations may still not be sufficient to address all issues (such as the accurate parameterization of sediment characteristics and their seasonal variations, as well as the proportion of slow-settling fine grains and flocculated flocs materials in riverine sediments). Therefore, in this section, we intend to discuss the fidelity of our results. Studies have demonstrated a seasonal dependence of sediment critical shear stress (Xu et al., 2014; Briggs et al., 2015). On the Louisiana shelf, seabed erodibility is controlled by grain size, sediment age, proximity to river sources, bioturbation, and flood deposits, and is higher during the wet season than the dry season (Xu et al., 2014). It is also linked to seasonal hypoxia: sites experiencing hypoxic (hypoxia

greater than 75% of the time, hypoxia defined as < 2 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>) conditions exhibit greater erodibility, whereas the normoxic (hypoxia less than 25% of the time) site shows the lowest erodibility (Briggs et al., 2015). These findings imply that sediment models should incorporate seasonal variations in critical shear stress, parameterized using field observations or seasonal sampling data. Similarly, in the PRE, Firstly, fieldaccording to previous observations, laboratory experiments, and numerical sensitivity analyses have shown, it has been demonstrated that the critical shear stress for erosion of sediments in the PRE is higher in winter/dry season than in summer/wet season (Dong et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2025). The summer period in the PRE also coincides with seasonal hypoxia (Cui et al., 2018; Cui et al., 2022), which likely contributes to this seasonal variation in erodibility. Therefore, we considered the seasonal variation of critical shear stress for erosion in a suite of model experiments, that is, increasing the critical shear stress for erosion in winter. This setting was also applied during the 15-month spin-up before conducting the model experiments (the driving force of the spin-up is realistic, i.e., the settings are consistent with those of the Control run). After realistic reworking during the spin-up, the bed sediment grain size distribution (used as initial conditions in the Control run and all Sensitivity cases except the Cycle case) is quite close to the initial prototype (Figures 2d-f vs. 2g-i) compared to our previous spin-up (not presented in this version; however, it can be referred to in our initially submitted preprint and Supplement), which did not consider such temporal variability.

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case)not considered, the model results suggest of the NVS case indicate that such a setting underestimates the a reduced retention of Pearl River-derived sediments in ①

—⑥ regionson the shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula and Hainan Island during winter, alongside an increased while overestimating the retention in the "Gulf" and "Distal" regions. However, Even so, these differences estimation errors are relatively small in magnitude minor—compared to the annual load (Figure 12d). Thus Consequently, accounting for the consideration of the seasonal variations of in critical shear stress for erosion has a limited relatively small—influence impact—on the annual—scale retention\_patterns. Instead, it has a more significant effect on the bed sediment grain size distribution at the bottom.

Furthermore, although the initial bed sediment grain size distribution we obtained by considering the seasonal variation of critical shear stress for erosion is quite close to the initial prototype, there are still some differences (Figures 2d f vs. 2g-i). Additionally, the lack of in situ grain size distributions in part of the model domain (especially in the Beibu Gulf) may also introduce some uncertainties in sediment transport there. Does the variation in the proportion of bed sediment grain sizes have a significant impact on the model results? It should be noted that here we are not referring to the distribution proportion of riverine sediments on the bed. To address this question, we designed a new experiment (Cycle2). We used the end state of the Control run on March 31, 2018, as the initial conditions for Cycle2. However, different from the Cycle case, in Cycle2, we changed both Class 1 and Class 4 sediments in the bed and water column at the end state of the Control run to Class 1,

and both Class 2 and Class 5 sediments to Class 2. That is, there were no pre-existing Pearl River derived sediments in the model domain when Cycle2 started. The results of Cycle2 show that the retention in the "Proximal" and "Western" regions decreased by 0.13% and 0.03% of the annual riverine sediment load, respectively, while the retention in the "Eastern", "Southeastern", "Southern", "Southwestern", "Gulf", and "Distal" regions increased by 0.03%, 0.03%, 0.01%, 0.02%, 0.07%, and 0.01%, respectively. This indicates that the impact of this uncertainty in the proportion of bed sediment grain sizes is relatively small. The dispersal distance of fluvial sediments on continental shelves is strongly influenced by settling velocity (Harris et al., 2008). For example, Apennine-derived sediments, characterized by lower settling velocities, travel farther before deposition than Po River sediments, which are predominantly flocculated and settle more rapidly (Fox et al., 2004; Harris et al., 2008). Likewise, our results suggest that selecting Choosing an appropriate settling velocity parameter exerts a greater control on sediment dispersal patterns may be more important than accounting for the seasonal variations of in critical shear stress for erosion (Figure 12d vs. 12e). The results of the DSV case show that a sediment settling velocity twice that of the Control run leads to the highest retention in the "Proximal" and "Western" regions across all experiments (Figure 12e), while reducing the retention in the "Distal" region (Figure 12e). Although the settling velocity we adopted is based on previous studies (Xia et al., 2004) and model calibrations (Figures S7c and S8e-f), with due consideration given to the presence of slow-settling single fine grains and high-settling flocs in riverine

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sediments, certain discrepancies might still exist in this setting. These discrepancies are contingent upon the actual magnitude of the low settling velocity of fine grains. In almost all cases, all flocs are retained in the "Proximal" region (Figure 12a-e), and only in the Cycle case, flocs accounting for 0.01% of the annual load are retained in the "Western" region west of the "Proximal" region (Figure 12f, blue values), indicating that high-settling flocs hardly leave the "Proximal" region vicinity of the PRE. This finding shows close alignment with, yet exhibits minor distinctions from, the observed patterns in the Mekong Estuary Shelf (Xue et al., 2012). Xue et al. (2012) found that while the preponderance of flocs is deposited on the Mekong delta front precisely at the river mouth, a quantity equivalent to 1.6% of the annual riverine sediment load of flocs is deposited on the downdrift delta front further downstream from the river mouth. This is mainly because the estuarine estuary bay of the PRE is wider and there are numerous islands near the river mouth. The overwhelming majority of flocs are either deposited within the estuarine bay or captured by the surrounding islands. In conclusion, our results are affected by the settling velocity of fine grains. More field observations and studies on model parameterization regarding the settling velocity of fine grains are urgently needed.

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As previously noted, we classified riverine sediments into two categories based on established research: 40% slow-settling fine grains and 60% fast-settling flocs. This 40%/60% distribution is consistent with the setting from earlier studies (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021), as summarized in Table 1. While such assumptions are necessary for modeling purposes, the actual composition of riverine sediments in

natural environments remains uncertain. To evaluate the sensitivity of our results to this uncertainty, we conducted a conceptual analysis. If all riverine sediments were hypothetically composed entirely of fast-settling flocs, they would be completely retained near the source, with no transport to the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf. However, this scenario is inconsistent with the radionuclide measurements obtained from "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf surface sediment samples (Lin et al., 2020). On the other hand, if all sediments were considered slow-settling fine grains, only 16.13% would be retained in "Proximal" region proximally under normal conditions (or 28.9% in the DSV case), a result that diverges significantly from established research. Chen et al. (2023) analyzed high-resolution seismic data and demonstrated that approximately 35% of the Pearl River-derived sediment has been transported to offshore shelf areas over the past 6,500 years, suggesting that 65% was deposited proximally. Our findings are in close agreement, indicating that 66.45% of the Pearl River sediments are retained in the proximal region, while 33.55% are transported elsewhere. This consistency with Chen et al. (2023) supports the validity of our approach. Taken together, these analyses confirm that the 40%/60% fraction assumption is a reasonable approximation for modeling purposes. Furthermore, our model results demonstrate reasonable reliability in other aspects. <u>Liu et al. (2009)</u> and <u>Ge et al. (2014)</u> using chirp sonar profiles from the inner shelf of the South China Sea combined with Zong et al. (2009)'s onshore borehole data, found that the thickness of Pearl River-derived sediments within the PRE since the Holocene

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is over 20 m, while the mud thickness in the shallow waters west of the Chuanshan

Islands (see Figure 1) is approximately 5-10 m. Our calculated annual sediment thicknesses for these two regions are approximately 2 mm and 0.3 mm (Figure 7d), respectively. Given our model's annual riverine sediment load of 34.52 megatons, which has been—significantly reduced due to recent human activities (Dai et al., 2008),—compared to the widely accepted Holocene average of around 90 megatons (Liu et al., 2009), we estimate the total sediment thickness over the past 7500 years to be roughly 39 meters and 6 meters for these depositional zones, consistent with previous studies (Liu et al., 2009; Zong et al., 2009).

Furthermore, our results reveal that 8.86% of the riverine sediment derived from the Pearl River is transported to the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf (Figure 7c), primarily during the winter season (Figure 7b). This finding is not only consistent with confirms the earlier speculation proposed by Ge et al. (2014) but also supplements the conclusions drawn by Lin et al. (2020). From a hydrodynamic perspective, Shi et al. (2002) found that the net flux of currents in the Qiongzhou Strait is westward throughout the year. Our results for both wet summer (Figures 5a-b) and dry winter currents (Figures 6a-b) in the Qiongzhou Strait are consistent with Shi et al. (2002). This westward flow contributes to the westward transport of Pearl River sediment to the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf.

## 4.2 Implications of our model results

The fate of sediment dispersed from the river into the coastal ocean involves at least four processes: supply via <u>buoyant</u> plumes; initial deposition; resuspension and

transport by marine processes; and long-term net accumulation (Wright and Nittrouer, 1168 1995). In general, a significant proportion of river sediment tends to deposit in the estuary and its vicinity (Walsh and Nittrouer, 2009; Hanebuth et al., 2015).

Walsh and Nittrouer (2009) present a hierarchical decision tree designed to predict the marine dispersal system at a river mouth based on fundamental oceanographic and morphological characteristics. Within this framework, the fate of riverine sediment deposition is characterizedean be determined using key factors, including –riverine sediment discharge (greater or less than 2 megatons), shelf width (greater or less than 12 km), and wave and tidal range conditions (greater or less than 2 m) (Walsh and Nittrouer, 2009).

We aim to analyze our PRE simulation results using the framework established by Walsh and Nittrouer (2009). Although the Pearl River's riverine sediment discharge (Figure 2a) exceeds the Walsh and Nittrouer (2009)'s 2 megatons per year threshold, most of the sediment still remains deposited near the estuary (Figure 7c), indicating an estuarine accumulation-dominated (EAD) system, unlike the hierarchical decision tree proposed by Walsh and Nittrouer (2009). Outside the estuary, the continental shelf, spanning 200-220 km in width (Liu et al., 2014), significantly exceeds —Walsh and Nittrouer (2009)'s 12 km threshold. As a result, most escaped riverine sediments tend to accumulate on the shelf rather than being captured by submarine canyons (Figures 7c-d). This wide, shallow shelf promotes sediment deposition and limits the direct transport of fine sediments into deeper waters (Walsh and Nittrouer, 2009). Subsequently, given that the annual mean tidal range (Chen et

al., 2016; Gong et al., 2018b) and Hsig (Figure 3d) near the PRE are both below the 2 m threshold established by Walsh and Nittrouer (2009), the majority of escaped riverine sediments are predominantly deposited in the proximal depo-center. Our findings demonstrate that most of our outcomes are consistent with the hierarchical decision tree proposed by Walsh and Nittrouer (2009), except for the application of the 2 megatons per year threshold for riverine sediment discharge. This phenomenon can primarily be attributed to the unique geomorphological characteristics of the PRE, including its broad mouth (Figures 1 and S1), extensive accommodation space encompassing approximately 2385 km<sup>2</sup> of water area (Wu et al., 2018), the presence and sheltering effect of numerous adjacent islands (Li et al., 2024b), and the division of fluvial sediment discharge through eight distinct outlets (Hu et al., 2011).

The monsoonal nature of the northern SCS (Figures 4a-b) induces pronounced seasonal variations in Pearl River-derived sediment transport and deposition (Figures 5 and 6). During the summer wet season, the Pearl River delivers approximately 95.17% of its annual sediment load to the PRE and the adjacent shelf (Figure 7a) under relatively calm wind and wave conditions (first column of Figure 4), leading to predominant proximal deposition (Figure 5f). In contrast, the winter dry season is characterized by strong northeasterly monsoon winds that generate high-energy waves (second column of Figure 4), significantly increasing bottom shear stress (Figures 4g-h). This process resuspends previously deposited sediments and facilitates their redistribution, particularly toward regions such as the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf (Figure 6f).

The PRE exhibits distinctive geomorphological features, yet dispersal of its fine-grained sediment transport on the continental shelf conforms to general patterns observed offshore of in other monsoon-influenced estuarine systems. Similar multiple-stage sediment delivery and dispersal mechanisms have been documented offshore of in-various major estuaries and their adjacent shelves, including the Yellow River Shelf Estuary (Bian et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2015), Changjiang River Shelf Estuary (Zeng et al., 2015), and Mekong River Shelf Estuary (Xue et al., 2012; Eidam et al., 2017), demonstrating comparable sedimentary processes under monsoon climatic influences. In these systems, sediment transport is not confined to a single process but rather occurs in stages, influenced by seasonal variations in hydrodynamic conditions. Like the PRE Shelf, the Mekong Shelf experiences distinct phases of sediment deposition, with fine sediments being delivered during periods of high river discharge and then redistributed by waves and tidal forces, particularly during monsoonal shifts (Xue et al., 2012; Eidam et al., 2017). These complex patterns highlight the interplay between riverine inputs, coastal morphology, oceanographic processes in shaping sediment dynamics. These sediment delivery patterns have implications beyond sediment fate, particularly for carbon cycling. Sediment deposition in coastal and shelf areas plays a significant role in trapping organic carbon, influencing long-term carbon burial rates (LaRowe et al., 2020). Sediment dynamics directly influence the fate of organic carbon (OC) in marine environments, where sediments function as both a sink and a source of OC, playing a pivotal role in global carbon cycling (Repasch et al., 2021).

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The multiple-step transport mechanisms can lead to varying carbon storage locations, affecting the sequestration potential of these systems. Additionally, resuspension and redistribution of sediments, especially during high-energy events, may expose previously buried organic material, leading to carbon remineralization and influencing coastal nutrient cycles and ecosystem health (Ståhlberg et al., 2006; Moriarty et al., 2018). Therefore, understanding these patterns is crucial for assessing the broader impacts on carbon cycling and coastal biogeochemical processes.

Furthermore, we evaluated the contributions of different physical processes by comparing the Control run with sensitivity cases. Our analysis reveals distinct roles of tidal forces, wave action, and background circulation in governing the transport and deposition of Pearl River derived sediments (Figures 8, 9, 11a c, and 12a c).

Tidal dynamics predominantly influence sediment behavior within the PRE.

Neglecting tidal effects leads to an underestimation of bottom shear stress within the estuary (Figures 8a-b), resulting in an overestimation of sediment deposition (Figure 11a) and consequently underestimating distal sediment retention (Figure 12a).

Wave activity primarily controls sediment resuspension in three critical dimensions: (1) the river mouth, (2) the eastern and western nearshore regions outside the estuary, and (3) periods characterized by high wave energy during winter (Figures 9c d). The exclusion of wave effects results in overestimated sediment deposition in these areas and periods (Figure 11b), ultimately leading to an underestimation of sediment accumulation thickness in the Beibu Gulf (Figure 11b).

Background circulation exerts its most significant influence during the summer

months (Figure 5a vs. Figure 9e). The strong northeastward background current in summer serves as the primary driver for transporting Pearl River derived sediments to the continental shelf east of the PRE. When considering only the weak southerly winds without the northeastward background current, merely 0.84% of Pearl River sediments are transported to the eastern shelf, substantially overestimating distal deposition (Figure 12c).

### 4.3 Limitations and future work Future Work

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This study focuses on analyzing simulation results from a typical year, encompassing both wet and dry seasons from 2017 to 2018, to understand the seasonal variations and annual patterns of suspension, transport, and deposition of sediment in the PRE and adjacent shelf. However, it's essential to recognize that the long-term sediment transport and deposition dynamics in the Pearl River are influenced by numerous complex factors. These include changes in sea level and coastal line (Church and White, 2006; Harff et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2023), alterations in wind field and precipitation (Ning and Qian, 2009; Young et al., 2011), natural sedimentation within the Pearl River Delta (Wu et al., 2010), modifications in sediment load and underwater volume of the estuary caused by anthropogenic impact (Wu et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2022), interannual variations of the shelf circulations (Liu et al., 2020; Deng et al., 2022) and Kuroshio intrusions (Caruso et al., 2006; Nan et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2020). Therefore, while this study sheds light on seasonal and annual timescale patterns, it cannot fully represent the short or long-term transport and deposition trends of the Pearl River

sediment. Yet for many shelf systems, a lot of the sediment transport happens during short-lived events such as hurricanes (Xu et al., 2016; Warner et al., 2017; Georgiou et al., 2024). Consideration of the episodicity of transport would be helpful for future studies (Xu et al., 2016; Warner et al., 2017; Georgiou et al., 2024).

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Additionally, it's important to note that this article primarily focuses on the fate of the Pearl River sediment on the inner shelf. However, there are other smaller rivers within the Pearl River plume's expansion range, like the Han River, Rong River, Moyang River, Jian River, and Nandu River (Liu et al., 2016). However, within the expansion range of the Pearl River buoyant plume, a number of smaller rivers, including the Jiulong River, Han River, Moyang River, Jian River, Nanliu River, Changhua River and Nandu River, also contribute freshwater and sediment to the northern South China Sea (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). Although these rivers contribute significantly less freshwater and sediment compared to the Pearl River, they still impact seawater salinity, suspended sediment concentration, and seabed geomorphology (Liu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2023; Zong et al., 2024). Since the 1950s, South China delivers approximately 102 Mt/year of fluvial sediment to the SCS, with the Pearl River alone accounting for 84.3 Mt/year—about 83% of the total sediment load (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). The specific contributions of each river are detailed in Table 3. While the data highlight the Pearl River's dominant role in sediment delivery, a comprehensive understanding of sedimentary processes and impacts in the northern South China Sea also requires systematic investigation into

Table 3. Annual mean runoff and annual suspended sediment load of major rivers in South China that flow directly into the northern South China Sea since the 1950s (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016).

| River name        | Runoff $(m^3 s^{-1})$ | Suspended sediment load (Mt/year) |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Pearl River       | <u>9075</u>           | <u>84.3</u>                       |
| Jiulong River     | <u>476</u>            | <u>3.1</u>                        |
| Han River         | <u>825</u>            | <u>10</u>                         |
| Moyang River      | <u>269</u>            | 0.8                               |
| <u>Jian River</u> | <u>174</u>            | <u>1.5</u>                        |
| Nanliu River      | <u>162</u>            | <u>1.1</u>                        |
| Changhua River    | <u>120</u>            | <u>0.08</u>                       |
| Nandu River       | <u>179</u>            | <u>0.4</u>                        |

Hence, there is a need for further systematic research to understand the processes and impacts of these smaller rivers comprehensively.

LastlyThen, while the model used in this study has shown good validation results, conducting more sensitivity experiments on sediment parameters, such as settling velocity and critical shear stress for erosion, would be beneficial. Settling velocity can influence the location of sediment depocenters, with higher settling velocities leading to more proximal entrapment and vice versa (Harris et al., 2008) (Ralston and Geyer, 2017). Similarly, critical erosion stress can affect the resuspension of deposited

sediment, with higher critical erosion stress resulting in less resuspension and more deposition especially during neap tides and weak wind wave events (Dong et al., 2020; Choi et al., 2023). Conducting such sensitivity analyses would enhance our understanding of sediment dynamics in estuaries and shelves. Besides, the model does not account for cohesive processes, such as consolidation and flocculation, which can significantly impact sediment behavior (Sherwood et al., 2018). Our model does not incorporate wave and current-supported gravity flows, which are important factors influencing sediment transport in submarine canyon areas (Harris et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). Since our study area primarily focuses on the continental shelf and the simulated results indicate that sediment transport occurs mainly in the shallow inner shelf, where canyons are relatively rare, this omission has a relatively minor impact on our results. Lastly, we employ the COAWST model, which uses an S-coordinate system in the vertical direction with increased resolution near the surface and bottom layers (Song and Haidvogel, 1994). This vertical layering allows cell heights to vary, enabling finer resolution in dynamically important regions and improving performance in areas with sloping bathymetry compared to traditional sigma-coordinate systems (Bryan, 1969; Song and Haidvogel, 1994). In addition, our model includes horizontal grid refinement in the PRE, enhancing its ability to resolve estuarine features. As a result, the model effectively captures estuarine turbidity maxima (ETM) and horizontal salinity fronts (Figures S11 and S12, see Supplement). During summer, multiple ETMs appear near the estuary bottom (Figure S11b), and

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while these features persist in winter, their concentrations vary (Figure S12b), consistent with the findings of Wang et al. (2018), Zhan et al. (2019), Zhang et al. (2021), Ma et al. (2022), and Ma et al. (2024). Horizontal salinity fronts are also well represented, showing an upstream shift from the high-discharge summer season to the low-discharge winter season (Figures S11e–f and S12e–f), in agreement with previous studies by Zhang et al. (2021) and Ma et al. (2024). Nonetheless, compared with the S-coordinate system, models that employ vertically adaptive layering (e.g., SCHISM, the Semi-implicit Cross-scale Hydroscience Integrated System Model, Zhang et al. (2016)) or Cartesian vertical coordinates (e.g., MITgcm, the MIT General Circulation Model, Marshall et al. (1997a); Marshall et al. (1997b)) generally perform better in regions with steep topographic gradients (Bijvelds, 2001). Therefore, future research could benefit from adopting models with higher horizontal resolution and Cartesian vertical coordinates to improve the simulation of Pearl River-derived sediment dynamics across the estuary and the adjacent shelf.

### **5. Conclusions**

This study utilizes the COAWST model to quantitatively analyze the seasonal suspension, transport, and annual fate of Pearl River-derived sediment (classes 4-5 in Table 1) on the continental shelf over a typical year, capturing key marine variables such as water level, wave height, flow velocity, salinity, temperature, and SSC.

The monsoonal nature of the northern SCS (Figures 4a-b) induces pronounced seasonal variations in Pearl River-derived sediment transport and deposition (Figures

5 and 6). During the wet summer, calm conditions foster initial Pearl River-derived sediment deposition via the buoyant river—plume (Figures 5 and 7a). Conversely, winter's stronger winds and waves resuspend and transport Pearl River-derived sediments into "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf, primarily during this dry season (Figures 6 and 7b). Our quantitative assessment reveals distinct spatial patterns in the annual fate of riverine sediments: approximately two-thirds66.45% of the Pearl River-derived total sediment load is retained within the estuarine vicinity ("Proximal" region), while about 9%9.2% reachesis deposited on the continental shelf east of the PRE ("Eastern" and "Southeastern" regions), while similar proportions are refurthermore, 8.86% and 10.3% of the sediment is transported to and retained in "Gulf" and "Distal" regionsthe Beibu Gulf and the area south of Hainan Island, respectively (Figure 7c).

Furthermore, we evaluated the contributions of different physical processes by comparing the Control run with the reduced-physics sensitivity experiments. Our analysis reveals distinct roles of tidal forces, wave action, and background circulation in governing the transport and deposition of Pearl River-derived sediments (Figures 8, 9, 11a-c, and 12a-c).

Tidal dynamics primarily govern sediment behavior within and offshore of in the PRE. Relative to the Control run, Neglecting neglecting tides leads to lower underestimates the bottom shear stress in the PRE (Figures 8a-b), higher overestimates—Pearl River-derived sediment deposition in the PRE (Figure 11a), and reduced underestimates distal sediment retention in "Gulf" and "Distal" regions (Figure 12a). Wave activity primarily controls Pearl River-derived sediment

resuspension in three critical dimensions: (1) the river mouth, (2) the nearshore of "Eastern" eastern and "Western" western nearshore regions outside the estuary, and (3) periods characterized by high wave energy during winter (Figures 9c-d). Excluding waves results in increased<del>leads to overestimated</del> modeled Pearl River-derived sediment deposition in these areas and times (Figure 11b), while reducing underestimating accumulation in the "Gulf" regionBeibu Gulf (Figure 11b). Background circulation is most influential in summer (Figure 5a vs. Figure 9e), with a strong northeastward current transporting Pearl River-derived sediments to regions 3-4 the eastern shelf. Without this current and under weak southerly winds, only 0.84% of Pearl River-derived sediments are transported to reach the regions 3–4 eastern shelf, while deposition in overestimating "Gulf" and "Distal" regions distal deposition is greater compared to the Control run (Figure 12c). The sediment model solutions are also highly sensitive to the parameterization of sediment characteristics and spin-up durations (riverine or seabed sediments) initial conditions (Figures 10, 11d-f, and 12d-f). Neglecting the seasonal increase inneed for a higher critical shear stress for erosion leads to enhancedin winter overestimates resuspension and erosion in regions 1-6on the shelf east of the Leizhou Peninsula during winterthis season (Figure 10b), which in turn shifts more sediment toward "Gulf" and "Distal" regions compared to the Control run leading to a greater distal retention (Figure 12d). Increasing the settling velocity reduces the overall riverine SSC (Figures 10c-d) and results in a spatial redistribution pattern characterized by greater retention in 1)–3 and 5 regions and reduced riverine sediment presence in "Gulf" and "Distal"

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regions relative to the Control simulation while overestimating the proximal retention and underestimating the distal retention (Figure 12e). Additionally, the modeled riverine SSC solutions are is influenced by pre-existing Pearl River-derived sediments, as shown in the Cycle experiment (Figure 10e-f)-initial conditions. The experiment highlights the effect of riverine sediment spin-up, showing that first-year retained Pearl River-derived sediments are predominantly redistributed from the "Gulf" region toward the more distant "Distal" region during the second year. If the model domain initially includes a full year of Pearl River-derived sediment retention, re-running the simulation results in further transport of previously retained sediments from the Beibu Gulf to more distal areas. In contrast However, the model exhibits only minor sensitivityis relatively insensitive to the duration of seabed sediment spin-up, as demonstrated in the Cycle2 experimentthe initial bed grain size distribution (Experiment Cycle2; see Supplement Section 4.1), in which riverine sediments present during the spin-up period were added to seabed sediment classes 1–2 at the start of the Cycle2.

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## Data availability

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The HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) outputs are from: http://hycom.org/hycom. The NCEP Climate Forecast System Version 2 (CFSv2) reanalysis data obtained the following website: can be at https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds094.1/dataaccess/. The NOAA WAVEWATCH III global ocean wave model output fields can be downloaded from: ftp://polar.ncep.noaa.gov/pub/history/waves. Hourly water-level data observed at Quarry Bay station are provided by the Hong Kong Observatory website: https://www.hko.gov.hk/sc/tide/marine/realtide.htm?s=QUB&t=TABLE. Hourly water-level data from Zhapo and Qinglan stations, provided by the Flanders Marine Institute (VLIZ), are part of the UNESCO/IOC Global Sea Level Observing System (GLOSS) and accessible at http://www.ioc-sealevelmonitoring.org. The mooring data for the M1 and M2 stations are sourced from Liu et al. (2023) and Li et al. (2024a). The figure data and model configuration files used in this paper can be downloaded from: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15013448.

### **Declaration of Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## **CRediT** authorship contribution statement

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Guang ZhangGZ: Conceptualization, Numerical modeling, Validation, Data visualization, Writing-original draft, and Funding acquisition. Suan HuSH: Writing-review & editing, Validation. Xiaolong YuXY: Writing-review & editing. Heng ZhangHZ: Writing-review & editing. Wenping GongWG: Writing-review & editing, and Funding acquisition **Supplement:** The Supplement We have included includes the validations and analysis of the model's water levels, Hsig, flow velocities, salinity, temperature, and SSC-in the Supplement. It provides additional text and figures that support the model validation and supplementary analyses, which could not be fully presented in the main article due to space limitations. References Bever, A. J., Harris, C. K., Sherwood, C. R., and Signell, R. P.: Deposition and flux of sediment from the Po River, Italy: An idealized and wintertime numerical modeling study, Marine Geology, 260, 69-80, 10.1016/j.margeo.2009.01.007, 2009. Bever, A. J., and MacWilliams, M. L.: Simulating sediment transport processes in San Pablo Bay using coupled hydrodynamic, wave, and sediment transport models, Marine Geology, 345, 235-253, 10.1016/j.margeo.2013.06.012, 2013. Bian, C., Jiang, W., and Greatbatch, R. J.: An exploratory model study of sediment transport sources and deposits in the Bohai Sea, Yellow Sea, and East China Sea, Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 118, 5908-5923, https://doi.org/10.1002/2013JC009116, 2013. Bijvelds, M. D. J. P.: Numerical modelling of estuarine flow over steep topography, Doctoral, Delft University of Technology, 2001.

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