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1 Importance of salinity-induced stratification on flocculation in 2 tidal estuaries

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9 **Abstract**

10 Flocculation of suspended particles in tidal estuaries exhibits large spatiotemporal variability due
11 to an interplay of various physical and biogeochemical drivers. Salinity (S) is known to promote
12 flocculation of fine-grained suspended particulate matter (SPM). However, the influence of
13 salinity and salinity-induced stratification on flocculation has not been sufficiently investigated yet.
14 This study aims to understand how these two factors, interactively with turbulent shear (G) and
15 SPM concentration (C), control the vertical variation of floc size and flocculation process in
16 different depth layers in a typical tide-dominated estuarine environment. Analysis of field
17 observation data shows that flocculi (diameter $< 20 \mu\text{m}$) are mainly affected by C and originate
18 primarily from local resuspension. Macroflocs ($> 200 \mu\text{m}$) are mainly controlled by stratification

Abbreviations: ADP, Acoustic Doppler Profiler; ADV, Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter; LISST, Laser In Situ Scattering and Transmissometry; OBS, Optical Backscatter Sensor; PSD, Particle Size Distributions; SPM, Suspended Particulate Matter

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19 that greatly improves aggregate collision efficiency; Microflocs (20-200 μm), as a transition group
20 between flocculi and macroflocs, are affected by dynamics of both sides. They are influenced
21 jointly by C , G and stratification. Besides, the fresh water-dominated surface layer is dominated
22 by small particles (flocculi and microflocs), confined in a relatively narrow particle size range
23 between $O(10^0)$ and $O(10^1)$ as a result of the low level of both C (13-20 mg/L) and S (< 2
24 practical salinity units). Below the surface layer, floc size increases drastically along with an
25 increased salinity-induced density gradient and achieves maximum particle size ($O(10^2)$) within
26 the stratified layer. Because of its high efficiency in promoting flocculation and formation of
27 macroflocs, the stratified layer around the halocline can be regarded as an optimal flocculation
28 zone. The benthic layer is characterized by high C (> 30 mg/L), gentle G ($\sim 5/\text{s}$), and periodic
29 stratification, which result in a wide size range between $O(10^1)$ and $O(10^2)$ with microflocs as the
30 dominant group. Finally, we found that the accuracy of flocculation modeling can be significantly
31 improved by integrating a simple relationship between particle collision and stratification.

32 *Keywords:* SPM dynamics; optimal flocculation zone; benthic layer; halocline; particle collision

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36 **1. Introduction**

37 Fine-grained suspended particulate matters (SPM) often aggregate to form larger and porous
38 flocs in estuaries, resulting in a constant change of their properties such as size, density, and
39 settling velocity during their transport (Droppo, 2001; Shen et al., 2018). On the other hand,
40 estuaries are often characterized by highly variable hydrodynamic and biogeochemical
41 environments that are modulated by tides and/or waves. The high sensitivity of SPM dynamics
42 (flocculation/deflocculation) to change of hydrodynamic (e.g. turbulent shear (G) and the
43 stratification induced by salinity and/or temperature gradient) and biogeochemical (e.g.
44 organic/inorganic content, ionic strength, and extracellular polymeric substances) conditions
45 impedes a comprehensive understanding of SPM dynamics and floc size distribution at both
46 temporal and spatial scales (Guo et al., 2017; Lai et al., 2018; Mietta et al., 2009a).

47 Once flocculated, the size of flocs can vary over several orders of magnitude, namely from
48 10^0 to 10^3 μm (Thomas. et al., 1999), and accordingly, flocs can be classified into three size groups,
49 namely flocculi (< 20 μm), microflocs (20–200 μm) and macroflocs (> 200 μm) (Fettweis et al.,
50 2012, 2017; Lee et al., 2012, 2014). Compact flocculi are regarded as the basic building blocks of
51 aggregates because they mainly consist of strongly bound clay minerals (Leussen, 1994). Flocculi
52 flocculate rapidly to form microflocs with a regular shape and smooth surface when favorable
53 conditions for flocculation are met (He et al., 2012). Elongated and highly porous macroflocs are
54 ultimately formed from flocculi and microflocs during low turbulence periods (Winterwerp and
55 Kesteren, 2004).

56 Each particle group has unique physicochemical properties and a corresponding flocculation
57 mechanism. Based on the fractal theory, an inverse relationship exists between floc size and
58 excess density of flocs ($\rho_{f,e}$, with reference to water density, ρ_w). (Mikkelsen et al., 2006; Verney et
59 al., 2011). The $\rho_{f,e}$ of the three groups differs significantly. It varies between 70 and 1000 kg/m³
60 for flocculi, between 20 and 200 kg/m³ for microflocs and normally less than 20 kg/m³ for
61 macroflocs, respectively (Maggi, 2007; Manning and Dyer, 1999). With low $\rho_{f,e}$ values,
62 macroflocs normally contribute the least amount of the total SPM mass weight in coastal waters,
63 whilst the proportions of microflocs and flocculi are in ascending order (Lee et al., 2016).

64 The strength of flocs is also highly correlated to their size (Jarvis et al., 2005; Son, 2009).
65 Regardless of biological factors, macroflocs are most sensitive to change in turbulent shear G , i.e.
66 they are more likely to be destroyed by strong G (e.g. $> 12/s$) and conversely promoted by gentle
67 G (Lee et al., 2011, 2012; He et al., 2012; Mikkelsen et al., 2006). The impact of SPM
68 concentration (C) on flocculation is not straightforward. The classic aggregation theory assumes
69 that an increase of C would enhance flocculation by increasing the collision frequency (Cross et
70 al., 2013; Hill, 1998). However, other studies have revealed that this assumption can only be
71 satisfied in quiescent water and/or at low C , and the enhancement would cease when C reaches
72 above a certain level (e.g. 280 mg/L) (Dyer, 1989; Leussen, 2011; Oles, 1992; Zhang et al., 2020).
73 As for the effect of vertical gradient of C , it enhances settling velocity of flocs usually under low
74 shear conditions (e.g. $G \leq 0.72/s$) and is negligible in an estuarine environment (Cuthbertson et
75 al., 2010).

76 The influence of salinity (S) and salinity-induced stratification on flocculation are less
77 understood compared to that of C and G . The impact of S is twofold. It affects flocculation in both
78 chemical (particles surface charge) and physical (stratification) ways. In a chemical way, salinity
79 can change electrokinetic properties and zeta-potential of particles, thereby affecting collision
80 efficiency (k_A) between particles. Three modes of flocculation response to salinity can be drawn
81 from literature: 1) Mode 1 corresponds to a constantly positive correlation between k_A and S , 2)
82 Mode 2 refers to an initial positive correlation between k_A and S until S reaches a critical salinity
83 (S^*), and then k_A remains steady along with a further increase of S , and 3) Mode 3 represents a
84 range of optimum salinity within which k_A reaches peak value and drops outside the range. The
85 proper mode in estuary, however, depends on clay mineral and seawater compositions (Mietta et
86 al., 2009b; Quezada et al., 2018, 2020; Shen and Maa, 2016). The physical impact of S on
87 flocculation through stratification is to hinder the exchange of SPM across the halocline, thereby
88 trapping particles and resulting in increased frequency of aggregate collision and attachment (Lee
89 et al., 2016; Ren and Wu, 2014; Xia et al., 2004). Hence, it can be concluded that the role of S lies
90 in a change of k_A between particles, however, a quantitative dependency of k_A on S is missing in
91 either way. Besides, S has yet to be considered in the flocculation model although its importance
92 has been well recognized (Lai et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018; Winterwerp, 1998).

93 Because the particle settling velocity is dependent on the floc size, vertical distribution of
94 floc size is crucial to evaluate the settling flux of particles. However, this issue is puzzled by the
95 complexity of physical and biogeochemical environmental factors in situ (Sherwood et al., 2018;
96 Strom and Keyvani, 2016). Contradictory results have been derived concerning the change in floc

97 size associated with water depth based on in situ observations (Eisma et al., 1994; Fugate and
98 Friedrichs, 2003; Papenmeier et al., 2014; Sahin, 2014). Because of hydrological factors that
99 adjust with tidal flows in tide-dominated estuaries, vertical variability of particles has been
100 classified based on tidal phases (Figueroa et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2017; Manning et al., 2006).
101 Floc size has been reported to coarsen downward during the stratified ebb or slack waters, and be
102 homogenous during the well-mixed flood or peak flows (Figueroa et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2017).
103 However, opposite case, i.e. larger particles in the upper river plume, has also been observed (Lee
104 et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). These results suggest that stratification plays an important role in
105 controlling SPM dispersal and floc size distribution on the vertical plane, although a quantitative
106 relationship between the floc size and stratification is missing. Further, flocculation in and around
107 the benthic layer show even higher complexity because of the unique hydrodynamic structure and
108 active processes of settling and resuspension there (Eisma, 2012). For instance, nepheloid layers
109 characterized by high turbidity and larger flocculated particles have been found in the benthic
110 layer (Li et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018).

111 Furthermore, the importance of numerical models to predict the transport and fate of cohesive
112 sediments has been widely recognized (Jeldres et al., 2018; Thomas. et al., 1999). In general, there
113 are three types of flocculation models, including the extended Lattice Boltzmann Model (Zhang et
114 al., 2013), Population Balance Model (Lee et al., 2011; Maggi et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2018), and
115 Winterwerp flocculation model (Winterwerp, 1998). The Winterwerp model is used to predict a
116 single and dynamic characteristic floc size, with a consideration of the impacts of G , C , and
117 inherent floc properties (Winterwerp, 1998). It has been widely used because of its high

118 computational efficiency and easy integration into hydrodynamics models (Kuprenas et al., 2018;
119 Winterwerp and Kesteren, 2004).

120 Based on in situ measurements in the Pearl River Estuary, we aim to address the knowledge
121 gap in understanding how S and S -induced stratification, interactively with turbulent shear (G) and
122 SPM concentration (C), control the vertical variation of floc size and flocculation process in
123 different depth layers in a typical tide-dominated estuarine environment. Based on the
124 observations, we propose a simple relationship between particle collision and S to improve
125 existing flocculation models.

126 **2. Materials and Methods**

127 **2.1. Regional Setting and field measurements**

128 The Pearl River Delta is presented by a complicated river network that delivers $\sim 1.0 \times 10^7$ t/a
129 of sediment load into the South China Sea through eight main outlets (Fig. 1a and 1b, see also
130 <http://www.mwr.gov.cn/sj/#tjgb>). Hydrodynamics of this study area is characterized by irregular
131 semidiurnal tides with apparent salinity, current velocity, and turbidity cycles. Two sites with
132 contrasting salinity conditions, namely H1 (113°38.288' E, 22°29.345' N) and M1 (113°28.016' E,
133 22°04.529' N) located in Hengmen and Modaomen outlets, respectively, were selected to
134 investigate the flocculation process. Both sites are characterized by shallow water having a similar
135 averaged depth of ~ 6.5 m. Site H1 is mainly controlled by freshwater and affected by diluted
136 water in a well-mixed state during low tide periods (tidal amplitude = 1.38 m). On the contrary,
137 site M1 is featured by stable halocline due to strong river discharge and weak tidal mixing (tidal
138 amplitude = 0.8 m) (Fig. 2).

139 Fieldwork for recording Particle Size Distributions (PSDs), current, turbidity, and salinity
140 was conducted continuously covering four complete semi-diurnal tides between August 18–20,
141 2019, and August 21–23, 2019 at the two sites, respectively. Three instrument packages were
142 employed, including a shipboard downward-looking 1 MHz Nortek Acoustic Doppler Profiler
143 (ADP, cell size = 30 cm), a on board steel frame (Fig. 1c), and a benthic quadrupod (Fig. 1d).
144 Specifically, a Sequoia Laser In Situ Scattering and Transmissiometry (LISST-200X) and an
145 Optical Backscatterance Sensor (OBS-3A) were tied together in the steel frame. They were
146 lowered through the water column in a steady speed of ~0.1 m/s at an hourly interval, sampling at
147 1 Hz, with the aim to record high resolution vertical data of PSD, turbidity, and salinity.
148 Meanwhile, water samples were collected and filtered by pre-weighed filters for calibration of
149 turbidity and SPM concentration. The measuring instruments on the quadrupod included a
150 LISST-200X (sampling frequency = 1 Hz, mounted at 1.35 m above the bed (mab)), an Acoustic
151 Doppler Velocimeter (ADV) for measuring turbulence (32 Hz, 0.5 mab), an OBS-3A (2 Hz, 0.55
152 mab) for high temporal resolution observation, and an upward-looking ADP (cell size = 30 cm,
153 mounted at 2.1 mab) and a downward-looking high resolution ADP (5 cm, 1.75 mab), together
154 with the shipboard ADP, were all configured to provide average values for every 10-min interval,
155 with the aim to provide a detailed vertical structure of currents.

156 The LISST-200X was able to record PSDs in 36 logarithmically spaced size groups over the
157 range 1–500 μm (Agrawal and Pottsmith, 2000). However, its performance is affected by high
158 turbidity conditions (Guo et al., 2017). To overcome this problem, the Path Reduction Module,
159 which reduces the optical path from 25 mm to 5 mm and thereby increasing the maximum

160 concentration by a factor of 5 (sequoiasci.com), was equipped with the LISST on quadrupod.

161 Therefore, high frequency and stable measurements of benthic flocculation can be satisfied.

162 **2.2. Data Processing**

163 **2.2.1. Turbulent shear**

164 Turbulent shear rate (G) is defined as:

$$165 \quad G = \nu/\eta^2 = \sqrt{\epsilon/\nu} \text{ (1/s)}, \quad (1)$$

166 where ν is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid, η is the Kolmogorov microscale and ϵ is the
167 turbulent energy dissipation rate. The values of ϵ can be obtained from the Turbulence Kinetic
168 Energy (TKE) spectra (Guerra and Thomson, 2017), which is transformed from the fluctuated
169 velocity recorded by ADV (32 Hz). The TKE spectra method is based on the Kolmogorov
170 hypothesis, i.e. energy transfer is determined solely by ϵ in the inertial subrange (Kolmogorov,
171 1941; Pope, 2000). However, the quality of the ADV data is affected by the occasional disturbance
172 caused by Doppler noise, high SPM concentration, or weak Doppler signal during slack waters
173 (Goring and Nikora, 2002; Wu et al., 2011), which obscure the inertial subrange in TKE spectra
174 and impede the validity of G solving. To derive continuous time series of G , a three-step
175 procedure was applied in this study.

176 Firstly, TKE spectra were estimated from the high-frequency velocity (32 Hz) and then the
177 inertial subrange was determined through an automated searching technique (Zhang et al., 2020).
178 Secondly, data quality was controlled by the slope of the spectra in the presence of inertial
179 subrange. According to the Kolmogorov hypothesis, the slope should be around $-5/3$. In this study,
180 a slope within a range of $-5/3 \pm 20\%$ was considered to indicate good quality data. Data beyond

181 this range was regarded unusable. The final step was to establish a relationship between G and the
182 corresponding mean flow velocity (U) for every 10-min interval. It is assumed that a proportional
183 relationship exists between ϵ and cube of friction velocity u_* (Eq. 2) (Nakagawa and Nezu, 1993),
184 and between u_* and U (Eq. 3) (Kuprenas et al., 2018). Combining the definition of G , the
185 relationship can be derived (Eq. 4).

186
$$\epsilon \propto u_*^3, \quad (2)$$

187
$$u_* \propto U, \quad (3)$$

188
$$G = K\sqrt{|U^3|/\nu}, \quad (4)$$

189 where K is a constant. Based on measured U and valid G from ADV data, the value of $K = 0.0502$
190 (0.0316) with correlation coefficient $r = 0.84$ (0.82) for site H1 (M1) was obtained. The value is of
191 the same order of 0.075 proposed by Kuprenas et al. (2018). Thereafter, continuous values of G in
192 the bottom layer could be estimated from U averaged from the ADV.

193 **2.2.2. Floc properties**

194 The LISST-based raw data need to be pre-processed before deriving PSDs (for details see
195 Zhang et al. (2020)). To eliminate the influence caused by turbulence bursting in the benthic layer,
196 such as short-term vertical sediment transport and variations of PSDs (Mikkelsen and Pejrup,
197 2001), a local outlier factor detection (Breunig et al., 2000) was applied.

198 Two methods were adopted to obtain the volumetric concentration (VC) of the three floc size
199 groups, i.e. flocculi, microflocs, and macroflocs. The first method is to separate PSDs directly by
200 the empirically critical diameter values, D_{sp} (Mikkelsen et al., 2006). Values of D_{sp} between

201 flocculi and microflocs, and between microflocs and macroflocs, were selected as 20 and 200 μm ,
202 respectively (Lee et al., 2012; Winterwerp and Kesteren, 2004). The second method assumes that
203 the PSDs in coastal waters can be decomposed into lognormal size classes. It has the advantage of
204 providing more detailed information, e.g. the representative size and standard deviations (σ), about
205 the unimodal PSDs of each group than the first method (Fettweis et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012).
206 But this approach is much more expensive in terms of computational cost. In our study, the second
207 method was performed only when analyzing detailed PSDs in the selected vertical profiles (see
208 section 3.4), and the first was applied in other cases. It is worth to note that the VC of each group
209 resolved from the two methods have similar trends, despite the slight differences in the exact
210 values (e.g. $r = 0.89$ and $\text{RMSD} = 14\%$ for benthic macroflocs at site H1). Therefore, the choice of
211 method does not affect the overall validity of the results.

212 The mean diameter of flocs can be expressed in various ways (Shen, 2016), such as D_{32}
213 (area-weighted diameter), D_{43} (volume-weighted diameter), D_{60} (hydrodynamic mean size), and
214 D_{50} (median size). Among these parameters, D_{32} is concerned with surface area and has been
215 adopted by LISST-25 instrument (Agrawal and Mikkelsen, 2009; Filippa et al., 2012).
216 Considering the impact of salinity is associated with particle surface properties (e.g. charge and
217 cohesiveness), D_{32} was selected to be the representative diameter in this study.

218 **2.2.3. Definition of three depth layers**

219 To help interpret the data, the whole water column is divided into three vertical layers in our
220 analysis based on observation. The surface layer is defined as $S < 2$ practical salinity units (psu)
221 and water density gradient $d\rho_w/dz < 2 \text{ kg/m}^4$. Here, the suffix psu, equivalent to units of parts per

222 thousand, is used to indicate salinity values of electrical conductivity measurements (Lewis and
223 Perkin, 1978). The stratified layer is defined as $d\rho_w/dz \geq 2 \text{ kg/m}^4$. The benthic layer is defined as
224 the water beneath the stratified layer. Note that the three defined layers were not always persistent
225 at the two sites due to the change of mixing states by tides, e.g. the benthic layer was taken over
226 by the stratified layer during ebb tides at M1, while the water column was completely occupied by
227 the surface layer during ebb tides at H1.

228 **2.3. Numerical modelling of flocculation**

229 Assuming $n_f = 2$ in this work which is commonly used in the literature (Maggi et al., 2007;
230 Winterwerp, 1998), in the modified Winterwerp model proposed by Kuprenas et al. (2018,
231 referred to K18 hereafter), the rate equation for mean diameter of flocs (D) can be simply
232 expressed as:

$$233 \quad dD/dt = 1/2[k_A G C D^2 / (\rho_P D_P) - k_B D G (D - D_P) (\mu G D^2 / F_y)^q / D_P], \quad (5)$$

234 where D_p is the size of primary particles, μ is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid, F_y is the floc yield
235 strength, and k_B is breakup efficiency of flocs. Coefficients of k_A and k_B are related to the
236 physicochemical properties of particles and water (Leussen, 1994; Winterwerp, 1998). Since
237 quantitative information about the two coefficients is unavailable, they are normally treated as
238 fitting parameters in the model (Leussen, 1994, 2011; Shen et al., 2018). The coefficient q is given
239 by:

$$240 \quad q = c_1 + c_2 D / \eta, \quad (6)$$

241 where c_1 and c_2 are constant coefficients, defined as 0.5 and 1.5, respectively. The setting of c_1 and
242 c_2 is to limit the size of the floc to Kolmogorov microscale, thereby improving the modelling
243 performance across a wide range of concentrations (Kuprenas et al., 2018).

244 The key state variables in the K18 model include the particle size, the mass SPM
245 concentration, and the turbulent shear. The impact of salinity and stratification is implicitly
246 incorporated into the value of k_A . In this study, we propose a simple parameterization of k_A by
247 including its explicit dependence on S and stratification. Time series of the state variables
248 including S derived from the field measurements were fed into the model to evaluate the
249 flocculation process.

250 **3. Results**

251 **3.1. Hydrodynamic conditions**

252 The mean SPM concentrations measured from the survey were 31 and 22.5 mg/L at site H1
253 and M1, respectively (Fig. 2c and 2g). These two sites were also similar in current strength, such
254 as fluctuation range (between -1.12 and 0.8 m/s at H1 and between -1.14 and 0.64 m/s at M1) and
255 maximum vertical averaged velocity (-0.83 and -0.89 m/s at H1 and M1, respectively; Fig. 2d and
256 2h). However, the salinity condition differed significantly between the two sites.

257 Site H1 was characterized by a weak halocline (0.34 psu/m on bulk average) that was
258 periodically disturbed by tides (Fig. 2b). Freshwater dominated during low tide periods, and
259 brackish water intruded this site in a partly-mixed state following flood tides with maximum $S = 9$
260 psu at high water level (Fig. 2a).

261 In contrast to the weak and unstable stratification at H1, site M1 showed a persistent highly
262 stratified state with a distinct band-shaped halocline throughout the observation periods (Fig. 2f).
263 The surface and benthic layers were occupied by freshwater (< 2 psu) and saline water (> 13 psu),
264 respectively (Fig. 2e). In between was the stratified layer distributed within the range of $S = 2$ -13
265 psu (Fig. 2e and 2f). In this stratified layer, $dS/dz = 4.1$ psu/m and $d\rho_w/dz = 3$ kg/m⁴; and in other
266 parts of the water column, $dS/dz < 1.4$ psu/m and $d\rho_w/dz < 1$ kg/m⁴. The stratified layer fluctuated
267 vertically with the water level ($r = 0.87$) with an average depth of 3.2 m at its center and occupied
268 35% of the whole water column with an average thickness of 2.27 m.

269 Resuspension of seafloor sediment occurred at both sites, but in different forms (Fig. 2c and
270 2g). The vertical diffusion of resuspended sediment at site H1 was featured by a uniform C in the
271 vertical plane (Fig. 2c), but at M1, it was confined below the stratified layer, e.g. C is reduced to
272 less than 30 mg/L above 3 mab (Fig. 2g).

273 Regarding the vertical velocity structure (Fig. 2d and 2h), current strength was more uniform
274 at site H1 ($\sigma = 0.1$ m/s) than that at M1 ($\sigma = 0.17$ m/s). In contrast to a vertically-uniform flow
275 structure at H1, site M1 was featured by baroclinic flows with the highest flow velocity appearing
276 in the mid-water depth. The duration of ebb and flood in the benthic layer was approximately the
277 same at both sites, whereas ebb flows dominated in the surface layer accounting for 78% length of
278 time at M1.

279 Meteorological forcing (winds and waves) for the monitoring period was monitored, but
280 proved to be negligible for our analysis, because they are too weak to influence hydrodynamics
281 and flocculation. Significant wave heights measured at 1.7 mab were persistently smaller than

282 0.12 m at both two sites. The winds were also weak, with averaged speed of 1.5 and 2.2 m/s at site
283 H1 and M1, respectively.

284 **3.2. Flocculation zone**

285 At site H1, intensified flocculation with large particle size and VC occurred at the interface
286 between freshwater and brackish water at high water slacks where $S > 2$ psu (Fig. 3a and 3b).
287 Particle VC in the region of $S > 2$ psu accounted for ~70% of the total particle VC and was
288 characterized by a larger average diameter ($D = 38 \mu\text{m}$) than that in freshwater ($D = 28 \mu\text{m}$).
289 When freshwater occupied the water column at low water levels, flocs were almost smaller than
290 $40 \mu\text{m}$ and a mild downward coarsening trend was seen in the particle size distribution. Particles
291 in the low water level periods were more homogeneously distributed ($D = 27 \pm 11 \mu\text{m}$) in the
292 vertical plane than that during the high water ($D = 37 \pm 32 \mu\text{m}$; Fig. 3a and 3b).

293 At site M1, intensive flocculation appeared in the stratified layer. Particles in this layer also
294 accounted for ~70% of the total VC. On the other hand, they were more than twice larger ($D = 90$
295 μm) but much lighter ($\rho_{f,e} = 73.8 \text{ kg/m}^3$) than those in the surface and benthic layers ($D = 41 \mu\text{m}$
296 and $\rho_{f,e} = 308 \text{ kg/m}^3$; Fig. 3c and 3d). In contrast to the periodical formation and destruction at H1,
297 large flocs at M1 were persistently observed throughout the tidal cycles.

298 The region of $S > 2$ psu and the stratified layer at the two sites appeared to provide the
299 optimal condition for flocculation. Large flocs are scattered in these flocculation zones. A critical
300 value of $S^* = 2$ psu (referring to Mode 2) for flocculation can also be concluded, which was in
301 agreement with experiment results, e.g. $S^* \leq 5$ psu (Zhang et al., 2019). On the other hand, the
302 size of flocs ($D = 90 \mu\text{m}$) and their VC ($= 357 \mu\text{L/L}$) in the stratified layer at site M1 were much

303 larger than those in the region of $S > 2$ psu at H1 ($D = 38 \mu\text{m}$ and $\text{VC} = 205 \mu\text{L/L}$), which
304 indicates the importance of stratification on flocculation.

305 **3.3. Distribution of floc size**

306 To investigate the spatiotemporal distribution of floc size, VC of the three size groups,
307 namely flocculi ($< 20 \mu\text{m}$), microflocs ($20\text{--}200 \mu\text{m}$), and macroflocs ($> 200 \mu\text{m}$), was calculated,
308 respectively (Fig. 4). Results indicate that the VC of flocculi was closely correlated with C ($r =$
309 0.74) at both sites (Fig. 4a and 4d). Compared to a more vertically-uniform distribution at site H1,
310 flocculi at M1 were mostly confined below the stratified layer. The average VC of flocculi at M1
311 above 3 mab was $13 \mu\text{L/L}$, which is merely 28% of that in the benthic layer. Microflocs at site H1
312 also showed a strong correlation with C ($r = 0.71$), with higher values of VC appearing near the
313 benthic (Fig. 4b). However, at site M1, 42% of microflocs were scattered within the flocculation
314 zone (i.e. the stratified layer), whereas 47% were confined in the benthic layer and correlated with
315 C (Fig. 4e). Large portions of macroflocs were concentrated in the flocculation zone at both sites,
316 accounting for 30% (H1) and 64% (M1) of total VC in the water column, respectively (Fig. 4c and
317 4f). The relationships between each size group and environmental factors suggest that flocculi are
318 mainly determined by C that primarily originates from local resuspension, whereas macroflocs are
319 largely controlled by stratification and promoted by salinity. Microflocs, as a transition group
320 between flocculi and macroflocs, are affected by both sides. They are influenced by not only C but
321 also strong stratification.

322 **3.4. Impact of stratification on flocculation**

323 With a favorable condition for flocculation (see section 3.2), vertical profiles at site M1
324 around high slack tides ($t = 15$ h) were analyzed in further detail. Results show that the stratified
325 layer was featured by large particles with a wide size range (Fig. 5a). The mean and standard
326 deviation values of particle size in the stratified layer were 150 and 102 μm , respectively, notably
327 larger than those ($D = 22$ μm and $\sigma = 8$ μm) in other parts (i.e. the surface and benthic layers) of
328 the water column. VC of particles in the stratified layer was 1077 $\mu\text{L/L}$, being more than 10 times
329 of the value in the benthic layer (103 $\mu\text{L/L}$) and 80 times of that in the surface layer (13 $\mu\text{L/L}$). On
330 the other hand, ρ_{fe} in the stratified layer (73.8 kg/m^3) was less than a quarter of that outside the
331 stratified layer (= 308 kg/m^3).

332 PSDs at three heights ($H = 1.8, 5,$ and 6.5 mab, respectively) representing each depth layer
333 were calculated to investigate the general patterns in the three layers. Results showed that both the
334 surface and benthic layers exhibited a bimodal structure, while the stratified layer presented a
335 unimodal distribution (Fig. 5b). The bimodal structure in the PSD of the surface layer was
336 characterized by a similar distribution of flocculi and microflocs, with diameters of 6.7 and 28 μm ,
337 respectively, whereas macroflocs were absent. The stratified layer was occupied by macroflocs
338 with a diameter of 334 μm , accounting for as high as 90% of the total VC of particles. Particles
339 were dominated by flocculi and microflocs again in the benthic layer, accounting for 36% and 64%
340 of the total VC of particles with diameters of 18.7 and 130 μm , respectively. Compared to the
341 wide range of PSD of each size group ($\sigma = 1.93$) in the surface and benthic layers, PSD was
342 confined within a narrow range in the stratified layer with $\sigma = 1.13$.

343 These significant differences between the stratified layer and its outside reveal that
 344 stratification greatly promotes flocculation, resulting in concentrated PSD dominated by larger
 345 particles with higher VC and lower $\rho_{f,e}$ than that in the unstratified water column.

346 **3.5. Flocculation modelling**

347 Based on our analysis of field data, a simple parameterization scheme of collision efficiency
 348 of particles (k_A) by including its explicit dependence on S (referring to Mode 2) and stratification
 349 ($d\rho_w/dz$) was applied in the K18 model, which is expressed as:

$$350 \quad k_A = \min \left\{ \left(k_1 + f(S) + f \left(\frac{d\rho_w}{dz} \right) \right), 1 \right\}, \quad (7)$$

$$351 \quad f(S) = \begin{cases} k_2 S & \text{if } S < S^* \\ k_2 S^* & \text{if } S \geq S^* \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

$$352 \quad f \left(\frac{d\rho_w}{dz} \right) = k_3 * \frac{d\rho_w}{dz}, \quad (9)$$

353 where maximum of $k_A = 1$ is adopted to meet its physical definition (Kuprenas et al., 2018;
 354 Winterwerp, 1998; Zhang et al., 2020). Parameters of k_1 , k_2 , and k_3 are positive constants, which
 355 are derived from the minimum error between the simulated and measured diameter.

356 Here, $S^* = 2$ psu in both two sites based on observation (see section 3.2), and the data
 357 collected on the quadrupod with high stability and time resolution were tested. For site H1, values
 358 of $k_1 = 0.1$, $k_2 = 0$, $k_3 = 0.15$ and $k_B = 1E-6$ were obtained with $r = 0.55$ and RMSD = 54.44 μm
 359 before 37 h (Fig. 6a and 7a); and for site M1, values of $k_1 = 0$, $k_2 = 0$, $k_3 = 0.65$, and $k_B = 7E-6$
 360 were derived, with $r = 0.67$ and RMSD = 37.5 μm before 44 h (Fig. 6g and 7b). Besides, the
 361 measured particle size lagged simulated value by ~ 0.6 h at site H1, which is partly attributed to
 362 inconsistent locations of instruments, i.e. LISST-200X (H = 1.35 mab) was above OBS-3A and

363 ADV ($H = \sim 0.5$ mab), as it takes a certain time for resuspended sediment to transport to upper
364 layer (Fettweis et al., 2006). Regarding to the original parameterization scheme (i.e. without
365 dependence of k_A on S and stratification) during same period, for site H1, values of $k_A = 0.15$ and
366 $k_B = 1E-6$ were obtained with $r = 0.42$ and $RMSD = 56.14 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 6a and 7a); and for site M1,
367 values of $k_A = 0.05$ and $k_B = 1E-6$ were derived, with $r = 0.08$ and $RMSD = 58.7 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 6g and
368 7b).

369 Compared to the original parameterization scheme, our new parameterization of collision
370 efficiency k_A proves to be significant and robust (Fig. 7). Values of the coefficients k_A and k_B fall
371 within the range derived in previous research, i.e. $k_A = 0.1-1$ and $k_B = O(10^{-6}) - O(10^{-5})$ (Kuprenas
372 et al., 2018; Winterwerp, 1998; Zhang et al., 2020). The advantage of our parameterization,
373 compared to empirical values derived from fitting, is the introduction of a physically-based
374 prediction scheme of k_A through an explicit dependency of particle collision on S and stratification
375 so that the formula (Eq. 7-9) can be applied broadly to estuarine environments.

376 **4. Discussion**

377 **4.1. Importance of salinity on flocculation**

378 In an earlier study (Zhang et al., 2020), we have investigated the impact of C and G on
379 flocculation at another two monitoring sites in the Pearl River estuary. Results from the current
380 study further prove the findings from the previous study that evolutions of flocs with different
381 initial sizes synchronize gradually to adapt to the local hydrological environment in each depth
382 layer, and the trends of floc size evolution and absolute net flocculation rates are similar among
383 diverse tidal shear cycles. The impact of stratification was also explored in the previous study but

384 to a less extent than the current study. In the previous study we found that the halocline increases
385 vertical variation of flocs size, and divides the water column into two vertical zones with distinct
386 flocculation dynamics. Flocculation within the stratified layer across the halocline was not
387 investigated due to insufficient data (one site was completely dominated by freshwater whilst the
388 other was dominated by saline water with only a thin and unstable stratified layer near the surface).
389 In this study, the newly derived observation data from site M1 which was featured by a persistent
390 stratified layer allow a further investigation of flocculation dynamics in this layer.

391 Our new observation suggests that the chemical impact of salinity (in the form of surface
392 charge) is much smaller than that of stratification. In stratified states (site M1), the poor
393 performance of modelling without considering stratification (e.g. $r = 0.08$ and 0.67 for the original
394 and new scheme, respectively; Fig. 7b) confirms that salinity-induced stratification is an essential
395 driver for flocculation, especially for the formation of macroflocs (see also section 3.3).

396 It is worth noting that salinity is also highly correlated to the mixing degree of the river- and
397 sea- born materials, that is, it can be treated as an indicator of physico-chemical properties of
398 sediment (e.g. mineralogy, electrophoretic mobility, cation exchange capacity, specific surface
399 area) (Leussen, 1994). That suggests the necessity of continuous sampling and component analysis
400 of suspended sediment in future studies.

401 **4.2. Interplay of major influencing factors**

402 To illustrate flocculation pattern in surface layer, data collected at site M1 was analyzed.
403 Flocs size on the surface was quite small in general ($D_{50} = 16.5 \mu\text{m}$). Macroflocs from flocculation
404 zone were dispersed into surface layer, which coincided with high water level (i.e., $t = 13, 25$ and

405 39 h) in weak current environments (e.g. $U < 0.2$ m/s) (Fig. 8). The brief peaks of floc were soon
406 be deflocculated into flocculi and microflocs by subsequent ebb peak flows (e.g. $U > 0.5$ m/s).
407 Afterward, the portion of microflocs increased slowly by the transformation of flocculi (Fig. 8b).
408 The maximum values of SPM concentration were in correspondence to the ebb peak flows ($r =$
409 0.71 ; Fig. 8c), indicating that the surface layer was controlled by upstream freshwater. The weak
410 flocculation in the surface can be attributed to several aspects. Quite small values and fluctuation
411 range of SPM concentration (13-20 mg/L), resulting in insufficient particles, limit flocculation in
412 surface (Hill, 1998). Besides, the negative charges on flocs surface as a result of low salinity can
413 lead to electrostatic repulsion between particles, which impedes their interaction and bonding
414 (Parsons et al., 2016; Quezada et al., 2018).

415 In the stratified layer, C was higher than that in the surface layer because of input from the
416 benthic layer, however, its time series does not exhibit a significant correlation with floc size ($r =$
417 -0.45), suggesting that C is not a main controlling factor for flocculation in this layer (Fig. 2 and
418 3). C in the benthic layer was persistently larger than that in the upper layers due to resuspension
419 during peak tidal flows, with average values of 40.7 mg/L and 33.7 mg/L at H1 and M1,
420 respectively (Fig. 6d and 6j). The elevated C together with mild shear ($G = 5/s$) (Fig. 6c and 6i)
421 promoted flocculation in the benthic layer (Fig. 6b and 6h), although being less intensive
422 compared to that in the stratified layer (note that the benthic layer was taken over by the stratified
423 layer during ebb tides at M1).

424 It is also worth noting that volumetric concentration (VC) is not the same as mass
425 concentration (C). VC reflects the flocculation status in terms of floc diameter (D). The
426 relationship between VC and D is:

$$427 \quad VC = N \left(\frac{\pi}{6} D^3 \right), \quad (10)$$

428 where N represents the number of particles. The cube root of VC was positively correlated to D at
429 site M1 ($r = 0.78$; Fig. 9). It is quite interesting and worth to note that N differs slightly between
430 the surface and stratified layers while is significantly larger in the bottom layer where mass
431 concentration C is much higher.

432 Besides, tidal cycle of hydrodynamic conditions can lead to both highly variability and
433 periodicity of flocculation. As for site H1 in a partly-mixed state, flocs size in the bottom layer
434 was symmetrical around the moment of the strongest stratification at $t = 23$ h (Fig. 6a and 6f),
435 with skewness coefficient as low as 0.1. In detrending conditions, the diameters of flocs showed
436 quarter-diurnal periodicity and a negative correlation with G ($r = -0.65$; Fig. 6a and 6c). For site
437 M1 controlled by stratification, flocs decreased/increased during flood/ebb periods and exhibited
438 semidiurnal periodicity of flocculation (Fig. 6g and 6i).

439 **5. Conclusions**

440 Based on in situ observations and modelling, this study investigated how salinity and
441 salinity-induced stratification, interactively with turbulent shear (G) and SPM concentration (C),
442 control the vertical variation of floc size and the flocculation process in different depth layers in a

443 typical tide-dominated estuarine environment. According to the results, the following conclusions
444 are drawn.

- 445 1. Flocculi are mainly affected by SPM concentration and originate primarily from local
446 resuspension, whereas macroflocs are largely controlled by stratification. Microflocs, as a
447 transition group between flocculi and macroflocs, are affected by dynamics of both sides.
448 They are controlled jointly by SPM concentration, shear rate and stratification.
- 449 2. Compared to bimodal PSDs in the surface and benthic layers dominated by small particles
450 (i.e. flocculi and microflocs), the unimodal PSD in the stratified layer is narrow and
451 dominated by macroflocs with high VC and low $\rho_{f,e}$.
- 452 3. Because of a high efficiency in promoting flocculation and formation of macroflocs, the
453 stratified layer around the halocline can be regarded as an optimal flocculation zone.
- 454 4. Flocculation modelling should consider an explicit dependency of particle collision on
455 stratification.

456 **Author contributions**

457 Conceptualization: J.R., W.Z., W.J., and Y.Z.; Data curation: W.J. and J.R.; Methodology: Y.Z. and
458 J.R.; Modelling: Y.Z. and W.Z.; Investigation: W.J., J.R., and Y.Z.; Original draft: Y.Z. and W.Z.;
459 Writing - review & editing: Y.Z. and W.Z..

460 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

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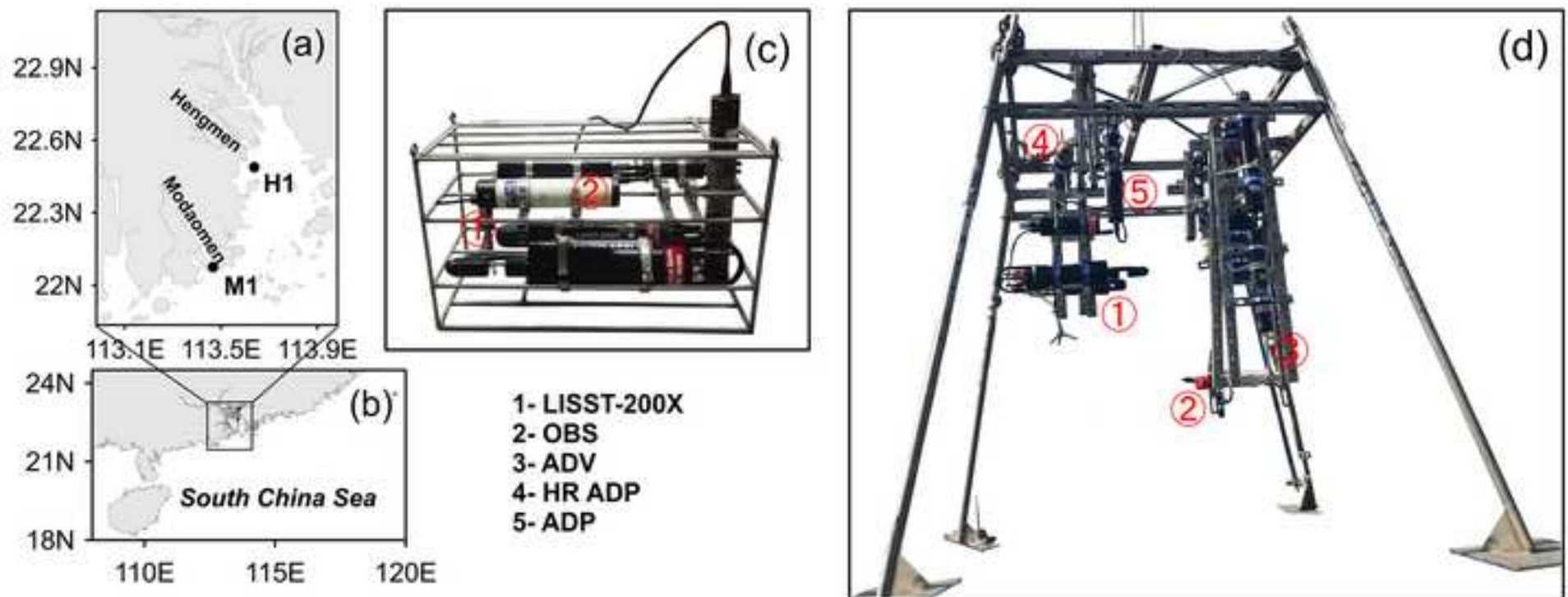
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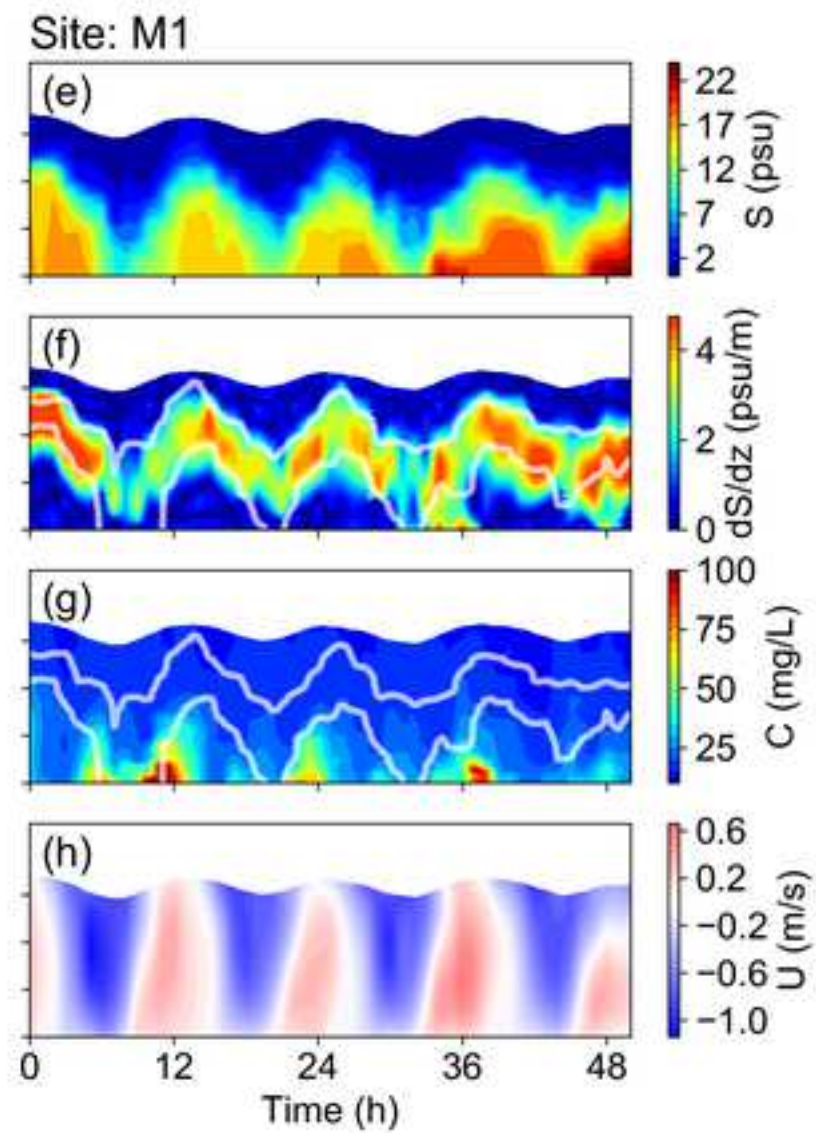
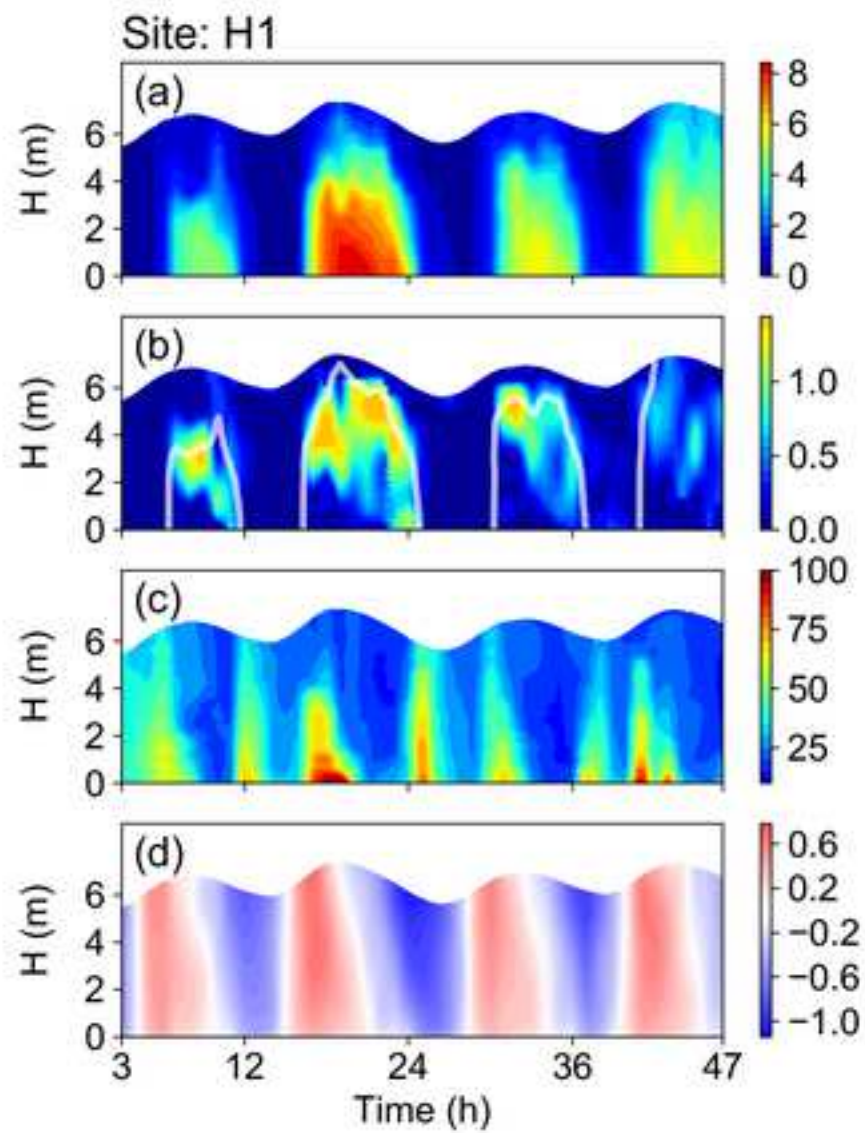
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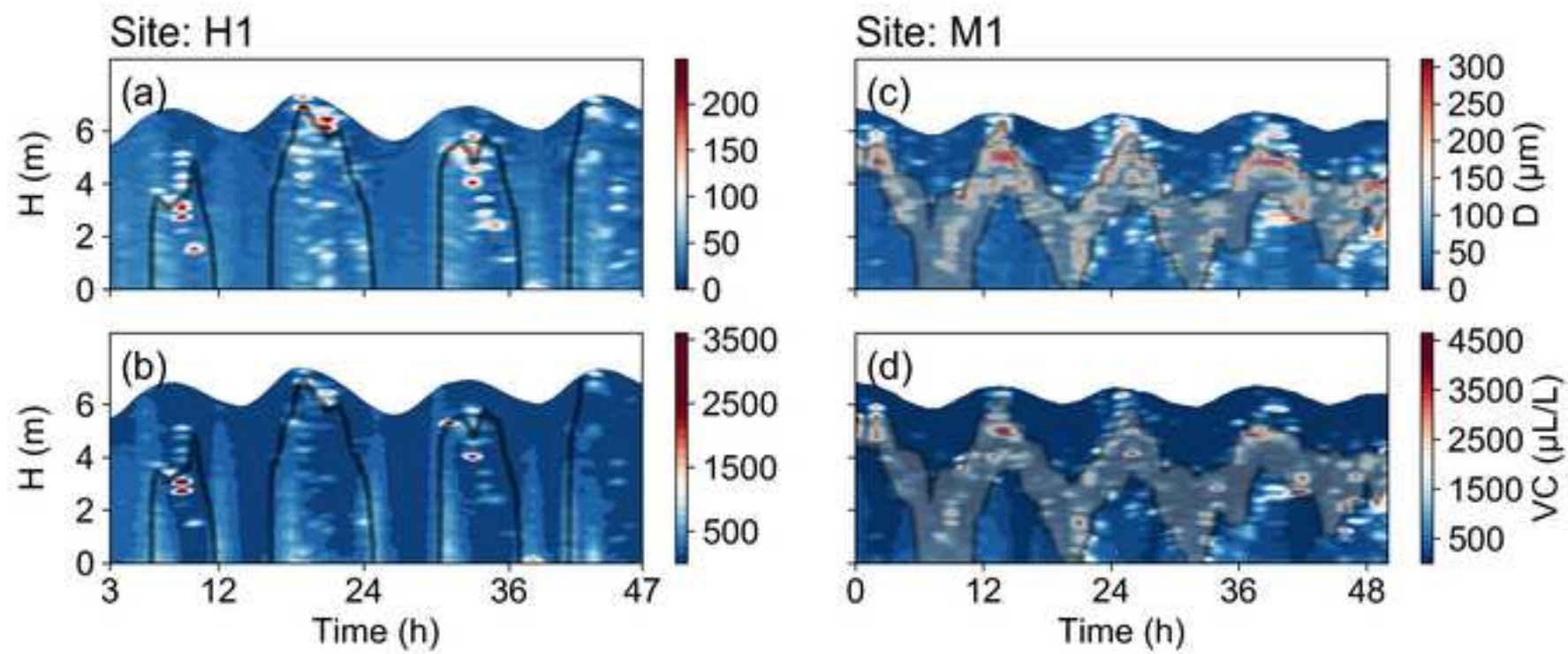
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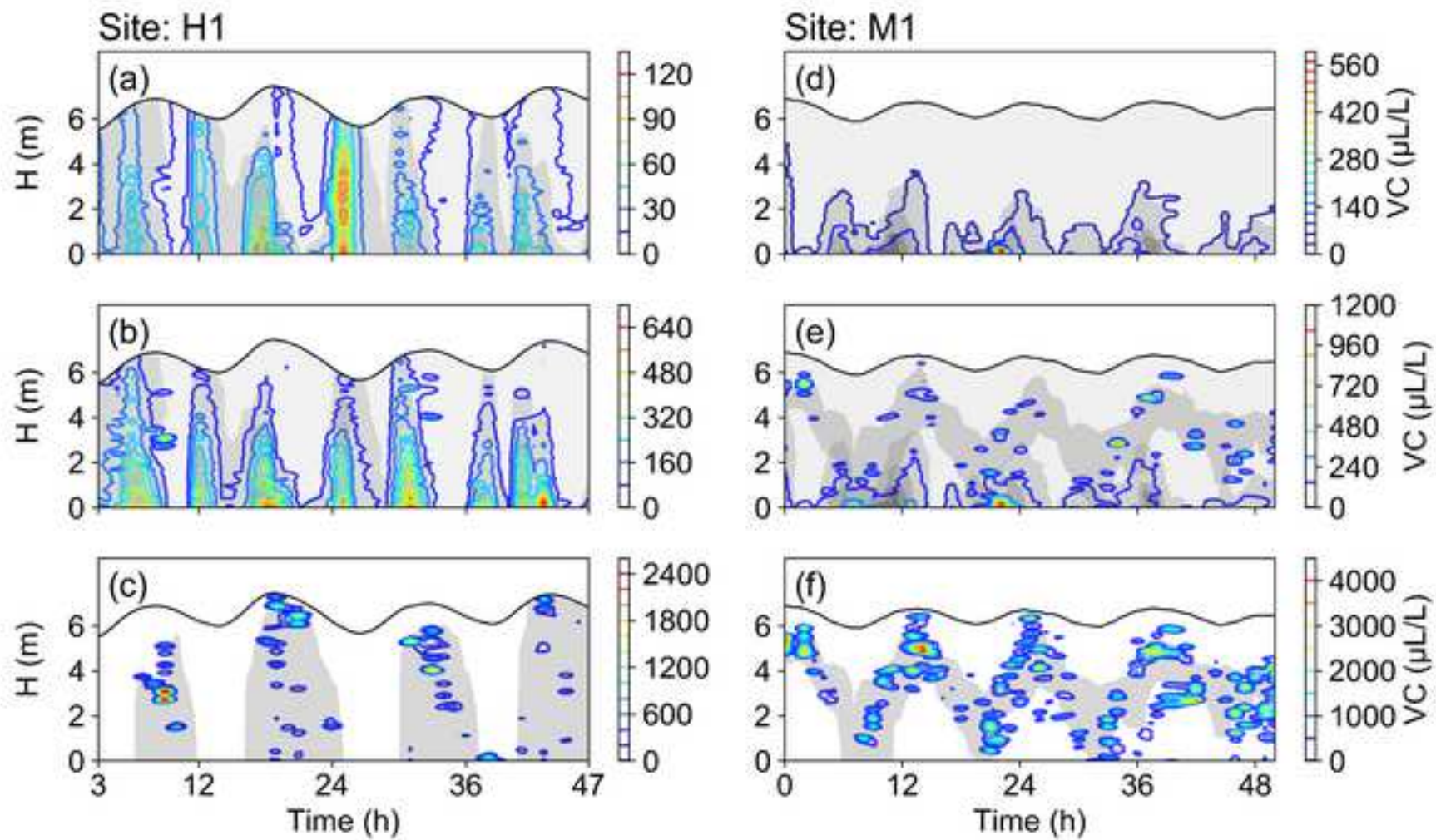
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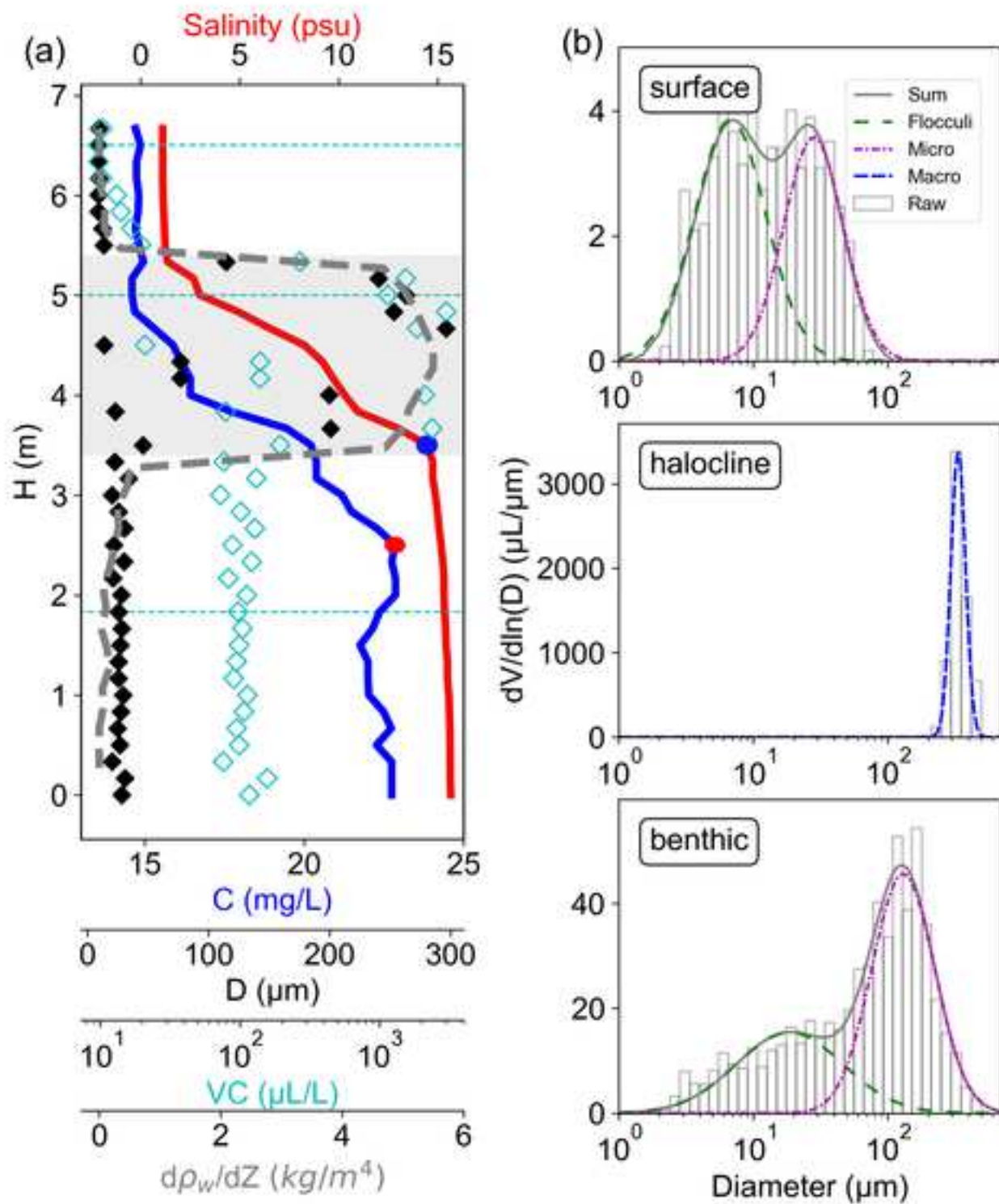
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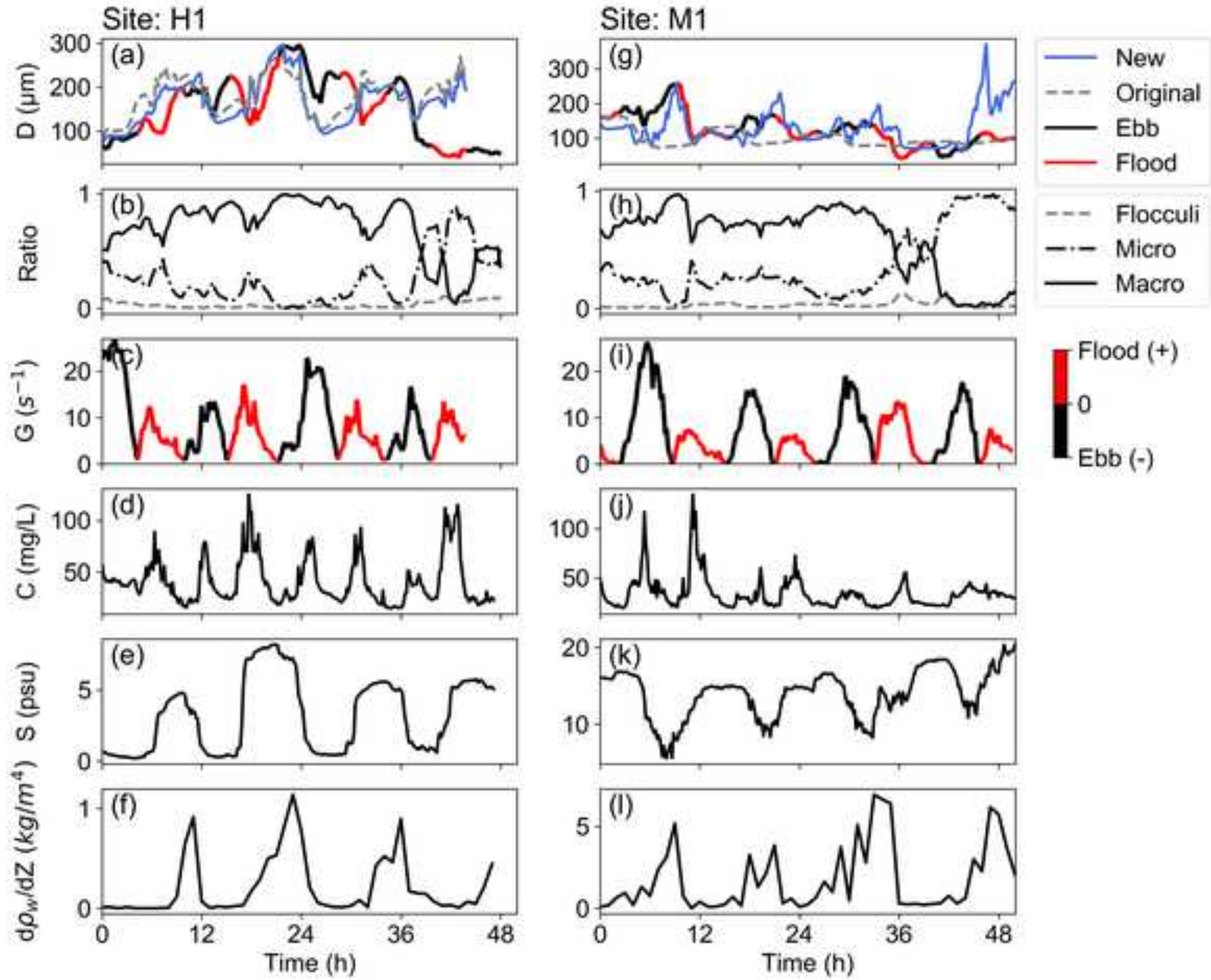




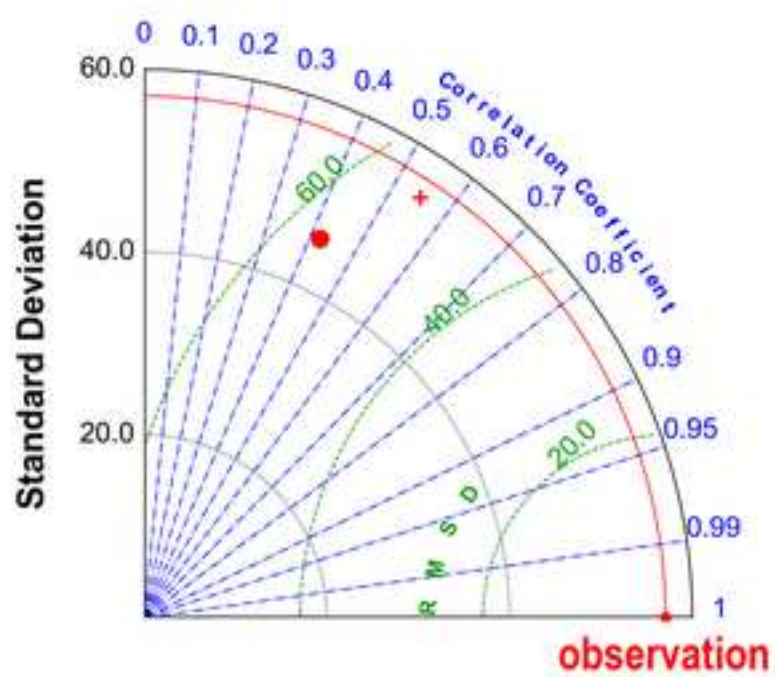




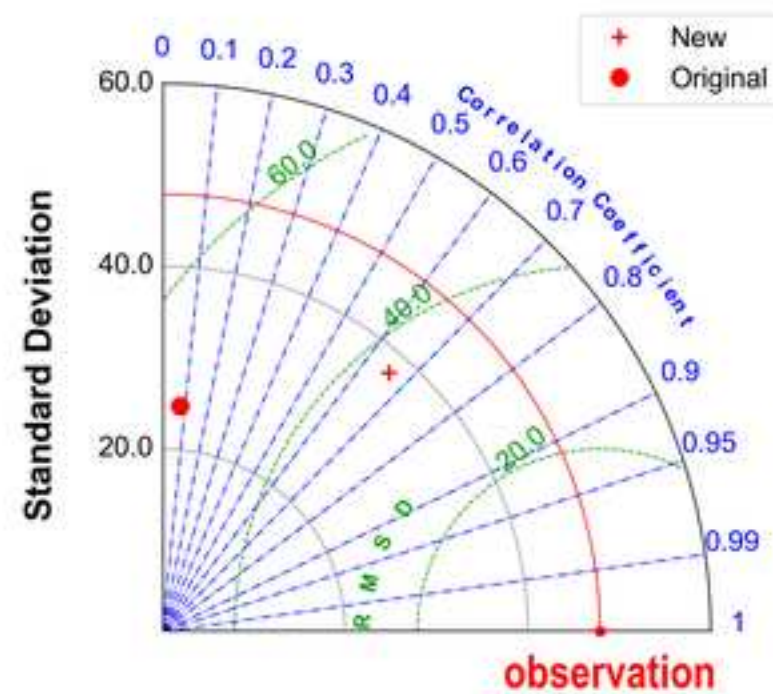


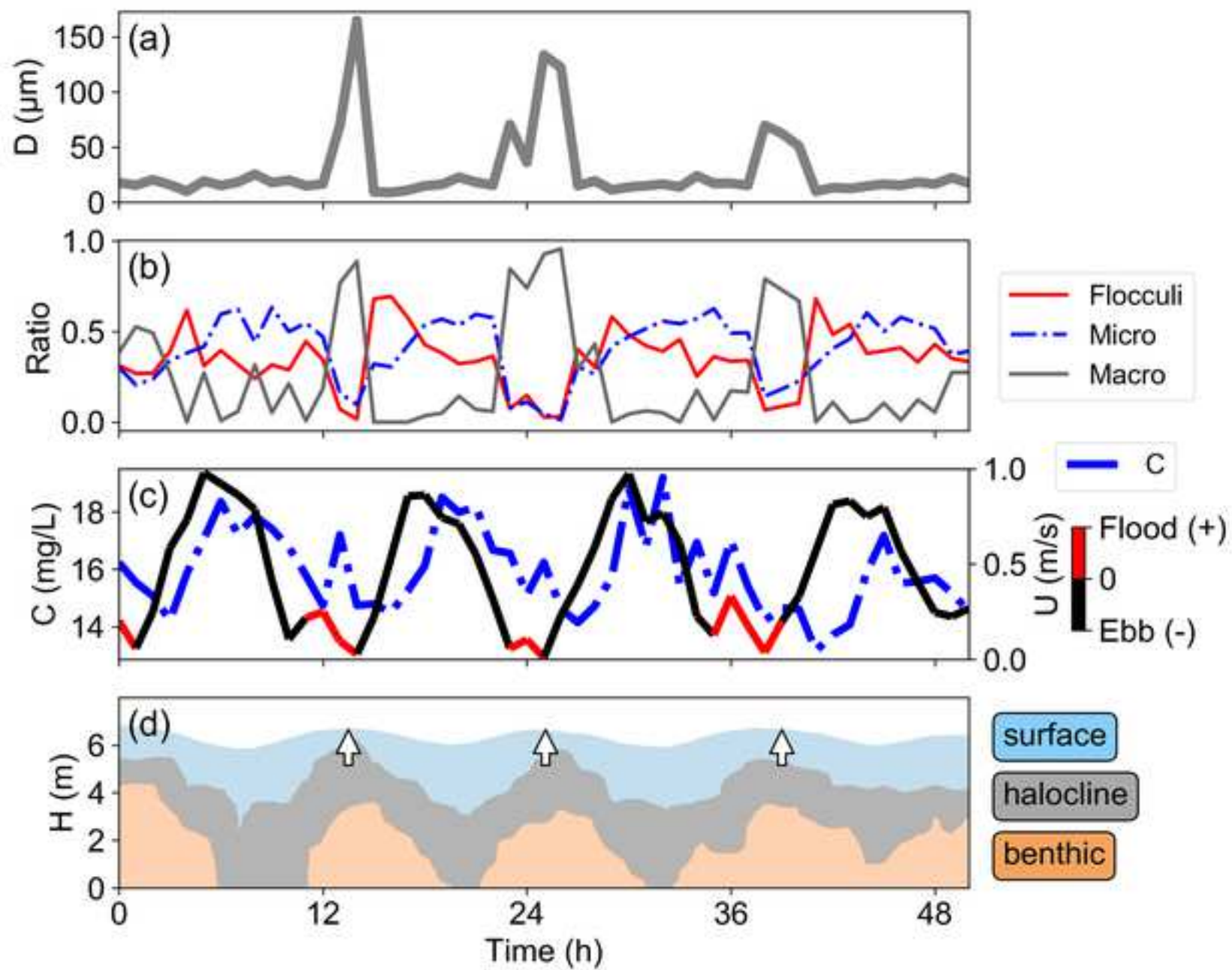


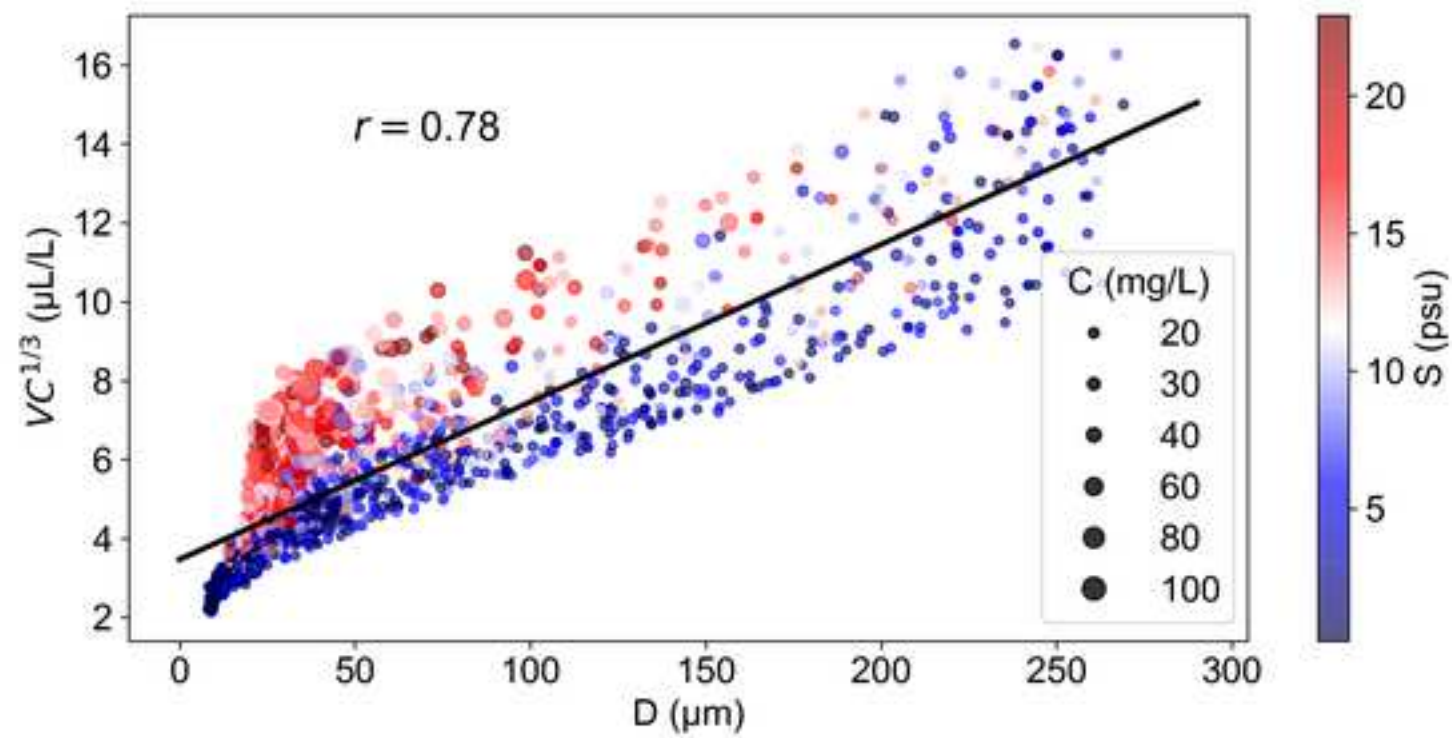
(a)



(b)







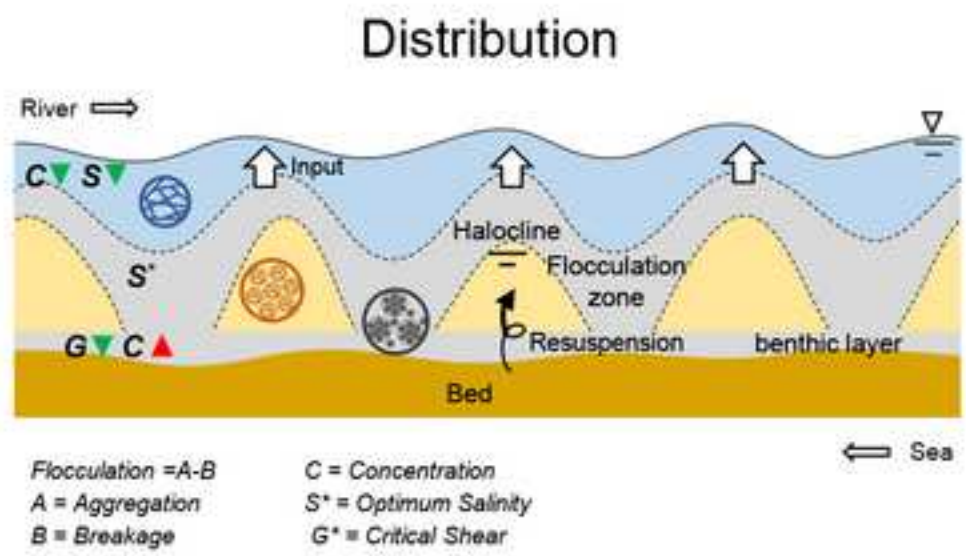
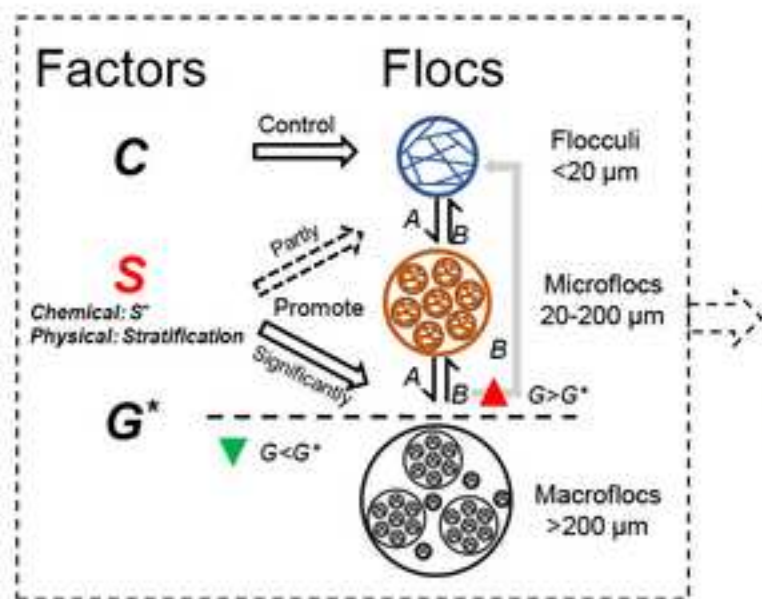


Figure Captions

Fig. 1 Locations of (a) the field survey sites and (b) the study area of the Pearl River Estuary, and instrument packages of (c) steel frame, and (d) benthic quadrupod.

Fig. 2 Times series of (a) and (e) salinity (psu), (b) and (f) salinity gradient (psu/m), (c) and (g) SPM concentration (mg/L), and (d) and (h) axial velocity (m/s) at site H1 (left panels) and site M1 (right panels). Here, “+” and “-” in (d) and (h) indicate ebb (south) and flood (north) flows, respectively, white line in (b) indicates $S = 2$ psu, and upper and lower lines in (f) and (g) indicate $S = 2$ and 13 psu, respectively.

Fig. 3 Times series of (a) and (c) flocs diameter (μm), (b) and (d) volumetric concentration ($\mu\text{L/L}$), at site H1 (left panels) and site M1 (right panels). Here, black lines in (a) and (b) indicate $S = 2$ psu, and white areas in (c) and (d) indicate $S = 2\text{-}13$ psu.

Fig. 4 Times series of volumetric concentration of (a) and (d) focculi, (b) and (e) microflocs, and (c) and (f) macroflocs at site H1 (left panels) and site M1 (right panels). Here, grey areas in (a), (b), (d) and (e) indicate contour plot of SPM concentration, in (c) indicate $S > 2$ psu, and in (e) and (f) indicate $S = 2\text{-}13$ psu.

Fig. 5 (a) Profile of flocs diameter (black dots), volumetric concentration (blue dots), the water density gradient (grey line), salinity (red line), and SPM concentration (blue line), and (b) PSDs in the surface, halocline, and benthic layers at $t = 15$ h in site M1. Here, Flocculi, Micro, Macro, Sum,

and Raw represent the decomposed PSDs of flocculi, microflocs, and macroflocs, the superposition of the decomposed PSDs, and the PSDs measured with the LISST instrument, respectively, and blue dash lines in (a) indicate the corresponding depth of the three layers, at $H = 6.5, 5,$ and 1.8 mab, respectively.

Fig. 6 Times series of (a) and (g) measured and simulated floc diameter, (b) and (h) volumetric percentage of Flocculi, microflocs (Micro), and macroflocs (Macro), (c) and (i) turbulent shear rate, (d) and (j) SPM concentration, (e) and (k) salinity on benthic quadrupod, and (f) and (l) water density gradient at the depth of LISST instrument (1.35 mab) at site H1 (left panels) and M1 (right panels).

Fig. 7 Taylor diagram to assess the model performance against observation at (a) site H1 and (b) M1.

Fig. 8 Times series of (a) flocs diameter and (b) volumetric percentage of Flocculi, microflocs (Micro), and macroflocs (Macro), (c) velocity (U) and SPM concentration (C) in the surface layer, and (d) conceptual three layers at site M1. Here, blue, grey, and yellow areas in (d) indicate $S < 2,$ $2-13,$ and > 13 psu, respectively.

Fig. 9 The relationship between diameter (D) and the cube root of volumetric concentration (VC).