## Université de Montréal

# Numerical modelling of the impact of climate change on the morphology of Saint-Lawrence tributaries 

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## RÉSUMÉ

Cette thèse examine les impacts sur la morphologie des tributaires du fleuve Saint-Laurent des changements dans leur débit et leur niveau de base engendrés par les changements climatiques prévus pour la période 2010-2099. Les tributaires sélectionnés (rivières Batiscan, Richelieu, Saint-Maurice, Saint-François et Yamachiche) ont été choisis en raison de leurs différences de taille, de débit et de contexte morphologique. Non seulement ces tributaires subissent-ils un régime hydrologique modifié en raison des changements climatiques, mais leur niveau de base (niveau d'eau du fleuve Saint-Laurent) sera aussi affecté. Le modèle morphodynamique en une dimension (1D) SEDROUT, à l'origine développé pour des rivières graveleuses en mode d'aggradation, a été adapté pour le contexte spécifique des tributaires des basses-terres du Saint-Laurent afin de simuler des rivières sablonneuses avec un débit quotidien variable et des fluctuations du niveau d'eau à l'aval. Un module pour simuler le partage des sédiments autour d'îles a aussi été ajouté au modèle. Le modèle ainsi amélioré (SEDROUT4-M), qui a été testé à l'aide de simulations à petite échelle et avec les conditions actuelles d'écoulement et de transport de sédiments dans quatre tributaires du fleuve SaintLaurent, peut maintenant simuler une gamme de problèmes morphodynamiques de rivières. Les changements d'élévation du lit et d'apport en sédiments au fleuve Saint-Laurent pour la période 2010-2099 ont été simulés avec SEDROUT4-M pour les rivières Batiscan, Richelieu et Saint-François pour toutes les combinaisons de sept régimes hydrologiques (conditions actuelles et celles prédites par trois modèles de climat globaux (MCG) et deux scénarios de gaz à effet de serre) et de trois scénarios de changements du niveau de base du fleuve Saint-Laurent (aucun changement, baisse graduelle, baisse abrupte). Les impacts sur l'apport de sédiments et l'élévation du lit diffèrent entre les MCG et semblent reliés au statut des cours d'eau (selon qu'ils soient en état d'aggradation, de dégradation ou d'équilibre), ce qui illustre l'importance d'examiner plusieurs rivières avec différents modèles climatiques afin d'établir des tendances dans les effets des changements climatiques. Malgré le fait que le débit journalier moyen et le débit annuel moyen demeurent près de leur valeur actuelle dans les trois scénarios de MCG, des changements importants dans les taux de transport de sédiments simulés pour chaque tributaire sont observés. Ceci est dû à l'impact important de fortes crues plus fréquentes dans un climat futur de même qu'à l'arrivée plus hâtive de la
crue printanière, ce qui résulte en une variabilité accrue dans les taux de transport en charge de fond. Certaines complications avec l'approche de modélisation en 1D pour représenter la géométrie complexe des rivières Saint-Maurice et Saint-François suggèrent qu'une approche bi-dimensionnelle (2D) devrait être sérieusement considérée afin de simuler de façon plus exacte la répartition des débits aux bifurcations autour des îles. La rivière Saint-François est utilisée comme étude de cas pour le modèle 2D H2D2, qui performe bien d'un point de vue hydraulique, mais qui requiert des ajustements pour être en mesure de pleinement simuler les ajustements morphologiques des cours d'eau.

Mots clés: modèle mophodynamique, fleuve Saint-Laurent, changements climatiques, transport de sédiments en charge de fond, niveau de base, risque d'inondation, débit efficace, période de récurrence, débit demi-charge.


#### Abstract

This thesis investigates the impacts of climate-induced changes in discharge and base level on the morphology of Saint-Lawrence River tributaries for the period 2010-2099. The selected tributaries (Batiscan, Richelieu, Saint-Maurice, Saint-François and Yamachiche rivers) were chosen because of their differences in size, flow regime and morphological setting. Not only will these tributaries experience an altered hydrological regime as a consequence of climate change, but their base level (Saint-Lawrence River water level) will also change. A onedimensional (1D) morphodynamic model (SEDROUT), originally developed for aggrading gravel-bed rivers, was adapted for the specific context of the Saint-Lawrence lowland tributaries in order to simulate sand-bed rivers with variable daily discharge and downstream water level fluctuations. A module to deal with sediment routing in channels with islands was also added to the model. The enhanced model (SEDROUT4-M), which was tested with smallscale simulations and present-day conditions in four tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River, can now simulate a very wide range of river morphodynamic problems. Changes in bed elevation and bed-material delivery to the Saint-Lawrence River over the 2010-2099 period were simulated with SEDROUT4-M for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers for all combinations of seven tributary hydrological regimes (present-day and those predicted using three global climate models (GCM) and two greenhouse gas emission scenarios) and three scenarios of how the base level provided by the Saint-Lawrence River will alter (no change, gradual decrease, step decrease). The effects on mean annual sediment delivery and bed elevation differ between GCM and seem to be related to whether the river is currently aggrading, degrading or in equilibrium, which highlights the importance of investigating several rivers using several climate models in order to determine trends in climate change impacts. Despite the fact that mean daily discharge and mean annual maximum discharge remain close to their current values in the three GCM scenarios for daily discharge, marked changes occur in the mean annual sediment transport rates in each simulated tributary. This is due to the important effect of more frequent large individual flood events under future climate as well as a shift of peak annual discharge from the spring towards the winter, which results in increased variability of bed-material transport rates. Some complications with the 1D modelling approach to capture the complex geometry of the Saint-Maurice and Saint-François rivers suggest that


the use of a two-dimensional (2D) approach should be seriously considered to accurately simulate the discharge distribution at bifurcations around islands. The Saint-François River is used as a test case for the 2D model H2D2, which performs well from a hydraulics point of view but which needs to be adapted to fully simulate morphological adjustments in the channel.

Keywords: morphodynamic model, Saint-Lawrence River, climate change, bed-material transport, base level, flood risk, effective discharge, recurrence interval, half-load discharge.

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## NOTATION

| $\alpha$ | coefficient Ackers and White [1973] equals 10 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\beta_{\tau}$ | direction of shear stress relative to longitudinal direction | rad |
| $\beta_{s i}$ | direction of sediment transport relative to longitudinal direction | rad |
| $\lambda$ | bed porosity |  |
| $v$ | kinematic viscosity of water | $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $\phi$ | grain size class $D=2^{-\phi}$ |  |
| $\psi$ | $\tau / \tau_{r i}$ |  |
| $\rho$ | density of water | $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$ |
| $\rho_{s}$ | density of sediments | $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$ |
| $\tau$ | bed shear stress | Pa |
| $\tau_{r i}$ | reference shear stress of size fraction $i$ | Pa |
| $\tau_{r s 50}$ | shear stress of $D_{s 50}$ | Pa |
| $\theta_{i}$ | non dimensional shear stress (Shields number) for size fraction $i$ |  |
| 1,2,3 | subscripts for branches, $1_{1}=$ upstream, $2_{2}$ and ${ }_{3}=$ bifurcates |  |
| $A_{i}$ | coefficient |  |
| B | channel width | m |
| $b$ | power of the sediment transport equation $q_{s} \sim a u^{b}$ |  |
| C | coefficient | - |
| ${ }^{c}$ | power of nodal point relationship |  |
| $c_{i}$ | weighting factor for mixing bedload with substrate |  |

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$d$ exponent
$D_{a} \quad$ particle size that begins to move under the same conditions as uniform material m
$D_{i} \quad$ grain size of fraction $i \quad \mathrm{~m}$
$D_{16}$ subsurface particle size for which $16 \%$ of the sediment sample is finer
$D_{50}$ subsurface particle size for which $50 \%$ of the sediment sample is finer m
$D_{84}$ subsurface particle size for which $84 \%$ of the sediment sample is finer
$D_{g r i} \quad$ dimensionless particle size of the $i$ th fraction
$D_{s 50}$ median grain size of bed surface
m
$D_{s m} \quad$ mean grain size of bed surface
$e \quad$ transition exponent
$E_{i} \quad$ proportion of volume material in the exchange layer
$F_{i} \quad$ proportion of fraction $i$ in surface size distribution
$F_{x}, F_{y}$ resulting momentum in longitudinal and lateral direction $\mathrm{kg} \cdot \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$
$F_{g r i} \quad$ mobility number of sediment
$g$ acceleration due to gravity $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}^{2}$
$H$ water depth m
$h$ water surface elevation m
$h_{d s} \quad$ downstream water elevation
$k \quad$ exponent
$L_{a} \quad$ active layer thickness
$L_{s u b} \quad$ thickness of the first sublayer
$n \quad$ Manning-Strickler value
$\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{m}^{1 / 3}$

| $p_{i}$ | proportion of volume material in bedload | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $Q$ | water discharge | $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $q$ | specific discharge | $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $Q_{s}$ | total sediment transport | $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $q_{x}$ | longitudinal specific discharge | $\mathrm{m}^{2 / 5}$ |
| $q_{y}$ | lateral specific discharge | $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $q_{i b}$ | volumetric bed material transport per unit width of size $i$ | $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $Q_{s i}$ | total sediment transport of size fracion $i$ | $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $Q_{s i}^{\star}$ | dimensionless sediment transport rate of size fraction $i$ | - |
| $R$ | parameter to adjust the sediment transport ratio at a bifurcation | - |
| $R_{Q}$ | is the ratio of water discharge at a bifurcation | - |
| $R_{Q s}$ | is the ratio of sediment transport at a bifurcation | - |
| $s$ | ratio of sediment to water density | - |
| $t$ | time | s |
| $U$ | mean velocity | m/s |
| $u$ | longitudinal velocity | m/s |
| $u_{\star}$ | shear velocity | m/s |
| $v$ | lateral velocity | m/s |
| $x$ | longitudinal distance | m |
| $X_{i}$ | rate of sediment transport in terms of mass flow per unit flow rate for the $i$ th fraction |  |
|  |  | $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{s}$ |
| $y$ | lateral distance | m |
| $z$ | bed elevation above reference datum | m |

## DEDICATION

Ter gedachtenis aan mijn geliefde peetoom Frans van Beek (1938-2009) en peettante Ria van BeekMensch (1940-2005). Die zich altijd zeer betrokken hebben getoond met mijn leven, die mij gesteund hebben om dit avontuur aan te gaan en die mij dit graag hadden zien afronden.

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Ria:
'blijf lachen'
'keep laughing'

Frans:
'Zonder verleden geen toekomst'
'Without past no future'

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## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Climate change can affect large river systems through variations in discharge and water levels. The variation in discharge leads to changes in sediment transport capacity and has potential consequences for infrastructures, navigation and flood risk. As the water level of the mainstream is the base level for incoming streams, variation in water level will also have an impact on tributary streams. This research investigates the impacts of various climate change scenarios on five tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River (Québec) through the use of a one-dimensional (1D) numerical morphological model. The project is novel in its focus on relatively short time scale ( $\sim 100$ years), as very little research has been undertaken to evaluate the possible impacts of short to medium term climate change on river morphology and sediments, despite their potential ecological and economical importance.

Rivers tend to search for equilibrium between external forcing (discharge and water level) and internal dimensions (width, depth, slope, sinuosity, etc.). Changes in discharge and downstream water level can have very large impacts on local river morphology, because of the non-linear character of morphological processes. Morphological response to changes in discharge and/or base level is largely dependent on local settings such as sediment type, bed slope, bank material, etc. Climate changes do not simply result in increasing or decreasing discharge, but they actually alter the shape of the hydrograph, for example with increased spring flow and lower summer discharge. Therefore, a direct derivation of the consequences for sediment transport cannot be made and numerical models need to be used. However, studies that link the effects of future changes in temperature and precipitation to hydrology and river morphology are very sparse [Gomez et al., 2009].

A major issue when dealing with a numerical modelling approach is dealing with the uncertainty of predictions and models. The input for our morphodynamic model comes from prediction of greenhouse gas scenarios that drive global or regional climate models to predict changes in temperature and precipitation, which are then used in a hydrological model to obtain river discharges. These initial steps were carried out by the Ouranos research centre, a consortium on regional climatology and adaptation to climate change [www.ouranos.ca,

Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. Ouranos is the main source of North American regional climate simulations and, as such, it is recognized as a leading research centre in climate change in Canada that brings together 250 scientists and professionals from different disciplines. Ouranos is a partner in the NSERC Strategic grant that has funded this project. The discharge scenarios provided by Ouranos were used to force a morphodynamic model that transfers bed shear stress into sediment transport rates. The transformation from discharge to morphological changes is described in this thesis.

The overall objective of this study is to explore the morphological impacts on rivers of near-future climate change. The specific objectives are:

1. To modify and validate a one-dimensional morphodynamic model for the geomorphological context of selected tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River;
2. To determine how climate-induced changes in near-future hydrology will affect the stability and sediment delivery of tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River;
3. To determine variations in bed-material transport at the event scale in order to determine the impact of more frequent extreme events on rivers;
4. To explore the potential of two-dimensional (2D) long-term morphological simulations.

Chapter 2 provides the background information on key variables of the river system, climate change, morphological modelling as well as a description of the study area. A general review of these aspects is presented along with a discussion of the past and current knowledge of river adaptation to climate change and prediction/simulation of future climate change effects on precipitation, temperature, discharge and river morphology. The choices of models, study areas and sediment transport formula are justified.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 correspond to articles that are published in or submitted to international scientific journals. As such, some repetition occurs to enable the individual publications to be read on their own. These chapters include a detailed methodology for the analysis done within each article. Chapter 3 describes the choice, modification and validation of the morphological model (SEDROUT) for the selected tributaries. Results of the simulations are presented in chapter 4 by focusing on yearly average and global trends in the comparison be-
tween scenarios, whereas chapter 5 examines more closely the event scale in order to address the role of extreme events in river response to climate changes.

Chapter 6 explains in more detail the problems faced with modelling some of the selected tributaries with a 1D model, namely the Saint-Maurice, Yamachiche and Saint-François rivers. The chapter also explores the use of two-dimensional modelling on one of the selected tributaries (Saint-François River). Because of complexities such as islands, two-dimensional modelling could help resolve the problems faced with the 1D model, despite the increased computational cost. Finally, chapter 7 provides a general conclusion and directions for future research on the impacts of climate change on river morphology.

The response of a river to changes in discharge and/or base level is complex. Most of the research focuses on one of the two aspects over short time scales or the combination of the two over very long temporal scales. The combination of discharge change and base level change on a near future scale has not been addressed before in geomorphological models. Furthermore, research on near future climate is typically limited to changes in discharge, ecological effects related to changes in habitat or flood risk assessment, based on usually only one climatic scenario. This project will investigate the effects of both a change in discharge and base level on the morphology of the tributaries and the main stream using various scenarios. Finally, there is a lack of research on climate change on mild slope, sand-bed rivers. Given that most of human settlements around the world are located in the low-land areas of the river system, morphological changes in these areas can have potentially large impacts.

Morphodynamic simulations with discharge scenarios obtained from two different green house gas scenarios and the use of different climatic models are a major strength of this study. Examining different tributaries within the same region also makes this research unique and enhances the potential for generalization of the results. Finally, the intermediate temporal scale ( $\sim 100$ years) combined with a fairly large spatial scale (around 15 km ), also contribute to the originality of this research.

## CHAPTER 2

## BACKGROUND

### 2.1 The river system

Rivers are constantly trying to find an equilibrium state in which there is a balance between the water force and channel resistance [e.g. Schumm, 1977; Leopold and Bull, 1979]. Over intermediate time scales, rivers are in a near equilibrium state where the balance between stream power and sediment transport is almost achieved, which is characterized by a stable longitudinal profile; among others Schumm [1977] defined this as the graded state. This


Figure 2.1: Balance model for aggradation or degradation of an alluvial river. [Blum and Törnqvist, 2000] pseudo equilibrium state is one where the water slope and bed slope are constant over time although the elevation of the bed and water may change, i.e. aggradation or degradation may occur. Perturbations in water discharge or base level will interrupt this balance and the river system will adjust by finding a new balance between stream power and sediment transport (Figure 2.1). Aggradation or degradation of alluvial rivers is thus a result of the balance between sediment supply on one side and sediment transport capacity (or stream power) on the other side. However, this model is very general and the effects of the shape of the hydrograph or thresholds for sediment transport are not taken into account.

The river system possesses different types of equilibrium depending on the time scale of interest. As proposed and explained by Schumm [1977], this will vary from the smallest time scale with static equilibrium, meaning a constant bed elevation and continuous sediment transport rate along the river, to a large time scale dynamic metastable equilibrium with episodic erosion (Figure 2.2). Time scales in climate research are important, since climatic
parameters like precipitation and temperature are highly dynamic at all time scales, ranging from hours up to more than 100000 years [Vandenberghe, 1995]. The period of interest is critically important to determine the type of event that is important for landscape evolution [Bogaart and van Balen, 2000]. For example, at scales of hours to days, the dominating events are individual events, like thunderstorms; at scales of months to year, seasonal variations (e.g. snowmelt in the spring); at scales of decades, gradual climate change like global warming; from centuries to millennium, long-term climate oscillations; and at even larger time scales, transition and interglacial cycles. Together all these events shape the landscape and river channels.


Figure 2.2: Types of equilibriums based on Schumm [1977].

A simplification or idealized representation of the river system can be very helpful to understand the important processes in river systems. Schumm [1977] divided the river system in three zones and identified the dominant process in each case. In upstream to downstream order these are: the production zone, the transfer zone and the deposition zone. Erosion, transport and deposition of sediments occur in all the three zones. However, sediments are generally coming from the upstream region and transported through the middle section and deposited in the downstream zone. In natural rivers, sediments are not transported to their depositional site at once. During their journey down the river they are stored temporarily in the system as colluvial, alluvial fan or fluvial deposits. These deposits are eroded later on and sediments are transported again.

The river system is considered a complex system [Leopold and Bull, 1979; Hey, 1986; Knighton, 1998; Phillips, 2003]. In order to be defined as complex, a system must have one or more of the following behaviours: non-linear, unpredictable, multiple equilibrium states, memory and multiple (temporal and spatial) scales. Typical examples of complex
systems are: ecosystems, economies, transportation networks and neural systems [Parrott, 2002]. In the context of complex systems, unpredictability and non linearity refer to multiple equilibrium states that can exist within the system and for which one can therefore not predict the outcome directly. However, it does not imply that the evolution cannot be simulated; it is only impossible, or very hard, to postulate based on general assumptions what equilibrium state will be reached. Numerical models can still be used to evaluate different responses to input parameters, a practice that is often employed in geomorphology, by the evaluation of past events or comparison of different future changes (sensitivity analyses) [Coulthard and Macklin, 2001; Hulse et al., 2009]. Conceptual models and numerical morphological models possess a complex non-linear behaviour which is not an artefact of the model, but which is observed in many geomorphic phenomena [Phillips, 2003].


Figure 2.3: Overview of interrelationships in the fluvial system. Adapted from Knighton [1998].

Over the years several attempts have been made to incorporate all the inter-relationships within-river system to be able to predict river response to any change in external forcing or within the river system [e.g. Schumm, 1977; Hey, 1986; Knighton, 1998; Eaton et al., 2004]. Figure 2.3 provides an overview of these relationships. Although this overview contains all the factors in play, it is difficult to see the impact of a specific change due to the large number of feedback loops. This is the unpredictable aspect as defined above. Ideally, a river system model should include all these inter-relationships, although it is virtually impossible to define all the boundary conditions.


Figure 2.4: Relations between rate of transport, applied stress, and frequency of stress application. Adapted from Wolman and Miller [1960].

A common assumption in geomorphology is that the median magnitude floods are the most influential in long-term landscape evolution [Figure 2.4 Wolman and Miller, 1960]. Effective, dominant, channel forming or half-load discharge are the concepts that exist to determine the magnitude and recurrence interval of these floods [Wolman and Miller, 1960; Vogel et al., 2003; Doyle et al., 2007]. The dominant flood is often associated with bankfull discharge, which is generally true for stable rivers in an unconfined environment [Andrews, 1980; Van Den Berg, 1995]. The recurrence interval of the bankfull discharge varies among rivers from about 1 year to 32 years depending on their morphological state [Wolman and Miller, 1960; Andrews, 1980; Carling, 1988; Knighton, 1998; Barry et al., 2008]. Long recurrence intervals are most likely found in degrading rivers where banks are high [Knighton, 1998]. The most common recurrence interval for bankfull discharge is about 1.5 years [Knighton, 1998, among others]. However, it is not always obvious to determine bankfull discharge as the bankfull stage of cross sections may not exhibit a clear limit between the channel and the bank.


Figure 2.5: The effective discharge for dissolved load, suspended load and bedload. Adapted from Knighton [1998].

Wolman and Miller [1960] proposed to use a combination of discharge ranges and total volume transported to determine which discharge is transporting the largest volume. The
method was first developed for suspended load in rivers where rating curves of suspended transport were available. However, the idea of effective or dominant discharge has been criticized when generalized towards bedload transport due to the large variability of the measurements [e.g. Andrews, 1980; Nash, 1994; Vogel et al., 2003; Doyle and Shields, 2008]. In Figure 2.5 it can be seen that the magnitude of the effective discharge and hence the recurrence interval depends on the type of sediment transport [e.g. Knighton, 1998]. Channel dimensions are more related to bedload transport than suspended transport, therefore it seems more likely that the effective discharge is a relatively rare event. The effective discharge is found to vary greatly between rivers [Pickup and Warner, 1976; Ashmore and Day, 1988; Nash, 1994; Torizzo and Pitlick, 2004]. One of the difficulties with this concept is that it is very sensitive to how the discharge ranges are defined [Crowder and Knapp, 2005] and it relies on sediment rating curves which are mostly not well known for a given river. An alternative approach is the half-load discharge (value above and below which half the longterm sediment load is transported) which is a more robust measure of discharge [Vogel et al., 2003]. This approach uses the cumulative sediment transport in a similar way to how the median diameter of grain size distribution is determined.

Alluvial rivers will respond to climate change through changes in discharge related to variation of precipitation and evaporation, which will consequently influence discharge magnitude, flood frequency and duration [Gibson, 2005; Molnar et al., 2006], and base level [Schumm, 1977; Leopold and Bull, 1979; Tucker and Slingerland, 1997; Blum and Törnqvist, 2000]. Base level changes are often considered only in terms of sea level variation, especially in climate change and river basin research, but major rivers act as local base levels for their tributaries [Slingerland and Snow, 1988; Schumm, 1993; Church, 1995]. Both discharge and base level changes have different effects on the river morphology and the prediction of the river response for each variable taken individually is difficult as it depends on other factors such as the magnitude, duration and direction of the perturbation [Schumm, 1993; Van Heijst and Postma, 2001]. The assessment of the river response to both discharge and base level changes can only realistically be done by numerical modelling.

Base level, as defined by Powell [1875], is used to identify the elevation to which rivers or landscape will erode. Essentially this level is the sea level, although it is known that rivers will erode slightly below it [Schumm, 1993]. Base level is also defined as the local level to which rivers erode, for instance the water level in the main stream or in a lake, or the
bed rock in degrading rivers. Therefore, the water level in the Saint-Lawrence River is the base level for all its tributaries. A base level change is often viewed as a perturbation that occurs in a short reach, which may affect the reaches upstream [e.g. Leopold and Bull, 1979; Begin et al., 1981; Bonneau and Snow, 1992]. However, the upstream distance influenced by the base level change cannot easily be determined beforehand [Blum and Törnqvist, 2000]. Some studies show that the base level in the main stream is only affecting the tributaries locally [Leopold and Bull, 1979]. On the contrary, Slingerland and Snow [1988] simulated the response of a river network to a lowering of its base level. Flow in the tributaries was in the order of $10 \%$ of the discharge in the main stream. The response of the system was cyclic, with periods of erosion and sedimentation in the main stream, due to a change in the input of sediment in the main stream by erosion of the tributary. The type of response to a base level lowering also depends on the rate of base level change [Bonneau and Snow, 1992].

A slow rate will lead to a period of initial steepening of


B


Figure 2.6: Extremes in profile adjustment to continuous base level lowering. Adapted from Bonneau and Snow [1992]. the channel followed by parallel erosion (Figure 2.6a). Continuous steepening occurs when the rate of change is higher than the response of the head waters. A slow rate of base level change allows the river to adjust its pattern and maintain its slope, whereas a higher rate leads to incision [Schumm, 1993]. The type of response is also highly dependent on local settings and controls. According to Schumm [1993] classification, base level controls are direction, magnitude, rate and duration; geological controls are lithology, structure and nature of valley alluvium, and geomorphic controls are inclination of exposed surface, valley morphology, river morphology and adjustability.

A river has several degrees of freedom to respond to changes in discharge and base level, namely bed elevation, channel width, channel depth, meander wave length, sinuosity, bed slope, width to depth ratio and bed composition [Knighton, 1998; Eaton and Church, 2004]. Schumm [1977] developed a simplified river model that described the direction of change for all these variables as a function of change in discharge and sediment
transport rate. His river model, however, only gives a qualitative description of the expected changes. Schumm [1993] also argued that the main response of an unconfined sand-bed river to a change in base level is a change in river pattern [Simon and Hupp, 1986; Simon, 1989, 1992]. However, field studies such as Begin et al. [1981] show that this is not necessarily the case and that the river response can be more in terms of incision when a base level lowering occurs. Discrepancies in the type of response between rivers may also be related to sedimentology, as rivers with cohesive sediment will erode their banks [Schumm, 1993; Doyle and Harbor, 2003]. However, a case study in the Jordan River revealed that non-cohesive sediments also underwent incision as a primary response to base level lowering [Hassan and Klein, 2002], so other variables must intervene in river adjustment. For example, the slope of the continental shelf, in the case of sea level change, plays a role in the river response [Summerfield, 1985; Blum and Törnqvist, 2000]. When the slope of the continental shelf is steeper than the river channel slope, incision and increased sinuosity are the most likely responses. If the slope of the continental shelf is less steep, then aggradation or channel straightening will occur. When the slopes are the same, the river will maintain its sinuosity and there will be no change in sinuosity further upstream.

### 2.2 Climate change

### 2.2.1 Past climate change

Climate is an important factor on the evolution of landscape and rivers. It is known that climate gradually changes over time in cycles. Since the last glacial period the earth temperature rise caused the ice caps to melt and the sea level to rise by about 120 m over that period [IPCC, 2007]. Since the beginning of the Holocene, about 12000 years ago, the Earth temperature and precipitation have been fairly constant relative to the glacier inter-glacier cycle [e.g. Antoine, 2003].

Resolving what happened in the past is often seen as a necessity for future predictions [Dearing et al., 2006]. Unfortunately, records of past climate are influenced by human activity. Therefore, the reconstruction of climate can only be done when climate, human activities and earth processes, including their interactions are reproduced at all locations and scales [Dearing, 2006].

More recently changes in climate (precipitation and temperature) have been observed
(for example, in ice cover) all over the world. Various records of ice cores and tree ring data indicate that greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations and global temperature are rising due to human activity. The effect of changing GHG concentrations in the atmosphere varies around the globe and contributes to more extreme meteorological events, like hurricanes, heat waves, etc. [Goudie, 2006; Hansen et al., 2006, and references herein]. The global trend is that the earth surface temperature is increaseing over the last decades.

Changes in climate over several decades have been recorded in some watersheds, for example the Waipaoa River in New Zealand [Gomez et al., 2009]. The evaluation of river basin sediment transport as a consequence of these changes is complicated by the other changes within the river basin, such as forest clearing, hydraulic structures, etc. Recent climate changes have also been observed in Québec. Over a 44 year period from 1960 to 2003 the temperatures increased between $0.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and $1.2^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with a strong East-West gradient because of large water bodies in the East [Bourque and Simonet, 2008]. Other indicators such as the length of the frost-free season, growing degree-days and heating degree-days have changed over the last decades as well.

### 2.2.2 Future climate change

There is now a clear consensus that the global climate will continue to change in the near future, at least partly because of human activities [IPCC, 2007]. Human activities have greatly increased concentrations of greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide and methane. These elevated concentrations will result in higher mean temperature of the earth, however on a regional scale it will alter temperature (increase or decrease) and precipitation which inevitably also affects hydrological systems and river flows [Graham et al., 2007; Minville et al., 2008]. For the assessment of climate change on temperature and precipitation a good understanding of the global interactions of GHG concentrations with temperature and precipitation is necessary. Furthermore, an estimation of the future GHG emissions is required.

Over the last decades intensive research on both the emission rates and the interaction on global and regional scale have been carried out [IPCC, 2007]. The results of these exercises are surrounded by relatively large error margins, not only because of the difficulty of predicting future emission rates, but also due to the relatively poor understanding of the processes involved. Furthermore, predictions of temperature and precipitation are based on a cascade of modelling steps from GHG emission rates, through global or regional climate modelling.

Predictions on global climate modifications need to be translated to regional changes in order to foresee the effects within watersheds. Different methods for this translation are available, of which the perturbation or delta method is the most widely used [Graham et al., 2007]. The perturbation method uses a reference period (mostly 1961-1990) for precipitation and temperature and calculate delta values for each season for one representative year in the future. These delta values are then applied to the reference time serie to produce estimates for the future period(s). Although other approaches such as downscaling or runoff routing are increasingly being used, each method has its own limitations [Rosberg and Andréasson, 2006; Graham et al., 2007; Rydgren et al., 2007; Quilbé et al., 2008]. The advantage of the perturbation method is that it is simple, stable and robust and it represents very well changes in mean precipitation and temperature. However, individual events are captured less accurately than in the other available methods [Rosberg and Andréasson, 2006]. Based on direct comparison of downscaling with the delta method by Hay et al. [2000] it was concluded that due to uncertainties in GCM's ability to simulate current conditions, future impacts of both methods remain questionable.

Overall, it is expected that in Québec for the period 2010-2099 the mean temperature will increase, especially in the cold season [Bourque and Simonet, 2008]. For the winter and spring seasons, the precipitation would also increase. As a consequence, the discharge regime of rivers within the province of Québec should change [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. Although the mean annual discharge remains close to current values, the timing of spring floods will change drastically [Boyer et al., 2009].

### 2.3 Climate change impact on rivers

Fluvial response to climate change has been a topic of study in fluvial geomorphology for many decades. Most of these studies look at historical changes in climate and try to match known climatic events with stratigraphic records, based on the principle that we can learn from the past about present and future climate-human-environment interactions [Blum and Törnqvist, 2000; Dearing, 2006]. Looking at long time scales (20 000 years), these periods are still relative short compared to an entire glacial and interglacial cycle of about 100000 years. Over these long time scales sea level (base level) is linked with climate as sea level high stands are linked with warm periods, and lows in sea level are associated with cold
periods.
A climate-induced change in discharge is almost always accompanied by a change in sediment transport [Schumm, 1977]. The effect of such a combined change is different in rivers with a sand bed than in gravel-bed rivers [Gaeuman et al., 2005]. In Figure 2.7, it can be seen that the primary response for sand-bed rivers is an adjustment of the bed elevation, whereas gravel-bed rivers will adjust primarily through width. Observations from field data [Gibson, 2005] show that it is difficult to isolate the effect of climate change on rivers as it happens in a continuous changing landscape and changes in discharge and sediment transport occur concurrently [Schumm, 1993]. Bogaart and van Balen [2000] use a numerical model to investigate the effects of changes in water discharge and sediment supply. They compared the results of a simultaneous variation of the discharge and sediment supply, with a time lag between the maximum discharge and maximum sediment supply, and they found that the change itself is not as important as the phase-lag between them. The phase lag between discharge and sediment supply varies between different river basins, and therefore the response is different for each river.


Figure 2.7: Primary river adjustment (bold arrows) in sand-bed and gravel-bed rivers to changes $\left(^{+}\right.$: increase, ${ }^{-}$: decrease) in discharge ( Q ) and sediment supply (Qs). On the left increased discharge or decrease sediment transport. Adapted from Gaeuman et al. [2005].

Climate-change related studies on rivers mostly focus on reproducing historical data [e.g. Blum and Törnqvist, 2000; Bogaart and van Balen, 2000; Hassan and Klein, 2002; Molnar et al., 2006]. Because of the importance of the anticipated near-future climate changes, some simulations are increasingly being used to assess the impacts on discharges, water levels and economical (navigation, hydro-power or water resources) or ecological aspects (e.g. river habitats) [Morin and Côté, 2003; Gibson, 2005; Fowler et al., 2007]. These studies mostly use a worst-case scenario approach.

Because of the complexity of river responses described above, even if a simplified approach is used, the type of response to a single climatic perturbation is often not clear. Field studies, laboratory experiments and models
have been used to generalize river behaviour and analyse equilibrium states [Schumm, 1977; Rhodes, 1987; Howard, 1988; Bonneau and Snow, 1992; Van Heijst and Postma, 2001]. But despite all the efforts made to generalize findings, river responses are strongly related to local settings and therefore no general rule exists. Furthermore, the situation is complicated by the large number of degrees of freedom in a river system [Hey, 1986; Knighton, 1998] and the fact that response is dependent on the flow history [Rhodes, 1987; Phillips, 2003]. This complexity is illustrated by the study of Veldkamp and Tebbens [2001] which simulated climate and base level change for the river Meuse and found that preserved fluvial sedimentary records did not relate to neither climate change nor to sea-level change in the lower reaches of the river basin. Furthermore, the link between climate change and river response remains difficult to establish [Vandenberghe and Maddy, 2001; Bogaart et al., 2003], at least in part because the uncertainty in the input variables for river response models includes uncertainty in both outputs of climate models and of hydrological models used to convert changes in temperature and precipitation into river discharge [Graham et al., 2007].

### 2.3.1 Past impacts

There are several studies linking past impacts of climate change to river morphology [e.g. Blum and Törnqvist, 2000; Bogaart and van Balen, 2000; Knox, 2000; Vandenberghe and Maddy, 2001; Adel, 2002]. For example, Blum and Törnqvist [2000] were able to summarize the general history of climate change (precipitation and sea-level change) on the Mississippi River valley, over a series of glacial periods (Figure 2.8).

To better understand the relationship between climate and the stratigraphic record, physical and numerical modelling studies has been conducted [Tucker and Slingerland, 1997; Syvitski et al., 1998; Veldkamp and Tebbens, 2001; Bonnet and Crave, 2003]. The advantage of these studies is that effects of discharge change or


Figure 2.8: Mississippi valley terrace sequence from glacial periods. Adapted from Blum and Törnqvist [2000]. base level can be isolated. Bogaart and van Balen [2000] show that there is no link in the downstream part of the River Meuse with climate or base-level changes. However, Antoine [2003] revealed that some fluvial systems
respond very quickly with respect to the time scale of climate change, in the order of 100 to 1000 years, to climatic variations of short duration. The major difficulty in this type of research is to match climate with sediment record, especially for long periods back in time due to the uncertainty in both climate parameters and in dating the sediment record.

### 2.3.2 Future impacts

The assessment of climate change impacts on river hydrology and morphology is essential for hydro-electricity, navigation, flood risk and ecology [Lane et al., 2007, 2008]. Most research projects focus on the hydrology, although assessing morphologogical changes and thus sediment transport is essential as degradation and aggradation will alter the flood risk and flood frequency of rivers [Lane et al., 2008]. A change in hydrological regime and base level has a direct effect on flood risk and an indirect one through morphological changes. Without morphological modeling, it is impossible to say what this influence is.

One of the major problems to predict future climate effects is the lack of data to verify the outcome of climate models, this applies to hydrological and morphological models. Although in some cases historical data are available for model calibration and validation, the validation of future output is impossible [Gomez et al., 2009]. The underlying assumption is that the change in river hydrology can be directly predicted/simulated, whereas the morphological changes take more time to adapt to the new hydraulic conditions.

As stated before not only the magnitude,


Figure 2.9: Sediment transport classification based origin and mechanism. Adapted from Jansen et al. [1979]. but the frequency and duration of floods and the timing with the base level determine the amount of sediment transported [Schumm, 1977]. Therefore, it is impossible to predict based on a change in maximum annual discharge or mean daily discharge how sediment transport will be affected. Morphological modelling of all these parameters can provide the answer to the combined effects of these changes.

### 2.4 Sediment transport

Water movement within a river causes sediment transport. Despite great efforts to mathematically describe this relationship between hydraulics and sediments [e.g. Einstein, 1950; Toffaleti, 1968; Ackers and White, 1973; Parker, 1990b; Komar, 1996; Tingsanchali and Supharatid, 1996; Batalla, 1997; Wilcock and Crowe, 2003; Barry et al., 2004], there is no general sediment transport formula available. Data sets with water velocity and sediment transport rate show significant variations due to difficulties in measuring the exact transport rate, variations in sediment size, shape and density, and the variations in water movement including turbulence [Dietrich and Gallinati, 1991; McLean et al., 1999; Wu et al., 2000]. Sediment transport is classified based on its origin (bed material or wash load) or on its mechanism (bedload or suspended load) (Figure 2.9). Wash load is transported in suspension and is supply limited, whereas bed material can be transported as bedload as well as in suspension. For the choice of sediment transport formula, this classification is important as bedload formulae only need information about the bed material. Suspended load and total load can contain bed material as well as material that is not found on the river bed (e.g. bank material). For the transport of bed material in sand-bed rivers a total load formula is required as it is transported as bedload and in suspension.


Figure 2.10: Shields diagram. Adapted from Buffington [1999].

One of the classic approaches in sediment transport studies is the assumption of critical shear stress as described by Shields [1936]. The water movement is represented by the
shear stress on the sediment particles. Below a critical value there is no sediment transport. The critical shear stress value depends on the flow type and the sediment size (Figure 2.10). The flow type and sediment size are expressed in non-dimensional variables, the calculation of the critical shear stress in laminar and transitional flow is iterative, whereas for hydraulically rough flows Shields non-dimensional critical value is considered a constant (with values ranging between 0.030 and 0.073 , Buffington and Montgomery [1997]). The definition of incipient motion, at which sediment transport is starting, is a matter of debate [Buffington, 1999]. The different definitions lead to variations in the critical shear stress value. Most methods for calculating sediment transport are based on a power function of the absolute difference between the applied shear stress and the critical one, with no transport for shear stress below the critical value.


Figure 2.11: Schematic illustration of the probability of initial transport according to Grass [1970]. Adapted from Komar [1996].

Experiments on sediment transport have clearly shown that there is significant sediment transport below the critical shear stress. Within the literature two alternative approaches to the method by Shields [1936] can be found. First, there is a stochastic one which does not contain any critical value for the shear stress (Figure 2.11) [Einstein, 1950; Grass, 1970]. The second approach uses the same critical value as Shields, but it is relating sediment transport to the ratio of applied to critical shear stress, which allows for some sediment transport below the critical shear stress value [Komar, 1996].

Besides the discussion on what would be the appropriate mathematical approach for sediment transport, sediment heterogeneity is complicating the task of determining a proper formulation [Egiazaroff, 1965; Komar, 1996]. As shown in Figure 2.12, the actual transport rate is a function of the grain size distribution on the bed. The larger parti-
cles in a bed mixture are more exposed to the water flow than they would be within a bed of particles of the same size. At the same time, the smaller particles are sheltered by the bigger particles. This concept is called hiding and exposure [Egiazaroff, 1965; Ashida and Michiue, 1971; Parker et al., 1982; Andrews, 1983; Proffitt and Sutherland, 1983; Wilcock and Crowe, 2003]. Some researchers [e.g. Parker et al., 1982] believe that this will lead to equal mobility of the particles within the mixture, where all sizes of material move once a threshold shear stress is reached. This would give horizontal lines in Figure 2.12, as the different grain sizes start moving at the same time.

Different studies have compared the available sediment transport equations under different hydraulic conditions and sedimentological settings. Within the context of sandbed and sand-gravel mixtures the formulae of Ackers and White [1973] and Wilcock and Crowe [2003] perform best according to the comparative work of Tingsanchali and Supharatid [1996]; Batalla [1997]; McLean et al. [1999] and Barry et al. [2004].


Figure 2.12: Flow stress versus grain size diameter. Adapted from Komar [1996].

More detailed information on these sediment transport formulae is presented in Appendix II. The Wilcock and Crowe [2003] formula uses a similarity collapse over fractional transport rate, as successfully used for substrate-based empirical models [e.g. Ashida and Michiue, 1971; Parker et al., 1982]. The similarity collapse has the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=f\left(\frac{\tau}{\tau_{r i}}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau$ is the bed shear stress, $\tau_{r i}$ is the reference shear stress of size fraction $i$ and $Q_{s i}^{\star}$ is the
dimensionless sediment transport rate of size fraction $i$ defined by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=\frac{(s-1) g q_{i b}}{F_{i} u_{\star}^{3}} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s$ is the ratio of sediment to water density, $g$ is the acceleration due to gravity, $q_{i b}$ is the volumetric bed material transport per unit width of size $i, F_{i}$ is the proportion of fraction $i$ in surface size distribution and $u_{\star}$ is the shear velocity.

The shear stress reference value $\tau_{r i}$ is scaled against that of the mixture by comparing the grain size diameter:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\tau_{r i}}{\tau_{r s 50}}=\left(\frac{D_{i}}{D_{s 50}}\right)^{k} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau_{r s 50}$ is the shear stress of $D_{s 50}, D_{i}$ is the grain size of fraction $i, D_{s 50}$ is the median grain size of bed surface and $k$, the exponent, is defined as described in Appendix II.

The Ackers and White [1973] original formula was developed for uniform sediment, but later the coefficients were revised to allow for graded sediment transport [White and Day, 1982] and to correct for the over prediction of fine sediments and relative coarse sediments [Wallingford, 1990]. It is defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=C\left\{\frac{F_{g r i}}{A_{i}}-1\right\}^{d} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{g r i}$ is the mobility number of sediment in the $i$ th fraction and $C, A_{i}$ and $d$ are empirical coefficients depending on the dimensionless particle size $\left(D_{g r i}\right)$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=\frac{X_{i} H}{s D_{i}}\left\{\frac{u_{\star}}{U}\right\}^{e} \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{i}$ is the rate of sediment transport in terms of mass flow per unit flow rate for the $i$ th fraction, $H$ is the water depth, $U$ is the mean velocity, $e$ is a transition exponent that is a function of the dimensionless particle size.

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{g r i}=\frac{u_{\star}^{e}}{\left[g D_{i}(s-1)\right]^{1 / 2}}\left\{\frac{U}{\sqrt{32} \log _{10}\left(\alpha H / D_{i}\right)}\right\}^{1-e} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\alpha=10$ for turbulent flow. In equation $2.4 A_{i}$ is replaced with $A_{i}^{\prime}$ for the White and Day
[1982] settings and is calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{i}^{\prime} & =\left(0.4 \frac{D_{a}}{\sqrt{D_{50}}}+0.6\right) A_{i}  \tag{2.7}\\
D_{a} & =D_{50}\left(1.62\left(\frac{D_{84}}{D_{16}}\right)^{0.5}\right)^{-0.55} \tag{2.8}
\end{align*}
$$

where $D_{a}$ is the particle size that begins to move under the same conditions as uniform material and $D_{16}, D_{50}$ and $D_{84}$ represent the subsurface particle size for which respectively $16 \%$, $50 \%$ and $84 \%$ of the sediment sample is finer. Finally the sediment transport rate can be calculated in terms of mass per unit flow rate $\left(X_{i}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}=X_{i} Q \frac{\rho_{s}}{\rho} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q_{s i}$ is the total sediment transport rate for fraction $i, Q$ is the water discharge, $\rho$ the density of water and $\rho_{s}$ the density of sediments.

Graded sediment transport, i.e. transport over a range of size fractions, can be calculated from the uniform sediment transport formula for each fraction. For each fraction the contribution to the total sediment transport is given the same proportion as that fraction in the active layer (sediments available for transport). The underlying assumption here is that every fraction is at transport capacity and therefore the rate should be scaled to what is available in the river bed.

### 2.5 Numerical modelling

As mentioned above, in natural rivers, a change in discharge or sediment transport never comes alone. The combination of these two changes leads to uncertainty in the expected river response. A numerical model can be helpful to determine the river response and quantify this effect. Ideally, numerical models contain the same interactions and feedback loops as the system under study. To be efficient, a numerical model should not be more complex than necessary [Jansen et al., 1979], and only the most important processes should be incorporated in the model.

Morphological development of river channels can be simulated by a variety of numerical models, ranging from one to three dimensions; uncoupled, semi-coupled and fully coupled
models, etc. Well known and widely used models are: in 1D (CHARISMA, HEC-6 (or HEC-RAS), SEDROUT, GSTARS(11/2D)), 2D (CCHE2D, RMA2D, MIKE21, DELFT2D) and 3D (TELEMAC, MIKE3 and DELFT3D). Description of these models can be found in the comparative work of Yang and Simões [1999]; Langendoen [2001]; Duc et al. [2004] and Papanicolaou et al. [2008]. One-dimensional models remain a common approach for simulation of reach-scale flow, morphodynamic and habitat problems, where the length is equal to several times the river channel width [Lane and Ferguson, 2005]. These models are also used in complex geometry and can even include meander migration [Abad and Garcia, 2006; Crosato, 2007]. However, 2D or 3D approaches, which require more data and computer processing time, have sometimes been used [Morin et al., 2000; Darby et al., 2002; Olsen, 2003; Kleinhans et al., 2008; Papanicolaou et al., 2008].

Discharge variation for numerical simulation of river morphology can be represented in different ways, i.e. daily or yearly discharges, representative floods, or catastrophic events. The assumption often made is that for each river a discharge exists that transports most of the sediments and corresponds to the river dimensions. This assumption goes back to the effective discharge concept of Wolman and Miller [1960], and as discussed above there is a lot of uncertainty about this discharge. For graded sediments in models and variation of discharge over time the range of all discharges should be combined within the model.

### 2.5.1 1D models

One dimensional models use depth and width averaged variable as water elevation, water velocity and sediment transport rate. This implicitly assumes that velocity and transport rates are equally distributed over the river width and depth [Ferguson, 2003], which is a valid assumption only for rivers with approximately rectangular cross-sections and minor variation in water surface width [Cui et al., 1996; Ferguson, 2003].

The basic governing equations for these models are the conservation of mass and momentum equations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{\partial h}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}=0  \tag{2.10}\\
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}+u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+g \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}=0 \tag{2.11}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $h$ is the water surface, $q$ is the specific discharge, $t$ is the time, $x$ is the longitudinal distance and $u$ is the longitudinal velocity.

The Exner and Hirano equation is used for mass conservation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
-(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial z}{\partial t}=\frac{\partial Q_{s}}{\partial x} \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $z$ is the bed elevation, $\lambda$ the bed porosity and $Q_{s}$ is the total sediment transport.
Complex geometries are difficult to capture within a 1D model. Tributary input of water discharge and sediment transport can be incorporated with relatively simple assumptions such as an "instantaneous" mixing of bedload at junctions [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Li et al., 2008]. The modelling of bifurcations or island(s) is more problematic, as sediment distribution is typically different from the water discharge distribution [e.g Wang et al., 1995; De Vriend et al., 2000]. The topography of the bifurcation is an important factor for the sediment distribution. As can be seen in Figure 2.13, the location of the channel downstream of the bifurcation or along an island is a factor which is not accounted for in a 1D model. The influence of the bifurcation topography on the grain


Figure 2.13: Sediment distribution at a bifurcation in a river bend highlighting the 'Bulle'-effect. Adapted from De Vriend et al. [2000]. size distribution is called the 'Bulle'-effect [Bulle, 1926; Riad, 1961; Miori et al., 2006].

The variation of sediment transport direction between different grain sizes complicates the modelling of bifurcations. At a bifurcation in or after a river bend, the channel on the inside will not only receive relatively less sediment transport, but the sediment will also be relatively fine compared to the main stream as the coarser particle tend to move to the deeper area on the outer side of the river bend [De Vriend et al., 2000; Frings and Kleinhans, 2008]. As illustrated in Figure 2.14, on a transverse slope the coarser particles will move towards the deeper area due to gravitational force [Engelund, 1974]. The lateral slope of the river bed upstream of a bifurcation influences the distribution of the grain sizes between the river branches.

To compensate for geometric inaccuracy in 1D models, a nodal point relationship based on the width of the river branches has been proposed by Wang et al. [1995]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{Q_{s 2}}{Q_{s 3}}=\frac{B_{2}}{B_{3}}\left(\frac{Q_{2} B_{3}}{Q_{3} B_{2}}\right)^{c} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B$ the width of the channel, $c$ is power, and $2_{2}$ and ${ }_{3}$ are subscripts for branches down-
stream of the bifurcation. The stability of the bifurcation depends on the choice of $c$. Wang et al. [1995] found that the bifurcation will be unstable for every value of $c<b / 3$ and one of the branches will close. If $c>b / 3$ the bifurcation is stable and both branches remain open. When $c=b / 3$, the outcome is undetermined (Figure 2.15). Assuming that the sediment transport is proportional to the water velocity to the $b$ th power, $q_{s}=a u^{b}$. For all transport equations where $b>3$ and where the friction formula is based on Chézy equation, it follows that $q_{s} \sim q^{b / 3}$. For $c>b / 3$ the closing of one channel, with $q_{s} \sim q^{c}$ at the upstream boundary, would lead to a much larger decrease in sediment input than the sediment capacity, resulting in erosion of that channel and an increase in discharge. In variable discharge simulations, the distribution of sediment transport varies and leads to a more oscillating behaviour of the river bottom, as the branches receive more or less sediment than the equilibrium rate [De Vriend et al., 2000].


Figure 2.14: Motion of sediment particle on a transverse slope. Adapted from Engelund [1974] bed topography at the bifurcation is not accounted for. Furthermore, the results of morphological modelling remain highly sensitive to the sediment transport formula [Havis et al., 1996; Tingsanchali and Supharatid, 1996; McLean et al., 1999]. All formulae have their advantages and disadvantages [Tingsanchali and Supharatid, 1996; Batalla, 1997; McLean et al., 1999; Barry et al., 2004] and ideally more than one formula should be tested.

Different methods exist to incorporate bank erosion within morphological models in one, two or three dimensions. Bank erosion is not only adding sediments to the system, it could also result in width adjustment of the channel, which is mostly neglected by 1D models [Piégay et al., 2005]. This is important in bank erosion caused by river incision, contrary to meander migration which is mostly a lateral shift where sediment input is compensated by sedimentation on the inner bank. The major drawbacks of process-based bank erosion


Figure 2.15: Stability of nodal point relationship in 1D models, a) unstable bifurcation b) stable bifurcation [Wang et al., 1995]. With $H_{2}$ and $H_{3}$ representing the water depth in both bifurcates, $c$ the power in the nodal point relationship and $b$ the power of the sediment transport formula. Dotted lines indicate phase limits under stationary conditions, continuous lines give possible pathways of bifurcate depth development.
in morphological models are first, that they mainly rely on calibrated erosion rates rather than the character of the bank sediments, second, that they are often restricted to idealised or artificial geometries [Darby et al., 2002; Piégay et al., 2005]. Most 1D models use excess shear stress at the toe and excess bank height [Mosselman, 1998] that depend on a calibration parameter and their predictability is therefore low. However, at the event scale, 1D models without bank failure match fairly well observed bed elevation changes El kadi Abderrezzak and Paquier [2009]. For a fully integrated analysis the coupling of fluvial erosion, seepage and stability submodels is required [Darby et al., 2007] and this would require a 2D approach [Piégay et al., 2005].

Even if there are well-known advantages of 1D over 2D models in terms of data requirements and computational effort [Papanicolaou et al., 2008], the above-mentioned limitations of 1D models for complex channels may lead us to believe that 2D models are more optimal for morphological simulations of overbank flow and sedimentation patterns in lakes. However, it remains unclear whether 2D models really provide a more accurate description of the morphology within channels. Most of the 2D models are not yet capable of simulating bank erosion [Darby et al., 2007], and are therefore unable to predict changes in river pattern. Moreover, 2D models that use a calibrated bank retreat module, like Mike21C, cannot predict changes in river pattern either as the change in the model is not based on the actual resistance of the bank, but on past rates of erosion. If a physical model for bank erosion is available, re-gridding of the model is very complex in long-term simulations [e.g Olsen, 2003; Crosato,

2007]. A comparison of model performance by Rathburn and Wohl [2001] concluded that (pseudo) 2D modelling was not necessarily better in reproducing river morphology than a 1D model. However, in gravel-bed rivers, the shear stress is close to the critical shear stress and sediment transport is limited to a small section of the cross-section [Ferguson, 2003], therefore 1D modelling in these rivers is less suitable, unless an effective-width approach is used [Ferguson and Church, 2009]. For sand-bed rivers, on the other hand, as shear stress is mostly well above the critical shear stress over almost all the cross-section, 1D models can be considered representative of the natural processes [Lane and Ferguson, 2005].

One of the major challenges in mod-


Figure 2.16: Scheme of nodal point relationship. Adapted from Miori et al. [2006]. elling river morphology is to ensure the model results are representative of the river under study. Often the calibration and validation of the morphological model are conducted on the same data set. Cao et al. [2002] argued that the use of the term calibration and validation is actually misleading not only because of the small number of empirical data, but also due to the implicit assumption that a single set of unique parameters exists that leads to a satisfying accuracy of the numerical model. Moreover, in a model with several thousand nodes, like 2D and 3D models, proving that the model is accurate for all these points in virtually impossible. The difficulty of calibration and validation of morphological models therefore raises questions about the predictive capacity of these models [Phillips, 2003].

Despite these drawbacks 1D models have several advantages over 2D and 3D models. They have been successfully applied in a wide variety of fluvial and morphological simulations [Cui et al., 1996; Ferguson et al., 2001; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002; Kleinhans et al., 2008; Ferguson and Church, 2009], that even include some very complex topographies. In this thesis, the 1D model SEDROUT, developed by Hoey and Ferguson [1994], will be used. This model was developed to simulate aggradation and downstream fining, and handles graded sediments and records bed stratigraphy. SEDROUT is based on the approach of Parker [1990b], ACRONYM 3, that routes sediment through a river section with a con-
stant width. SEDROUT is generalized to allow long profiles and cross-section profiles of any shape. The grain size distribution is recorded for the transport, active layer, and four layers in the substrate. These four underlying layers not only keep track of the composition during aggradation, but they can also represent variation in erodability of the river bed under degradational conditions. The layer concept in SEDROUT uses sublayers with a thickness that is equal to the active layer.

In Figure 2.17, a definition diagram of SEDROUT is presented. SEDROUT uses a step-backwater algorithm to estimate the hydraulic conditions. Hydraulics are considered to be steady, however hydrographs can be incorporated within the model. The computation starts at the downstream end of the river section and proceeds upstream with the use of a step-backwater approach, with depth-averaged flow equations. At the down-


Figure 2.17: Definition diagram of SEDROUT [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994]. stream end the water level can be specified or equilibrium flow can be assumed. In the latter case, the model will extend until the downstream water level reaches equilibrium elevation. The working equations for the model are the conservation of mass equation 2.10 and momentum equation 2.11.

Two different friction equations are available in SEDROUT, namely Darcy-Weisbach friction factor and Manning-Strickler's $n$-value. Both are a function of the grain size within the active layer for gravel-bed rivers. The roughness values depend on bed forms and channel topography as well. In turn bed forms, especially dunes in sand-bed rivers, are a function of flow conditions and can change drastically between flow stages. To simplify morphodynamic simulation often a constant roughness value is chosen, which can be spatially variable, for floodplain vegetation for example.

The morphological computation is done after the hydraulics is calculated for the whole river reach, meaning that the model is fully uncoupled. In SEDROUT three different sediment transport formulae are available. Originally, the bedload transport algorithm of Parker [1990b] was the only one available but, subsequently, two other options were added: those of Einstein [1950] and Wilcock and Crowe [2003].

After calculation of sediment transport rates using one of the transport equations, the bed level and composition is updated using the Exner and Hirano equation for the mass conservation of sediment in total and for each particle size:

$$
\begin{gather*}
(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial L_{a} F_{i}}{\partial t}=-\frac{\partial\left(q_{T} p_{i}\right)}{\partial x}+E_{i}\left(\frac{\partial Q_{s}}{\partial x}+(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial L_{a}}{\partial t}\right)  \tag{2.14}\\
E_{i}=c_{i} F_{i}+\left(1-c_{i}\right) p_{i} ; \quad 0 \leq c_{i} \leq 1 \tag{2.15}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $L_{a}$ is the active layer thickness, $F_{i}, p_{i}$ and $E_{i}$ are the proportions of the volume material in the $i$-th size class in the active layer, the bedload and the exchange layer (between the active layer and the substrate) and $c_{i}$ is a weighting factor allowing the bed-load material to be mixed with the substrate [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Toro-Escobar et al., 1996]. The original option for the thickness of the active layer is a function of the grain size, which is suitable for gravel-bed rivers [Armanini, 1995]. A thickness as a function of the grain size makes the solution of the momentum equation an iterative process.

SEDROUT was first tested on the Allt Dubhaig River (Scotland) by Hoey and Ferguson [1994]. This small gravel bed river has strong downstream fining and a nearly constant width. The model predictions matched closely the observed downstream fining. Consequently, a sensitivity analysis of the model was conducted by Hoey and Ferguson [1997] with the same data set. The sand/gravel bed Vedder River, a tributary of the Fraser River in British Colombia (Canada), was successfully modelled with SEDROUT by Ferguson et al. [2001]. Good visual and quantitative agreement with the mean trend of gravel/sand accumulation along the river was found under aggrading conditions, towards a local base level. Extending the use of SEDROUT to gravel/sand mixtures suggests that Parker's equation for bedload transport can be applied to gravel-bed rivers with some sand. However, a modification of the equation to allow for differences in bed sorting is necessary to obtain satisfactory results. The aggradation and degradation response to artificial meander straightening in a gravel-bed river, the Sainte-

Marguerite River in Québec (Canada), was modelled by Talbot and Lapointe [2002] and matched field observations better than a theoretical model. More recently, Ferguson and Church [2009] simulated gravel transport and aggradation in the complex Fraser River with SEDROUT, using the concept of effective width. An overview of the dimensions of these rivers is given in Table 2.1. The rivers modelled using SEDROUT show its potential for long-term morphological simulations in a variety of river settings.

### 2.5.2 2D models

Two dimensional models can firstly be split in depth- and width-averaged models, the latter is mostly used in conceptual simulations or stratification studies in deep waters like lakes or seas. Depth-averaged are mostly used in complex geometry simulations such as bifurcations and meander bends. Different discretisation schemes can be used for capturing the topography of the studied river, such as finite difference, finite element or finite volume. Finite elements can be defined by curve linear grids or unstructured triangular grids. To deal with real topography and a range of flow stages a wetting and drying or movable boundary needs to be used [Leclerc et al., 1990; Yang and Simões, 1999]. To allow for channel migration or bank erosion in finite element models it is necessary to re-grid the numerical mesh after each iteration [Mosselman, 1998; Crosato, 2007]. Although this is already possible, it requires calibration or fitted meander migration [Langendoen, 2001; Darby et al., 2002, 2007].

Governing equations for 2D models are similar to those of 1D, but have an extra spatial component, the equation for mass conservation is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial h}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial q_{x}}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial q_{y}}{\partial y}=0 \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where, $q_{x}$ and $q_{y}$ are the longitudinal and lateral discharge per unit width, respectively, and $y$ is the lateral direction. The momentum conservation equations are:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}+u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}+g \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}=F_{x}  \tag{2.17}\\
& \frac{\partial v}{\partial t}+u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}+v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}+g \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}=F_{y} \tag{2.18}
\end{align*}
$$

|  |  | Allt-Dubhaig <br> [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994] | Sainte-Marguerite River <br> [Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] | Vedder River <br> [Ferguson et al., 2001] | Fraser River <br> [Ferguson and Church, 2009] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Flood discharge | $\left(\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right)$ | $6-10$ | 110 | 335 | 9000 |
| Bankfull width | $(\mathrm{m})$ | $10-30$ | 45 | $100-250$ | 525 |
| Bed slope | $(-)$ | $2.2 \times 10^{-2}$ | $2.34 \times 10^{-3}$ | $4.6 \times 10^{-3}$ | $6-48 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| Bed mean grain size | $(\mathrm{mm})$ | 95 | 70 | 50 | $0.4-42$ |
| Channel pattern |  | meandering | meandering | braiding | braiding |
| Type of bed change |  | aggradation | aggradation and degradation | aggradation | aggradation |
| Simulation length | $($ years $)$ | $>100$ | 33 | - | 20 |
| Modeled reach length | $(\mathrm{km})$ | 2.5 | 12 | 9 | 38 |

Table 2.1: Characteristics of the rivers previously simulated with SEDROUT
where $F_{x}, F_{y}$ are the resulting momentum in respectively the longitudinal and lateral directions and $v$ is the velocity in lateral direction.

Very shallow areas can be problematic for depth-averaged models as the shear stress tends to be over predicted when the Manning-Strickler formula is used [Li and Millar, 2007], which results in over estimation of bed-material transport. However hydraulics over complex river bed topography, as simulated by Li et al. [2008], give realistic spatial patterns of bed shear stress under various flow conditions.

### 2.5.3 3D models

Depth-averaged models assume a vertical logarithmic velocity profile, which is valid for uniform flow and to some extent for gradually varying open channel flow. In rivers with complex topography, for example around hydraulic structures, the flow and sediment motion are typically three dimensional. Since the 1980s different 3D models have been developed first with only sediment transport over a rigid riverbed, and later with added erosion and sedimentation [e.g. Olsen, 2003; Nagata et al., 2005] (see Papanicolaou et al. [2008] and Lu and Wang [2009] for reviews). The advantage of 3D-flow field computation is that the sediment transport direction for both suspended load and bedload can be derived from the water velocity direction directly instead of using approximations for secondary flow. The 3D models are also used to investigate the theoretical understanding of certain processes, such as meander formation [Olsen, 2003]. However, the use of these 3D model is mainly restricted to flume studies, or short river reaches ( $<5 \mathrm{~km}$ ) and very short time scale (in the order of days) [Dargahi, 2004].

### 2.6 Saint-Lawrence River system

The Saint-Lawrence River is one of the world's largest river system, originating from Lake Ontario and flowing into the Atlantic Ocean. The Saint-Lawrence River itself has relatively low sediment transport rates, with most of the sediments coming from its tributaries. Five tributaries were selected for this research. Three of them are located on the north shore of the Saint-Lawrence River: the Batiscan River, Saint-Maurice River and Yamachiche River, and two on the south shore: the Richelieu and Saint-François River (Figure 2.18).

The tributaries are located in the Saint-Lawrence Lowlands, a low-lying area which was


Figure 2.18: Location of the tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River
submerged by the Champlain Sea after the last glaciation. The Lake Saint-Pierre is a remnant of the Lampsilis Lake (a vestige of the Champlain Sea) (Figure 2.18). Its level has been relatively stable in the last 3000 years, although human occupation and the Saint-Lawrence Seaway dredging have modified the hydrology and sediment input of the Saint-Lawrence River and of its tributaries [Rondeau et al., 2000]. The donwstream parts ( $\pm 15 \mathrm{~km}$ ) of the tributaries are flowing trough fine sediments. Their bed consist of coarse sediment with size of medium sands (with some gravel) to fine sediments of the size of silt and clay.

These rivers were selected because of their breadth in discharge, size, hydrological regime and sedimentology, and also because they are located on both the north and south shore of the Saint-Lawrence River. The location on the north and south shore is important as the watersheds extend into different regions where climate change is not expected to have the same effects. The different sizes are important as they are representative of the whole range of tributaries found around the Saint-Lawrence River. Results from these rivers can therefore be used to generalize the effects to other tributaries nearby. The Yamachiche River, which is relatively unimportant for creating changes in the Saint-Lawrence River and Lake

Saint-Pierre because of its small size, is included because information on its past evolution is available [Bondue et al., 2006], which could help validating the morphological model. In general, the tributaries are sand-bed rivers with some coarser fractions in it. The SaintMaurice River contains more gravel and boulders in the upstream reach.

The Saint-Lawrence River is of great economical value for Canada and it is part of the SaintLawrence Seaway, which connects the Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean. It passes several narrow sections, rapids and

| GCM | Country | Resolution <br> $($ lat $\times$ long $)$ | GHG-scenario |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| CSIRO-Mk2 | Australia | $3.2^{\circ} \times 5.6^{\circ}$ | A2 and B2 |
| ECHAM4 | Germany | $2.8^{\circ} \times 2.8^{\circ}$ | A2 and B2 |
| HadCM3 | United Kingdom | $2.5^{\circ} \times 3.75^{\circ}$ | A2b and B2b |

Table 2.2: Global climate model and GHG-emission scenarios lakes. Because of this variety the Saint-Lawrence River contains different habitats that contribute to a diverse ecosystem. In the past, dredging for the Saint-Lawrence Seaway at the mouth of Lake Saint-Pierre resulted in a water level drop of 0.5 m within the lake. The SaintFrançois and Yamachiche rivers developed deltas at their mouth that propagated into Lake Saint-Pierre [Bondue, 2004]. This lake is very wide (10-12 km) and shallow (mean depth $<$ 3 m ) and is of great ecological value. It has been a UNESCO biosphere reserve since 2001 on account of its marginal habitats [Jacques, 1986; Morin and Côté, 2003; Hudon, 2004; Hudon and Carignan, 2008], as the most important habitats are located at the edge of land and water. The Saint-Lawrence Seaway navigation depths are critical in the lake, such that any decrease in water level or increase in sedimentation may have important economical consequences. More than half of the suspended sediment input from the south shore tributaries comes from three rivers: the Yamaska, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers [Rondeau et al., 2000]. Because the lake is very shallow, an increase in sediment input could result in sedimentation and reduction of water surface area and perimeter.

Several studies have observed a change in winter and spring flow over the last century in eastern North America [e.g. Zhang et al., 2001; Hodgkins and Dudley, 2006; Boyer et al., in press]. It is expected that in the near future these changes will continue and alter the flow regime of the rivers within this area, for the Saint-Lawrence River itself [Croley, 2003] as well as for its tributaries [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Quilbé et al., 2008]. In the near future, discharges and water levels within the Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries are predicted to decrease [Croley, 2003]. Thus, the tributaries will not only experience a change in dis-
charge, but also a lowering in their base level (Saint-Lawrence water level). These changes may lead to a change in sediment supply from the tributaries to the Saint-Lawrence River. Discharge scenarios were simulated by Ouranos for two different greenhouse gas emission scenarios, namely A2(b) and B2(b), according to the IPCC and reported in the Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES). These scenarios represent two different families: the A2 scenario emphasizes economic development and the B2 scenario relates to sustainable development. The changes in rainfall, snowfall, minimum and maximum temperature were simulated with 3 different global climate models: CSIRO-Mk2; ECHAM4 and HadCM3 (Table 2.2).

Two-dimensional hydrodynamic modelling of the Saint-Lawrence River portion between Montréal and Trois-Rivières is already available (model H2D2 [Morin and Bouchard, 2001]). This model is mainly used to verify water elevations under different hydrological regimes, combinations of tributary inflow and management of upstream hydro-power dams. H2D2 can only simulate suspended sediments over a rigid topography, although currently it is being adapted to include sediment transport and variations in bed elevation and bed composition. Ideally in the near future, an integrated 2D model of the Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries will be available. The work presented in this thesis is a first step towards this objective, as it will enable a better understanding of the sedimentary dynamics of the tributaries.

## Paragraphe de liason A

The morphological effects of climate on the Saint-Lawrence River tributaries are investigated with the use of the SEDROUT one-dimensional morphodynamic model. SEDROUT needed to be adapted to the characteristics of the selected tributaries, such as: sediment type and the presence of islands. Furthermore, SEDROUT needed to be adapted to simulate variable discharge and downstream water level including a tidal effect and change over time. Note that within this thesis SEDROUT is the original version of the model, whereas SEDROUT4-M refers to the enhanced model. Chapter 3 describes the changes made to the code. A copy of the modified code (SEDROUT4-M) can be found in Appendix III, where some additional changes to the code, that are not presented in chapter 3, are also described. Besides the description of the modifications and justification to use SEDROUT4-M in this thesis, chapter 3 also verifies if these modifications are working correctly using simulations of theoretical situations. Validation of the hydraulics of the models for four tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River is presented in the last part of chapter 3, namely for the Batiscan, Richelieu, Saint-Maurice and Saint-François rivers. The Yamachiche River was not validated because of critical flow occurring in the simulations of this river (see chapter 6 for details).

## CHAPTER 3

## A MODIFIED MORPHODYNAMIC MODEL FOR INVESTIGATING THE RESPONSE OF RIVERS TO SHORT-TERM CLIMATE CHANGE ${ }^{1}$

### 3.1 Introduction

Rivers are directly affected by climate change through changes in discharge consequent on precipitation and evaporation and through base level changes [Schumm, 1977; Leopold and Bull, 1979; Tucker and Slingerland, 1997; Blum and Törnqvist, 2000; Bogaart and van Balen, 2000]. Base level change is often considered only in terms of sea level variation, but major rivers act as local base levels for their tributaries.

In the Saint-Lawrence River system in eastern Canada, the effects of climate change on precipitation and snow melt are anticipated to lead to reduced discharges in the SaintLawrence River [Croley, 2003] and changed discharges in its tributaries over the next century [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. As discharge in the Saint-Lawrence River declines, its tributaries will experience reduced base levels, contrary to the global sea level situation (or rise). The effects on tributaries of a lowering of the mainstream water level have previously been recognized in a series of conceptual channel evolution models [e.g. Simon and Hupp, 1986; Simon, 1989, 1992] and in the context of flow regulation for a gravel-bed river [Church, 1995]. However, to our knowledge, no study has investigated the effect of a climate-induced change in discharge and lowering of base level over intermediate time ( $50-100$ years) and spatial ( $\sim 15 \mathrm{~km}$ ) scales in sand-bed, lowland river reaches. Such conditions are of worldwide importance, being where most human settlements are located, such that morphological change has potentially significant impacts.

The consequences for the tributaries of near-simultaneous changes in hydrological regime and base level could include changes in any or all of sediment transport rate, bed elevation, bed composition, channel dimensions, and channel pattern. Many numerical models for channel change at reach scale have been developed by university researchers, consultancy firms, and government agencies [see reviews by Yang and Simões, 1999; Langendoen, 2001; Duc

[^1]et al., 2004; Lane and Ferguson, 2005]. These models vary in dimensionality (one-, two-, or three-dimensional) and generality (e.g., whether they are restricted to sand-bed or gravelbed channels, can handle graded beds, or can simulate changes in width). In the context of the Saint-Lawrence tributaries, a model needs to handle graded beds (though mainly sandy), very low slopes, incision, and permanent islands. The spatial scale exceeds 10 km and the timescale is $\sim 100$ years so only 1D and 2D models can realistically be envisaged. In this study, we use a 1D (i.e., width-averaged) model. This is partly for pragmatic reasons (lower requirement for field data for calibration and validation, simplicity, shorter computer processing time) and partly because of doubts over the utility of a 2 D model.

The rivers we are modelling have very low stream power, resulting in low hydraulic attack on the banks. Although river banks could nevertheless be undermined and fail under gravity following bed degradation [Darby and Thorne, 1996], these rivers are unlikely to experience major bank retreat or planform change, which in any case are not yet handled well by 2 D models [Langendoen, 2001; Darby et al., 2002].

Field studies of sand-bed rivers suggest that the primary response to downstream water level change is a change in bed elevation [Hassan and Klein, 2002; Gaeuman et al., 2005], which implies that the key requirement is accurate simulation of sediment transport rates. One-dimensional models can seriously underestimate bedload flux in gravel-bed rivers if flow and transport are concentrated in only part of the channel width [Ferguson, 2003; Li et al., 2008], but this bias is generally small in sand-bed rivers where shear stress is normally far above the threshold for motion. In one of the few comparative studies of transport models, Rathburn and Wohl [2001] found that a pseudo 2D model performed less well than a 1D model in a coarse-bed channel.

The 1D model used in this study is SEDROUT [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994]. This has much in common with the best-known 1D model, HEC-6 [U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1996], but was designed from the outset to handle graded sediment and to record bed stratigraphy during aggradation. As with other such models, SEDROUT solves the depth-averaged flow equations using a step-backwater method and a choice of friction equations; uses the calculated shear stresses at each cross section to compute bed-material transport using a choice of rate equations; then updates bed level and composition using the Exner and Hirano equations for overall and fractional sediment conservation. These conservation equations are,
respectively,

$$
\begin{equation*}
-(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial z}{\partial t}=\frac{\partial Q_{s}}{\partial x} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $z$ is the bed elevation, $x$ is the streamwise distance, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is the bed porosity, $Q_{s}$ is the total sediment transport, and $t$ is the time; and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial L_{a} F_{i}}{\partial t}=-\frac{\partial\left(Q_{s} p_{i}\right)}{\partial x}+E_{i}\left(\frac{\partial Q_{s}}{\partial x}+(1-\lambda) \frac{\partial L_{a}}{\partial t}\right) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L_{a}$ is the thickness of the active layer, and $F_{i}, p_{i}$, and $E_{i}$ are the proportions of the volume of material in the $i$ th size class in the active layer, the bedload, and the exchange layer between the active layer and the substrate. During incision, $E_{i}$ is defined by the subsurface stratigraphy; and during aggradation it is often taken to be equal to $F_{i}$ or to a weighted combination of $F_{i}$ and $p_{i}$ [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Toro-Escobar et al., 1996].

SEDROUT was first applied to simulate rapid downstream fining of bed material by sizeselective transport in a small gravel-bed river [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994]. SEDROUT has subsequently been shown to have applicability across a range of time- and space-scales [Hoey et al., 2003], for example reproducing well the effect of artificial meander straightening in a gravel-bed river in Québec [Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] and changes in sediment flux and bed composition along a large gravel/sand tributary of Fraser River, Canada [Ferguson et al., 2001].

This paper summarises modifications to SEDROUT4 (previous version) to increase its utility for investigating river response to short-term climate change scenarios and verifies these new features. The modifications include allowing variable steady discharge on a day-to-day basis; variable downstream water level (base level) at year-to-year, seasonal, and tidal timescales; inclusion of a transport equation specifically developed for fine-graded sediment; the ability to route water and sediment round midstream islands; and an improved treatment of how bed stratigraphy evolves during alternating erosion and deposition. Verification tests include simulation of measured present-day flow and transport variables in tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River. The impact of climate change will be reported separately [Verhaar et al., in press], by applying the modified model (SEDROUT4-M, current version) to these tributaries and simulate different discharge and water level scenarios.

### 3.2 Study areas

The four tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River system studied here are all located between Montréal and Québec close to Lake Saint-Pierre. Two tributaries are on the north shore of the river (Saint-Maurice River and Batiscan River), and two are on the south shore (Richelieu River and Saint-François River) (www.geog.umontreal.ca/hydro/TributairesSt-Laurent/). The tributaries are located in the Saint-Lawrence Lowlands, a low-lying area which was submerged by the Champlain Sea after the last glaciations (Figure 3.1). The Lake Saint-Pierre is a remnant of the Lampsilis Lake (a vestige of the Champlain Sea). Its level has been relatively stable in the last 3000 years, although human occupation and the Saint-Lawrence Seaway dredging have modified the hydrology and sediment input of the Saint-Lawrence River and of its tributaries [Rondeau et al., 2000]. All the tributaries have very mild slopes, and the river bed material ranges from fine silt and clay, to coarse sand and gravel, with even some boulders in the Saint-Maurice River. The length of the studied reaches upstream from the junction with the Saint-Lawrence River ranges from 14 to 17 km (Table 3.1). All of the tributaries are regulated to some extent by hydroelectric power dams. The river dimensions, discharge, and sedimentology are given in Table 3.1. In the Saint-François River and the Saint-Maurice River, permanent islands are present in their lower reaches.

Bed topography data were collected from a boat equipped with a sonar and


Figure 3.1: Geographical location of the tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River. GPS at different flow stages (bankfull and low flow) in 2004 or 2005. A second bed topography survey of all the tributaries was taken in 2006. Velocity measurements were taken with an ADCP (Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler). Bed composition was derived from bed samples taken with a grab bucket from the boat every three or four cross sections. Bedload sediment transport samples were taken at low and moderate discharge stages using a 76mm Helley-Smith sampler (Table 3.2).

| Name of river | Water surface bankfull width (m) mean (min-max) | Total length of studied reach (km) | Average discharge ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) (min-max) | Energy slope <br> (-) | Sediment type upstream downstream | Degree of regulation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Batiscan | 167 (77-277) | 17 | 99 (14-849) | $6 \times 10^{-5}$ | Clay to sand silt to sand | Moderate |
| Richelieu | 198 (89-278) | 15 | 346 (40-1260) | $5 \times 10^{-5}$ | Silt to sand | High |
| Saint- <br> François | 233 (88-415) | 15 | 208 (3-2520) | $3 \times 10^{-5}$ | Silt to gravel silt to sand | High |
| Saint- <br> Maurice | 238 (70-507) | 14 | 693 (76-5300) | $1 \times 10^{-5}$ | Silt to boulders silt to cobbles | High |

Table 3.1: Characteristics of the Saint-Lawrence and its tributaries

### 3.3 Additions and changes to the model

The modifications to the SEDROUT code can be divided into three groups. The first group contains changes required to deal with sand-bed rivers, as SEDROUT was originally designed for gravel-bed rivers. The next group covers the climate change adaptations, whereas the last group concerns specific changes for one or more of the tributaries studied here.

### 3.3.1 Sand-bed rivers

SEDROUT was developed using the bedload transport algorithm of Parker [1990b], but has subsequently had two alternatives added: those of Einstein [1950] and Wilcock and Crowe [2003]. Parker's equations are specifically for gravel, and the other two are based on experiments carried out with mixed gravel/sand beds. Ferguson et al. [2001] modified Parker's [1990b] bedload formula to permit calculation of transport rates in poorly sorted (including bimodal) mixed sand- and gravel-bed rivers. The bed sediments in the four tributaries range from silt to coarse sand with some gravel in the upstream reaches. As the sediment transport formulae available in SEDROUT have not been tested for this range of grain sizes, we implemented a bed-material transport formula which is more suitable for these particles sizes. A range of suitable formulae exist, including those of Toffaleti [1968] and Ackers and White [1973], which are total load formulas. As the reaches characterized by fine sediments in this study are short, we assumed that the fine suspended load is supply controlled (wash load) and is therefore not relevant in our simulations. All formulae have their advantages and

| Name of tributary | Date | Discharge ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) | Width (m) | \# with transport/total samples | Bedload ( $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ ) | Bedload (g/s) | Suspended load (mg/L) | Suspended $\operatorname{load}(\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{s})$ | Total load $(\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{s})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Batiscan | 2004-05-18 | - | - | - | - | - | 13.0 | 0 | - |
|  | 2005-10-19 | 340 | 226 | 5/9 | 6.0 | 1357 | 15.9 | 5390 | 6747 |
| Richelieu | 2005-07-14 | 420 | - | - | - | - | 26.7 | 11227 | - |
|  | 2005-11-18 | 750 | 235 | 3/7 | 0.99 | 233 | 52.8 | 39586 | 39820 |
|  | 2006-06-15 | 760 | 194 | 3/3 | 3.9 | 752 | 27.3 | 20767 | 21520 |
| St-François | 2004-05-18 | - | - | - | - | - | 92.6 | 0 | - |
|  | 2005-10-12 | 250 | 280 | 0/9 | None | None | 11.9 | 2987 | - |
|  | 2005-10-28 | 615 | 220 | 5/12 | 24.8 | 5454 | - | - | - |
|  | 2006-06-14 | - | - | - | - | - | 138.2 | 0 | - |

Table 3.2: Overview of collected field data.
disadvantages, but using comparative work by Tingsanchali and Supharatid [1996]; Batalla [1997]; McLean et al. [1999] and Barry et al. [2004], we decided to implement the total load formula from Ackers and White [1973]. Since its initial development, two revised parameter settings for this formula have been proposed. We retain the option of using the original values [Ackers and White, 1973], or the revisions HR Wallingford [1990], or White and Day [1982] parameters. Each of these alternatives was applied to the Saint-François River using the measured bulk bed composition and a range of discharges including the ones at the time of our field measurements. The White and Day [1982] parameter setting, which explicitly allows for size-selective effects in entrainment, gave the best match with our field measurements (Figure 3.2). The field measurement is the average of 5 measurements at 3 different locations on a single cross section with a standard error in the same order of magnitude as the average value.

The active layer thickness $L_{a}$ in SEDROUT was originally set to a user-specified multiple of $D_{84}$ (diameter for which $84 \%$ by weight of the particles are smaller) [Parker, 1991; Hoey and Ferguson, 1994]. Scaling $L_{a}$ on surface grain size is appropriate for gravel-bed rivers, but in sand-bed rivers a length scale such as dune amplitude is more relevant [e.g. Van Niekerk et al., 1992]. Here we have used a fixed value of 0.10 m as a minimum value as we did not observe any dunes in our reaches.


Figure 3.2: Comparison of the different transport formulae in SEDROUT on the Saint-François River under continuous increasing discharge. Note: the Wilcock and Crowe equation does not predict any sediment transport for this discharge range.

SEDROUT solves the discretised equations using explicit finite difference methods, with a time step that varies to satisfying the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy (C-F-L) condition. Three conditions are used in SEDROUT to ensure numerical stability under a range of conditions, one from Park and Jain [1987] and two from Parker [1990a]. As is common in sediment routing models, one of the Parker [1990a] conditions is that the change in bed elevation during any one time step should be small compared to the transport layer thickness. This was originally computed using a C-F-L condition directly based on $D_{84}$. For sandy environments, this condition is based on the actual transport layer thickness in the model.


Figure 3.3: Revised concept of layers in SEDROUT: the centre represents the initial structure, where $L_{a}$ is the active layer and $L_{\text {sub }}$ are the sublayers; to the right: update in the case of sedimentation where arrows indicate the direction of deposited sediments. When the uppermost sublayer becomes $>1.5$ times the original value, it is subdivided and the lowest layer is erased. To the left: update in the case of erosion; far left is the new definition when the uppermost sublayer is $<0$.

SEDROUT and other models [e.g. Parker, 1991] have been developed for aggrading systems, and model treatment of aggradation has been thoroughly parameterised and validated [e.g. Toro-Escobar et al., 1996]. Treatments of degradation have been developed and tested for conditions of static armour development [e.g. Willetts et al., 1987; Parker and Sutherland, 1990]. Static armour development as a consequence of zero upstream sediment supply is a unique case that can be solved using simple assumptions of vertical sediment exchange. These assumptions may not apply in cases of less severe degradation, but suitable formulations for this case have yet to be fully tested. Simulations with variable discharge and downstream water levels over several years are likely to result in alternating aggradation and degradation. SEDROUT, like some other morphological models, allows for the possibility of vertical variation in the initial bed composition by defining several layers. Additional layers of the same thickness as the current active layer are defined during progressive aggradation, or layers are eroded during progressive degradation. Note that the thickness of all layers evolves in response to changes in the surface grain size distribution as a consequence of the definition of $L_{a}$. In conditions of alternating aggradation and degradation accompanied by surface fining and coarsening, we found that the original algorithm produced excessive mixing between sublayers as the bed surface moved up and down and the active layer thickness varied. To solve this problem, the algorithm was rewritten to use sublayers bounded at fixed elevations. Only the sublayer directly under the active layer has a variable thickness, filling the space between the lower boundary of the active layer and the top boundary of the second sublayer (which has a fixed elevation). This layer is divided into a new sublayer when its thickness exceeds $150 \%$ of
the other sublayers. When this layer becomes $\leq 0$, a new sublayer is defined under the lowest sublayer and the upper sublayer is erased (Figure 3.3). The lowland tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River have very low slopes (Table 3.1). Using a step-backwater hydraulic scheme in such cases can be unstable, so we allow user specification of the tolerance value for convergence of the step-backwater calculations. A value of 0.1 mm is used in this study.

### 3.3.2 Climate change

SEDROUT was developed for generic situations where it was adequate to use a steady dominant discharge to represent the integrated effect of a spectrum of individual floods. Because bedload transport rates are non-linear functions of discharge, the effective discharge is displaced toward higher flows than the mean [e.g. Wolman and Miller, 1960]; simulating individual floods is better than using yearly averages [Molnar et al., 2006]. We have therefore added the option of using a hydrograph file with a user-specified time step (for present purposes, discharge is held steady for one day at a time). Different series of daily discharges for the period 2010 to 2099 for each tributary [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005] were used, based on two greenhouse gas emission scenarios, A2 (economic growth) and B2 (local sustainable solutions). For three different horizons (2010-2039, 2040-2069, 2070-2099), the discharge scenarios were generated by applying the delta method (constant shift) to a historical sequence of precipitation and temperature (1961-1990) with the use of three different global climatic models. These new sequences of precipitation and temperature were used as an input for a hydrologic model to simulate daily discharges. The effects of river regulation on the discharge were considered negligible for the Batiscan River, but were taken into account for the Saint-Maurice simulation. For the Saint-François and Richelieu rivers, data on reservoirs were lacking and this effect could not be incorporated in the simulations. Although the mean annual discharges remain very similar to current values, individual floods change significantly under the different scenarios.

The water level in the Saint-Lawrence River is the base level for all the tributaries. We used a daily average water level based on recorded water levels for the period 1995-2005 at four different gauging stations. Successive days in which the water level was within a 25mm range were combined to reduce file size. To simulate the effect of climate change, an extra module was added to the program to change the mean annual water level in the SaintLawrence River. Because of the lack of more detailed information on how the water levels
in the Saint-Lawrence River will change over time, we considered two different scenarios: (i) a gradual change in water level that involves lowering the hydrograph each year by a pre-assigned value; and (ii) a step change at a certain point in time.

Discharges and water levels are read from separate files at the beginning of each day and held constant during the day. This quasisteady approach is often used in river engineering [Jansen et al., 1979] and allows longer time steps to be used, which is an advantage in longterm simulations. However, its use is restricted to short river reaches and slowly varying hydraulic regimes, both of which conditions apply here.

### 3.3.3 Tributaries

The Saint-François and Saint-Maurice rivers have islands in their downstream reaches. To simulate the hydraulics and sediment transport with SEDROUT4-M, these rivers were separated into discrete sections, each containing a single channel. Independent hydraulic computations are performed for each section. At each bifurcation, the water levels of the two sections are compared. If the difference between these water levels exceeds the specified tolerance for the hydraulic computation $(0.1 \mathrm{~mm})$, the discharge ratio is redefined and water levels are recalculated until the difference is smaller than the tolerance.

Sediment coming from upstream is portioned between the branches around an island using the discharge ratio between the channels. This ratio is used for all the size classes. This is the simplest relationship for sediment transport distribution at a bifurcation, but also the only option when modelling using a variable discharge [De Vriend et al., 2000]. Within each branch channel, the sediment transport rate is calculated at each cross section and sediment is routed normally.

The Batiscan and Saint-Maurice rivers join the Saint-Lawrence River below its tidal limit so their base levels oscillate. Over the period 2000-2005, the average tidal range for the Batiscan River is 0.80 m ; and for the Saint-Maurice River it is 0.20 m . An extra module was added to SEDROUT4-M to update the downstream water level at a constant time interval in addition to the day-to-day variations in main stream flow. The assumptions made are a tidal period of 12 h , and therefore two total periods in one day to fit in with using a daily discharge update; and a water level depicted as a sine function, i.e., within the Saint-Lawrence River the tidal wave progresses upstream without deformation.

### 3.4 Assessment of SEDROUT performance

The island module, layer module, and tidal module available in SEDROUT4-M are initially checked for consistency using simulations of ideal small-scale situations and of the Batiscan tributary. Following this, the model is calibrated and validated to present-day conditions in all four tributaries. Finally, an example of a full simulation of one climate-change scenario is presented for the Richelieu River.

The initial topography data for the tributaries is based on our sonar surveys. The number of cross sections is equal to 80 , 99, 96, and 104 for the Bastican, Richelieu, Saint-François, and Saint-Maurice rivers, respectively. The first two tributaries have a single channel; whereas, to incorporate the islands, the Saint-François River contains four channel sections and the Saint-Maurice River contains five. The initial bed composition in all cases is based on field measurements of


Figure 3.4: Explanation of the "Channel X " and island simulations used to test the island option in SEDROUT: a) "Channel 0 " is used to generate an equilibrium starting condition for the test; b) "Channel X" has an island represented by the cross-sectional shape only; c) "Island $1^{\prime \prime}$ represents the actual island module. Bold numbers $(6,7,8)$ indicate the position of the island. surface bulk grain size distribution at each surveyed cross section.

### 3.4.1 Testing SEDROUT adjustments

In order to test the SEDROUT4-M version, small artificial channels with and without islands were developed. The first is a single channel, with 13 rectangular cross sections, each 100 m wide, with a horizontal initial bed, constant grain size distribution, and exposed to a constant discharge and downstream water level (Figure 3.4a, "Channel 0"). After the system reached equilibrium, two new models were generated using the bed topography and composition from this equilibrium channel. The first is called "Channel X " and has 13 cross
sections, of which cross sections 6,7 , and 8 have the shape of two channels, each half the width of the original channel (Figure 3.4b). The other, called "Island 1," has four channel sections, each containing five cross sections, in which channel sections II and III have cross sections with half the width of "Channel 0, except for the upstream and downstream cross sections (Figure 3.4c). These two models ("Channel X" and "Island 1") were then run with the same discharge and downstream water level. By using two channels with the exact same topography around the island, the water and sediment distribution between the channels are each $50 \%$. Furthermore, the bed topography, water levels, and grain size distributions are theoretically the same. In Figure 3.5, the water level and bed topography comparison between the two models reveals no differences, indicating that the island option in SEDROUT4-M is working correctly.


Figure 3.5: Comparison between "Channel X" and "Island 1 " for a) water level and b) bed level.

The "Channel 0" was then used to evaluate the change made to the layer module. In Figure 3.6, percentages of a single fraction in the five layers are given over the test-run duration along with the bed elevation for the downstream cross section (13). In this test run, the discharge is variable over time to create a sequence of erosion and sedimentation, and the downstream water level is held constant. An active layer thickness of 0.025 m and a sublayer thickness of 0.050 m are used. The redefinition of the layers is seen to work correctly during both erosion and sedimentation. The layers are updated each time the bed elevation reaches a multiple of 0.050 m during erosion and every odd (larger than 1) multiple of 0.025 m during sedimentation. Figure 3.6 shows that grain size distribution of the sublayers remains constant during the first erosion period until $t=61 \mathrm{~d}$. When sedimentation begins, the grain size distribution in the first sublayer starts to change toward the distribution of the active layer. The update
of the sublayers works satisfactorily at $t=98 \mathrm{~d}$ and $t=133 \mathrm{~d}$ in the sedimentation phase as the active layer becomes thicker than 75 mm . In the second erosion phase, from $t=153$ to 193 d, sediment is transferred from the first sublayer back to the active layer; and when the sublayer thickness reaches zero, the sublayers are successfully updated at $t=155, t=164$ and $t=175 \mathrm{~d}$.

Three different simulations with a duration of one year were carried out for the Batiscan River to investigate the effect of the tide on the sediment transport calculations. The first simulation uses a constant water level, the second updates the tide level every hour and the third one updates the tide every half-hour. Figure 3.7 shows that adding a tide module has an effect on the bed elevation in the downstream end of the Batiscan River (in the downstream 5 km ), but the interval of 1 h gives results very similar to those with the halfhour interval. Therefore, in the long-


Figure 3.6: Variation in the percentage of the smallest grain size class $(0.25-0.50 \mathrm{~mm})$ in the new layer module in the active layer and in the four underlying sublayers, as well as in the bed elevation during the simulation at the downstream end of a small-scale model ("Channel 0", Figure 3.4a). term simulations, the 1-h update of the tide will be used to keep the time step as large as possible without losing accuracy.

### 3.4.2 Calibration and validation

Calibration and validation of model hydraulics were done by adjusting the roughness parameter and by comparing the calculated water levels at given discharges with the measured ones. Previous applications of SEDROUT to gravel-bed rivers have used a logarithmic roughness law, but for the present sand-bed application we use Manning's $n$. Best-fit regression gave optimum values of $n=0.022,0.037,0.030$, and 0.043 for the Batiscan, Richelieu, Saint-François, and Saint-Maurice rivers, respectively.

In addition to the calibration and validation of the model with water level data, we
compared the simulated mean velocity at each cross section with our field measurements. The Ackers-White total load equation uses mean and


Figure 3.7: Effect of adding a tidal module on a test simulation of the Batiscan River. The $y$-axis represents the difference between no tide effect and having a water level update every hour (black bars) or every half-hour (white bars). shear velocity, so it is important that the simulated values correspond to the measured ones. Observed and simulated mean velocities are compared in Table 3.3. The ADCP data were collected during two successive days in each case (three days for the Batiscan River). The simulations are done for each day of measurement using the average discharge and downstream water level. For the Batiscan River, part of the difference between the measured and simulated velocities is from the tide effect. The measurements were taken over the day and include the tidal variation of the downstream water level; whereas the simulation of the velocities was done with a fixed downstream water level, resulting in higher relative difference. The Saint-François River has the highest relative error, which is partly from the presence of an island, where the discharge ratio between the two channels along the island is not simulated perfectly, resulting in over prediction in one channel and under prediction in the other. The overall agreement is very good, with an average absolute difference of $11 \%$.

| Name of tributary | Flow condi- <br> tion | ADCP <br> $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$ | SEDROUT <br> $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$ | Mean difference <br> $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$ | Mean absolute <br> difference $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Batiscan | Moderate | 0.471 | 0.502 | 0.031 | 0.058 | $(12.3 \%)$ |
| Saint-François | Low | 0.133 | 0.154 | 0.021 | 0.044 | $(33.0 \%)$ |
|  | Moderate | 0.428 | 0.457 | 0.029 | 0.036 | $(8.4 \%)$ |
| Saint-Maurice | Moderate | 0.703 | 0.727 | 0.024 | 0.053 | $(7.5 \%)$ |
| Richelieu | Low | 0.437 | 0.442 | 0.006 | 0.015 | $(3.4 \%)$ |
|  | Moderate | 0.649 | 0.658 | 0.009 | 0.015 | $(2.2 \%)$ |

Table 3.3: Velocity comparison between field measurements with ADCP and simulations using SEDROUT

For the Saint-François River, the discharge ratio of the channels around the island is compared with our field data. At low flow ( $65 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ), the measured discharge ratio with the ADCP was $29 / 71 \%$, whereas the simulated ratio with SEDROUT4-M was $25 / 75 \%$. At high flow ( $549 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ), ADCP discharge ratio was $32 / 68 \%$ versus $30 / 70 \%$ in SEDROUT4-M. The discharge ratio is thus in good agreement with the measured ratio, with a difference of $4 \%$
at low flow and only $2 \%$ at high flow, even though within the model there is no option to calibrate the discharge ratio between the two sections.

Morphological validation of any model of this type is difficult [Cao and Carling, 2002a]. Our sediment transport measurements show large variations in bedload transport rate, which is often the case when using Helley-Smith samplers [e.g. Gaudet et al., 1994], partly because of temporary fluctuations of bedload transport [Cudden and Hoey, 2003]. The White and Day [1982] parameter setting indicates threshold transport values around 150, 450, and $330 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ for the Batiscan River, Richelieu River, and Saint-François River, respectively. As can be seen in Table 3.3, these values are close to the discharge values during our bedload transport surveys. Therefore, the comparison of measured and simulated transport rates is further complicated here by the fact that field measurements were taken at flow conditions close to the threshold for motion.

### 3.4.3 Long-term simulation

Two long-term simulations with the Richelieu River model have been performed to test the capability of simulating a 90-year period with a variable discharge and changing downstream water level. The first is a reference scenario that is based on simulated discharges for the reference period 1961-1990 combined with current water levels in the Saint-Lawrence River, both held constant over the simulation period. The discharge for the second scenario is based on the A2 climate scenario predicted with the CSIRO-Mk2 model [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. The water level corresponds to a gradual decrease in the Saint-Lawrence River of $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$.

Figure 3.8 a shows the yearly sediment balance for the CSIRO A2 scenario with $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ drop in water level. The sediment balance is the difference between sediment transport at the upstream boundary (in-going) and at the downstream boundary (out-going), with negative values indicating erosion. We expect to observe, from a continuous decrease in downstream water level, a general trend of lower bed levels over the simulation period, although transient aggradation may occur for parts of the time. The changes in discharge (higher mean annual discharge and increased variation) should lead to an increase in extreme erosion events. The combination of these two effects is apparent in Figure 3.8a that shows the cumulative sediment balance for both scenarios, suggesting consistency between long-term simulations with SEDROUT4-M and expectations, although full validation is required.


Figure 3.8: a) Long-term simulation of the Richelieu River, using CSIRO A2 discharge scenario and $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ drop in downstream water level, showing yearly sediment transport balance (bars) and annual maximum discharge (line). The sediment transport balance values correspond to yearly transport at the upstream boundary minus that at the downstream boundary; b) Cumulative sediment transport balance for a reference scenario (1961-1990 discharge with no water level drop) and the CSIRO A2 climate scenario with a $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ drop. Negative values indicate erosion, whereas positive values indicate deposition.

The stratigraphic record for two cross sections (mid-distance and at the downstream end of the study reach) is shown in Figure 3.9. The initial $D_{50}$ is the same for all the layers, but different at each cross section. By 2100, the sequences of sedimentation and erosion have greatly modified the vertical grain size distribution, with coarser particles in the upper part of the profile (Figure 3.9).

### 3.5 Discussion

The 1D model SEDROUT has been extended and modified to allow simulations using climate-induced changes in discharge and downstream water levels. Simulations with an artificial channel show that SEDROUT4-M is capable of simulating moderately com- plex channels with islands. The new layer concept avoids artificial mixing between the sublayers during alternating sedimentation and erosion. A stratigraphic record can also be built during a long-term simulation, which is an advantage over some other 1D morphological models such as HEC-6. However, the choice of the thickness of the sublayers remains arbitrary. As the choice of the transport layer thickness influences the stratigraphic record and grain size distribution of the transport layer [Ribberink, 1987], this issue can create some difficulties when comparing results from different studies. A relatively thick transport layer
will result in almost no change in grain size, whereas a relatively thin transport layer results in a quickly adapting grain size distribution and can cause artificial armouring of the bed [Hoey and Ferguson, 1997].

Calibration simulations were used to obtain the
overall roughness for each tributary. However, the range of discharges and water levels available for calibration was small and the discharges were mostly low to moderate. This could lead to roughness values that are slightly low for high flow simulations, especially for the Batiscan River where Manning's $n$ is only 0.022 . Unfortunately, we have no data to verify this effect. On the other hand, the downstream reach of the Batiscan River is relatively straight and thus shows no indication that a higher roughness caused by the channel pattern would be required. Also, the cross-sectional shape in this case seems compatible with a low Manning's $n$ indicated by the calibration. The value of Manning's $n$ for the Saint-François River (0.030) is close to standard values for sand-bed rivers. Some of the inaccuracy in water levels could be from the fact that the model is not capable of dealing with the hysteresis effect in the stage-discharge curve, as the model is calibrated using


Figure 3.9: Grain size $\left(D_{50}\right)$ of the layers at two cross sections in the Richelieu River for the reference scenario and the CSIRO A2 climate scenario with a $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ drop: a) in the centre of the studied reach (at 4.6 km from the downstream limit) and b) a steady flow approach. For the Richelieu River, the relatively high Manning's $n$ value ( 0.037 ) can be ex- at the downstream end. plained by its meanders in the downstream reach and the strong asymmetrical cross-sectional shapes in this reach. The Saint-Maurice River has the highest Manning's $n(0.043)$ because of the presence of large bed material (cobbles and boulders) that we observed in our field surveys. Although the Manning's $n$ values are different for each river, they are all more or less within the limits of 0.024 to 0.075 for the lower regime in sand-bed rivers [Barnes Jr., 1967].

The sediment transport rate is calculated from the mean cross section velocity in the 1D model. An essential part of the validation is therefore to verify that the model is capable of
simulating these velocities accurately. As shown in Table 3.3, the simulated velocities are in good agreement with our field measurements. The positive mean difference indicates that for all rivers velocities are slightly overpredicted. The relative error is smaller for the high flow condition than for the low flow condition. As most of the morphological work is occurring during high flow, this relatively good agreement indicates an overall good performance of the 1D model.

The accuracy of sediment transport formulae is generally considered as poor [e.g. Van Rijn, 1984; Barry et al., 2004]. Calibration and validation are difficult because of sparse field data and error related to Helley-Smith sampling. The best test for accuracy of the transport rate predictions would be against inverse morphological estimates from resurveys of the rivers. Long-term simulation using these formulae should always be treated with caution. Nevertheless, trends and differences between future scenarios can be identified, even if the sediment transport formula is systematically over- or underpredicting actual transport rates.

### 3.6 Conclusion

The modification of the 1D morphodynamic model SEDROUT4-M allows for a wide range of river types to be simulated, from gravel-bed rivers in the original design to sandgravel mixtures and sand-bed rivers, which are typically found in the downstream reaches of watersheds. Moderately complex rivers with islands or multiple channel deltas can also be simulated with this model. The extended layer concept, present in the original design, provides an opportunity to simulate the stratigraphy of the grain size distributions of the river bed.

Future research on the effect of the choice of transport layer thickness is needed, as the use of a variable thickness based on the discharge and grain size could give a better physical description of the sediment transport process and stratigraphic record. However, SEDROUT4M is now also capable of simulating daily variations in discharge and downstream water levels over relatively long simulation periods (100 years). With the tidal module and the option to change downstream water level over time, the model can investigate the impacts of base level change on rivers based on different climatic scenarios. These are key elements of expected near-future climate changes in several watersheds across the world, which were tested here for the Saint-Lawrence River tributaries. The modified version of SEDROUT4-M is thus a
valuable and powerful tool to investigate the effects of climate change on river systems, but the potential applications go well beyond climate-change scenarios as a very wide range of river morphodynamic problems can now be simulated.

## Paragraphe de liason B

In chapter 3 the modifications to and the performance of SEDROUT4-M were described and tested, and the validation of the hydraulics was presented for the Batiscan, Richelieu, Saint-Maurice and Saint-François rivers, based on measured water elevations and velocities. The next two chapters (4 and 5) will present the results of morphological simulations over the period 2010 to 2099. Daily discharge time series are available from a hydrological model (HSAMI) that uses the temperature and precipitation time series from three different GCMs (CSIRO-Mk2, ECHAM4 and HadCM3) for two GHG-emission scenarios (A2(b) and B2(b)) as input conditions. After running the various scenarios it was felt that a general assessment of the results per horizon would be the appropriate first step. In chapter 4 the analysis focuses on the mean annual sediment transport rates for three future time periods and bed elevation by the end of 2099. Although hydraulic results were satisfactory for the reaches where water level and ADCP velocity data were available, it was felt that an assessment of the morphological performance would be helpful. Differences in bed topography between the two field campaigns, are compared to those of morphological simulations. The main purpose of chapter 4 is to analyse the effects of expected changes in discharge and base level due to climate change over the period 2010-2099. The analysis is done by comparing the outcome of hydrological simulations using different GCM series with a reference scenario that contains the simulated discharge for the reference period 1961-1990.

## CHAPTER 4

## EFFECTS OF DISCHARGE AND BASE LEVEL CHANGE DUE TO CLIMATE CHANGE ON BED ELEVATION AND YEARLY BED MATERIAL TRANSPORT OF SAINT-LAWRENCE TRIBUTARIES: A NUMERICAL MODELLING APPROACH ${ }^{2}$

### 4.1 Introduction

There is now a clear consensus that the global climate will continue to change in the near future, at least partly because of human activities [IPCC, 2007]. Regional-scale changes in mean temperature and precipitation will inevitably affect hydrological systems and river flows, and there have been many recent studies of how this may affect navigation, hydropower, flood risk, and river management [e.g. Pruski and Nearing, 2002; Nearing et al., 2005; De Wit et al., 2007; Fowler et al., 2007; Lane et al., 2007; Quilbé et al., 2008]. It is well known from historical studies that climate change also has an indirect effect on bedmaterial transport and river morphology [e.g. Blum and Törnqvist, 2000; Knox, 2000], and Lane et al. [2007] noted that channel change can modulate the direct effect of climate change on flood risk, but attempts to predict how climate change will affect river channels are only just starting to appear [e.g. Gomez et al., 2009]. Historical studies have not established clear and globally-applicable empirical relations between climate change and river response [Vandenberghe and Maddy, 2001; Bogaart et al., 2003], but modelling provides an alternative approach [e.g. Tucker and Slingerland, 1997; Coulthard and Macklin, 2001; Veldkamp and Tebbens, 2001; Coulthard et al., 2005; Gomez et al., 2009]. When looking into the future there is uncertainty in climate scenarios, climate models, and hydrological models used to convert changes in temperature and precipitation into changes in river discharge [Graham et al., 2007]. Moreover, river response depends on base level as well as hydrology [e.g. Blum and Törnqvist, 2000] and in some situations both of these are expected to change. Responses to base-level change can be complex and depend on the type and duration of change and type

[^2]of river [Schumm, 1977; Begin et al., 1981; Simon and Hupp, 1986; Bonneau and Snow, 1992; Hassan and Klein, 2002; Gaeuman et al., 2005].

This paper is concerned with how climate-induced changes in near-future hydrology will affect the stability of, and sediment delivery from, relatively small tributaries of the very large Saint-Lawrence River as it flows through the province of Québec in eastern Canada. The Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries are a very important fluvial system from both economic and ecological perspectives [Hudon, 2004; Morin et al., 2005]. It is expected that regional changes in hydrology will affect the tributaries in two ways: from upstream through the altered hydrology of their own basins, and from downstream through the base level fall that is predicted to occur because of a decrease in Saint-Lawrence discharge by approximately $20 \%$ [Croley, 2003; Ouranos, 2004; Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Morin et al., 2005]. The latter is mainly due to increased evaporation in the Great Lakes following temperature increases [Croley, 2003; Chaumont and Chartier, 2005].

We tackle the problem using a modelling approach in which output from global climate models (GCMs) drives a hydrological model, and the output of the hydrological model drives a morphodynamic model. We use a single hydrological model (HSAMI) that has been used for operational purposes in this region for many years, and a 1-dimensional morphodynamic model (SEDROUT4-M), but force them with outputs from three alternative GCMs since studies of changes in flow patterns have shown greater sensitivity to the choice of GCM than to greenhouse gas (GHG) emission scenario or climate sensitivity [Prudhomme et al., 2003; Andersson et al., 2006]. Details of the various models are given below. We report results from simulations using all combinations of three GCMs, two GHG-scenarios and three base level scenarios. The response variables discussed are the mean annual bed-material volume transported from three tributaries to the Saint-Lawrence River, and the mean bed elevation in distal and medial sub-reaches of each tributary. By comparing scenarios involving variations in discharge and/or base level we can examine how sensitive rivers are to these two variables taken in combination or in isolation. Modelling several rivers and using alternative climate and base-level scenarios allows us to assess how possible it is to generalize in a robust way the fluvial response to climate change.

### 4.2 Study areas

Four tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River (Batiscan, Richelieu, SaintFrançois and Saint-Maurice rivers) were originally selected for this study, though technical difficulties (see below) prevented successful modelling of the SaintMaurice River and led to some gaps in the results from the Saint-François River. The rivers were selected on account of their geometry, availability of data, and


Figure 4.1: Location of the studied Saint-Lawrence River tributaries. importance for navigation. Futhermore, the tributaries selected cover a range of different sizes to cover all sizes of tributaries found in the region and the tributaries are located on both, North and South, shores of the Saint-Lawrence River as climate change effects are expected to be different in the North from the South. They are located in the lower part of the Saint-Lawrence River basin between Montréal and Québec City (Figure 4.1) close to Lake Saint-Pierre (www.geog.umontreal.ca/hydro/TributairesSt-Laurent/). This lake is wide ( $10-12 \mathrm{~km}$ ), shallow (mean depth $<3.0 \mathrm{~m}$ ), and non-tidal. It has been a UNESCO biosphere reserve since 2001 on account of its marginal habitats [Jacques, 1986; Morin and Côté, 2003; Hudon, 2004; Hudon and Carignan, 2008]. The Saint-Lawrence Seaway passes through the lake and navigation depths here are critical, such that any decrease in water level or increase in sedimentation may have important economic consequences. More than half of the suspended sediment input from the south shore tributaries comes from three rivers: the Yamaska, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers [Rondeau et al., 2000].

River dimensions, discharge range and sedimentology are provided in Table 4.1. All of the tributaries contain hydroelectric power dams and their discharge is regulated to a certain extent. The Batiscan and Saint-Maurice rivers, located downstream of Lake Saint-Pierre, are also tidally influenced and the lowest part of the Richelieu River is dredged periodically to
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{llllllll}\hline \text { River } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Water surface } \\
\text { bankfull width } \\
(\mathrm{m}) \text { mean } \\
(\text { min-max })\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Length } \\
\text { of } \\
\text { studied } \\
\text { reach } \\
(\mathrm{km})\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Mean } \\
\text { discharge } \\
\left(\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right)(\text { Mean } \\
\text { annual flood) }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Energy } \\
\text { slope } \\
(-)\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Upstream } \\
\text { sediment size }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Downstream } \\
(\mathrm{mm})\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Degree } \\
\text { sediment size }\end{array}
$$ <br>

of flow\end{array}\right]\)| $D_{50}-D_{84}(\mathrm{~mm})$ |
| :--- |

Table 4.1: Characteristics of the studied tributaries
maintain navigation. The upstream end of each study reach was set at a location which on inspection in the field appeared to have been stable for a long time. In the Batiscan, SaintFrançois and Saint-Maurice rivers it coincided with a marked increase in grain size and slope, and in the Batiscan and Richelieu rivers it was the highest such location before the hydroelectric power dam. Each tributary was surveyed using an echo sounder in 2004/2005 and again in 2006. For the Batiscan River 79 cross sections were used in the model at separations varying from about 100 m in the downstream reach to 300 m upstream; 99 cross sections were taken for the Richelieu River, 60 to 220 m apart; the Saint-François River contains 100 cross sections at 60 to 300 m interval, and the Saint-Maurice River model contains 108 cross sections at 85 to 280 m . On average 700 topographic points were taken at each cross section, but the points used as input in SEDROUT4-M were decimated to an average spacing of 5 m . In the Saint-François River, four branches were used to include in the model a permanent island. The downstream geometry of the Saint-Maurice River is complex and contains multiple bifurcations and confluences, with two main bifurcations and three channels that flow into the Saint-Lawrence River requiring five branches in the model. Longitudinal profiles (Figure 4.2) are markedly different from the theoretical, continuously decreasing smooth curve. It is expected that the effect of a base level fall will be harder to identify in these rivers, because of potential erosion of shallow cross sections and deposition in deep cross sections.

Bed composition was obtained from samples collected from a boat using a grab bucket (Ponar Dredge HB-2, GENEQ Inc.) deployed manually. The bed composition ranges from clay and silt to sand and some gravel in the upstream parts for all the tributaries (Table 4.1). Typically, samples were taken at 5 different points along a cross section at every 2 to 4 cross sections where topography was measured. This resulted in an average of 150 samples for
each tributary that were analysed in the laboratory to obtain a grain size distribution from which 10-13 half-phi grain size fractions, starting at a washload limit of 0.125 mm , were extracted.

### 4.3 Methodology

Climate change will affect the tributaries in two ways: directly through a change in discharge in the tributaries themselves, and indirectly through a discharge change in the Saint-Lawrence River which will affect the base levels of the tributaries. These two effects are assumed to be independent since the watersheds (4700-43 $250 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ ) and mean discharges ( $99-693 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) of the tributaries are orders of magnitude smaller than those of the Saint-Lawrence River (watershed area $1.3 \times 10^{6} \mathrm{~km}^{2}$, mean discharge $14000 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ).

The morphological model was run with present-day discharge, measured bed topogra-


Figure 4.2: Long profile of the tributaries based on the deepest point of each cross section (in meters relative to mean sea level) against the distance from confluence with the Saint-Lawrence River or Lake SaintPierre, a) Batiscan River; b) Richelieu River; c) Saint-François River, where the dashed line represents the eastern channel along the island; and d) Saint-Maurice River, with a dashed line representing the eastern channel and a dotted line the middle channel continuous line is the main and western channel. phy and bed composition, and base levels for the period between when the topography was measured (2004/5) and the start of the future discharge scenarios (2010). The simulated bed topography and composition is then used as the initial condition for different discharge and base level scenarios that cover the period the 90 year period of 2010 to the end of 2099.

### 4.3.1 Discharge scenarios

Discharge scenarios were generated by the Ouranos research centre, a consortium on regional climatology and adaptation to climate change [www.ouranos.ca, Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. Ouranos is the main source of North American regional climate simulations and, as such, is recognized as a leading research centre in climate change in Canada. They simulated two GHG-scenarios (A2(b) and B2(b)) [Nakicenovic et al., 2000; Raupach et al., 2007] with three different GCMs (CSIRO-Mk2, ECHAM4 and HadCM3). The A2 GHG-scenario includes globalized development, whereas the B2 scenario includes regional development. Both GHG-scenarios assume environmental stewardship, but the A2 scenario has a higher GHG-emission rate than the B2 scenario [Merritt et al., 2006]. Current GHGemissions exceed both the A2 and B2 scenarios, but A2 is closest to the actual emissions [Raupach et al., 2007]. The GCMs were selected based on their differences in predictions of precipitation and temperature: ECHAM4 predicts a moderate increase in temperature and the smallest changes in precipitation; HadCM3 results in the smallest increase in temperature and the highest increase in precipitation; and the CSIRO-Mk2 model has moderate precipitation increase and higher temperature increase for the Québec region [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005].

As in almost all previous model studies of hydrological response to climate change [e.g. Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Merritt et al., 2006; Graham et al., 2007; Lane et al., 2007; Minville et al., 2008] the GCM outputs were converted to time series of daily temperature and precipitation using the delta method. This uses the difference between a monthly mean temperature or precipitation simulated by a GCM for a 30 -year period in the future and for a reference period (1961-1990). This monthly difference (delta value) is then added to daily climatic data synthesized for each watershed. Although alternative downscaling approaches are being developed [e.g. Hay et al., 2000; Diaz-Nieto and Wilby, 2005; Rosberg and Andréasson, 2006; Rydgren et al., 2007], the delta method is the most widely used and has the advantage of simplicity, stability and robustness [Graham et al., 2007]. Although regional simulations from the Canadian Regional Climate Model [CRCM Caya and Laprise, 1999] were available, they did not allow time-mean water budget to be resolved at the required temporal scale for the SEDROUT4-M model; thus, direct output from CRCM could not be used. Using bias correction methods in this case was not deemed appropriate since these methods would not have improved our degree of confidence in the results obtained for precipitation.

Preliminary analyses by Ouranos showed that, in southern Québec where the topography is relatively smooth, using delta values for regional models at a 45 km resolution added little information compared to delta values derived from GCMs at a 250 km resolution. This was also observed by Graham et al. [2007] for the Bothnian Bay Basin when comparing RCMs with 25 or 50 km resolution with the GCM HadAM3H at 150 km resolution. The added value of RCMs to the time-mean water budget is relatively modest, as it is contained mainly in the time variability, except where there is a strong local forcing such as near mountains or coastal regions [Laprise, 2008].

The re-computed precipitation and temperature were then used as input in the hydrological model HSAMI [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Minville et al., 2008], which is a lumped rain and snowfall runoff model (see Minville et al. [2008] for details). It has been successfully used and tested by the hydropower company Hydro-Québec for over twenty years to predict runoff for their reservoirs [St-Hilaire et al., 2003; Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Minville et al., 2008]. HSAMI is particularly appropriate for this study because it takes into account the locally important processes of snow accumulation, snowmelt, and soil freezing/thawing, as well as evapotranspiration, and because it has already been calibrated to the watersheds concerned [it is used for daily forecasting of natural inflows on 84 watersheds ranging in areas from $160 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ to $69195 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ : Minville et al., 2008].

For each river, six time series (three GCMs combined with two GHG-scenarios) of daily discharge values were produced by adding the delta values (precipitation and temperature) to the reference period, for three different future time periods or 'horizons': 2010-2039, 20402069 and 2070-2099. Delta values were calculated for the years 2020, 2050 and 2080 which were assumed to be representative for the complete horizon. This procedure is similar to that applied by Lane et al. [2007]. The hydrological model was calibrated using the reference period 1961-1990. The quality of the calibration was assessed using Nash coefficients, where values above 0.75 are considered good [Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970]. Values of $0.85,0.79$ and 0.83 were obtained for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers, respectively [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005]. These simulated daily discharges are used as a reference discharge scenario for the morphological modelling by repeatedly using it for the periods 2010-2039, 2040-2069 and 2070-2099, referred to as RefQ hereafter.

Under all tested climate scenarios, spring snowmelt floods in all tributaries are predicted to occur earlier in the year. For the Batiscan, Saint-François and Saint-Maurice rivers, the
magnitude remains about the same as in Table 4.1, whereas for the Richelieu River the spring flood increases. Low winter discharge is predicted to increase in all the tributaries. The mean annual discharge remains about the same, with a small increase for the CSIRO-Mk2 and HadCM3 model and a small decrease for the ECHAM4 model. A more detailed description of the different discharge scenarios can be found in Chaumont and Chartier [2005] and Boyer et al. [in press].

### 4.3.2 Base level scenarios

Daily averaged water levels over the period 1996-2005 taken at gauging stations in the Saint-Lawrence River close to the mouths of the tributaries were used as a reference base level scenario, hereafter referred to as RefH. According to Ouranos [2004] and Morin et al. [2005] the anticipated decrease in discharge could lead to a decrease in water level of up to 1 m near Montréal. Water release from Lake Ontario is managed to ensure a balance between economic demands and ecological sustainability [LOSL, 2006; IJC, 2008], but there is no available prediction on how the Saint-Lawrence water level will develop over time. Therefore, we used an arbitrary but plausible scenario of a steady decline of 0.01 m per year ( $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ hereafter) in the water level of the Saint-Lawrence River from 2010-2099. In order to verify if the results of our simulations are sensitive to this steady decline assumption, we have also tested the impact of a step change in water level, with a sudden decrease of 0.50 m occurring in 2040 ( $0.50 \mathrm{~m}-2040$ hereafter). These two scenarios give us the opportunity to compare the magnitude of base level change ( 0.50 m vs. 0.90 m in 2099) and the effect of timing since by 2059 both scenarios have a decrease of 0.50 m .

### 4.3.3 Morphodynamic model

Tributary response to changes in hydrology and base level was simulated using the 1D (width-averaged) morphodynamic model SEDROUT4-M. This is based on the model of Hoey and Ferguson [1994] but with modifications and additions to allow its application to low-gradient divided channels; the changes are described and successfully tested in Verhaar et al. [2008]. The model is forced by time series of daily discharges and downstream water levels. It predicts the mean shear stress at each cross section from the step-backwater solution of the width- and depth-averaged flow continuity and momentum equations, using a calibrated constant value of Manning's $n$, then uses the shear stress to predict the rate of trans-

|  |  | $2010-39$ | $2040-69$ | $2070-99$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Degradation |  | ref | 0.1 | 3.0 | -0.6 |
|  | $95 \%$ | GCM | 0.9 | 2.6 | -8.3 |
|  |  | base-level | 0.5 | 0.5 | -14.8 |
|  |  | ref | 0.1 | 1.3 | -0.9 |
|  |  | GCM | 0.4 | 0.6 | -3.0 |
|  |  | base-level | 0.2 | 0.4 | -7.5 |
| Aggradation | $101 \%$ | ref | -0.1 | -3.4 | -5.1 |
|  |  | GCM | -0.7 | -4.5 | $-9.1^{*}$ |
|  |  | base-level | -0.3 | -3.6 | $13.0^{* *}$ |

Table 4.2: The influence of the upstream boundary condition (95\%, $99 \%$ or $101 \%$ of transport capacity) on the sediment transport volume at the downstream boundary for the Batiscan River. Data are presented in percentage values compared to the upstream boundary condition at $100 \%$ transport capacity for three scenarios: ref (RefQRefH), GCM (HadCM3-RefH), base-level (RefQ-0.01m/yr). Note that the $105 \%$ aggradation scenarios caused crashing of numerical simulations since flow became too shallow and reached a supercritical state. *2098; ${ }^{* *} 2092$ instead of 2099 because the simulation crashed.

|  |  |  |  | 2010-39 | 2040-69 | 2070-99 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Degradation | 95\% | middle | ref | -0.03 | -0.24 | -0.37 |
|  |  |  | GCM | -0.13 | -0.34 | -0.51 |
|  |  |  | base-level | -0.06 | -0.26 | -0.48 |
|  |  | downstream | ref | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.08 |
|  |  |  | GCM | 0.00 | -0.05 | -0.17 |
|  |  |  | base-level | 0.00 | -0.05 | -0.13 |
|  | 99\% | middle | ref | -0.01 | -0.10 | -0.18 |
|  |  |  | GCM | -0.06 | -0.16 | -0.23 |
|  |  |  | base-level | -0.02 | -0.15 | -0.25 |
|  |  | downstream | ref | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.04 |
|  |  |  | GCM | 0.00 | -0.02 | -0.09 |
|  |  |  | base-level | 0.00 | -0.02 | -0.07 |
| Aggradation | 101\% | middle | ref | 0.02 | 0.24 | 0.52 |
|  |  |  | GCM | 0.12 | 0.43 | 0.80* |
|  |  |  | base-level | 0.04 | 0.33 | 0.55** |
|  |  | downstream | ref | 0.00 | -0.01 | 0.09 |
|  |  |  | GCM | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.34* |
|  |  |  | base-level | 0.00 | 0.03 | $0.15{ }^{* *}$ |

Table 4.3: The influence of the upstream boundary condition ( $95 \%, 99 \%$ and $101 \%$ of transport capacity) on the difference in bed elevation (m) compared to the upstream boundary condition at $100 \%$ transport capacity in the Batiscan River at the middle reach $(7.5-10 \mathrm{~km})$ and downstream reach $(0-2.5 \mathrm{~km})$ for three scenarios: ref (RefQ-RefH), GCM (HadCM3-RefH), base-level (RefQ-0.01m/yr). Note that the $105 \%$ aggradation scenarios caused crashing of numerical simulations since flow became too shallow and reached a supercritical state. *2098; **2092 instead of 2099 because the simulation crashed.
port of each of 10-13 half-phi grain size fractions. Bed level and bed grain-size distribution are updated after each time step using overall and fractional conservation of sediment. The time step is variable and needs to satisfy several Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy conditions and is limited to 24 h or 1 h (when tide is present).

1D morphodynamic models are conceptually inferior to 2D or 3D models which can resolve local spatial differences in flow strength, but higher-dimension models based on the St-Venant or Navier-Stokes flow equations are still computationally too expensive for longterm morphological predictions over extended reaches [Kleinhans et al., 2008; El kadi Abderrezzak and Paquier, 2009]. Rule-based 2D cellular models, which are computationally far more efficient, can generate plausible generic behaviour [e.g. Murray and Paola, 1994] and have been used to simulate the long-term (Holocene) behaviour of specific river systems [e.g. Coulthard et al., 1999, 2005], but they have not yet been shown to yield quantitatively accurate predictions of sediment transport and channel change in specific situations. We preferred, therefore, to stay with a 1D model since such models have been shown to make reasonably accurate quantitative predictions in a variety of specific applications [e.g. Cui et al., 1996; Ferguson et al., 2001; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002; Kleinhans et al., 2008; Ferguson and Church, 2009]. SEDROUT4-M does not include a bank-erosion module but in this study area the banks would contribute mainly washload; moreover, it is not yet clear how best to simulate width adjustment over many years as opposed to bank erosion within single flood events.

Initial bed topography was based on measurements at bankfull stage. Cross sections which were not sampled for bed composition were given the same grain size distribution as their closest upstream cross section. For all simulations, the Ackers and White [1973] totalload transport formula with the White and Day [1982] parameter settings was used since it gave the best match to a limited number of Helley-Smith samples [Verhaar et al., 2008] and allows for the transport of the finest bed material in suspension. We also present here an assessment of the morphological performance of the model based on topographic data taken one year after collecting the input data used to set up the model.

It is well recognized that 1D model response is sensitive to what is assumed about bedmaterial input to the reach [Simon and Darby, 1997; Hoey and Ferguson, 1997; Ferguson et al., 2001; Lane and Ferguson, 2005]. In the absence of any change in transport capacity an increase in sediment input leads to aggradation whereas reduced supply results in degra-
dation. In rivers with a long history of discharge and bed-material transport measurement one possibility is to use an empirical sediment rating curve [e.g. Gomez et al., 2009] but that was not an option in our study area. The bed-material input to each reach was therefore assumed to be at capacity at all times. This is consistent with the view that the immediate controls of this flux (unlike the washload flux, which is supply-limited) are flow strength and bed surface grain size distribution [Wilcock, 2001]. The sediment supply from upstream is relevant only indirectly via its effect on surface size distribution: reduced supply induces surface coarsening which reduces transport rates, and increased supply does the opposite, as demonstrated experimentally or numerically by Dietrich et al. [1989], Hoey and Ferguson [1997], and Madej et al. [2009] amongst others. A consequence of our assumption of supply at capacity is that there is no change in bed elevation or composition at the head of the reach, but the gradient is free to alter. The input of sediment to the reach will therefore respond to aggradation or degradation within the reach as well as to changes in hydrological regime; this would not be the case if an empirical rating curve was used.

|  |  | $2010-39$ | $2040-69$ | $2070-99$ |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | ref | 0.00 | 0.03 | 0.04 |
| $95 \%$ | GCM | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.03 |
|  | base-level | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 |
|  | ref | 0.00 | -0.04 | -0.07 |
| $105 \%$ | GCM | -0.02 | -0.06 | -0.04 |
|  | base-level | -0.01 | -0.04 | -0.03 |

Table 4.4: The influence of the upstream boundary grainsize distribution (GSD) ( $95 \%$ or $105 \%$ of measured $D_{50}$ ) on the sediment transport volume at the downstream boundary for the Batiscan River. Data are presented in percentage values compared to upstream boundary with measured GSD for three scenarios: ref (RefQ-RefH), GCM (HadCM3-RefH), base-level (RefQ-0.01m/yr)).

To test the sensitivity of our results to the choice of upstream boundary condition we tried setting supply to slightly more or less than capacity, thus inducing aggradation or degradation respectively (Tables 4.2 and 4.3), and making the bed at the head of the reach slightly coarser or finer as might happen in the event of changes in supply from further upstream (Table 4.4). Table 4.2 indicates that induced aggradation or degradation at the head of the reach has little effect on sediment output from the reach during the first two horizons, but rather more during the third horizon particularly when combined with a base-level decrease. The impact on bed elevation is similarly larger in the third horizon but it is markedly smaller downstream than in the middle reach (Table 4.3). Table 4.4 shows that changing the upstream GSD has hardly any impact on the sediment output from the reach. The effect on bed elevation is also very minor $(<0.025 \mathrm{~m})$.

### 4.4 Results

### 4.4.1 Validation using topographic comparison

Validation of our simulations based on measured changes in topography over approximately one year proved unsuccessful for the Saint-Maurice River. This river exhibits complex planform geometry with two large islands near its mouth, resulting in two bifurcations over a short distance ( 1650 m ). Our measured discharge splits for these bifurcations were $65-34 \%$ and $69-31 \%$, respectively, whereas the simulated splits were $76-24 \%$ and $88-12 \%$. Several unfruitful attempts were made to modify cross sections in the downstream reach of the branch that receives the smaller discharge; the geometry of two consecutive islands appears too complex to be simplified for application within a 1D model. Thus, results are presented in this paper for only the other three tributaries.

Validation using bed topography changes for these rivers were based on two topographic surveys: on 11 May 2004 and 22 June 2006 for the Batiscan River, on 3-4 May 2005 and 15 June 2006 for the Richelieu River, and on 26-27 April 2005 and 13 June 2006 for the Saint-François River. A comparison of measured and simulated topography was carried out using the average bed level of the main channel over the nearest cross sections. The repeat surveys were always within 10 m of the original sections, i.e. less than $5 \%$ of channel width. For the Batiscan and Richelieu rivers, the average differences between measured and simulated bed elevation changes were 0.09 m and 0.13 m , respectively. These values are small and, considering the difficulties in comparing single cross-sectional changes in bed elevation between different years in a 1D model, they are considered in good agreement.

However, the Saint-François River showed much more variability when comparing cross sections at different times, with an average difference of 0.34 m between measured and simulated bed elevation changes. Because of the difficulties of individual cross-sectional comparisons, we have also looked at the overall trend of changes by subtracting DEMs of measured and simulated elevation data from 2005 and 2006. Both the simulated and measured DEMs indicate that the reach is undergoing degradation. However, the amplitude of changes in the measurements is markedly higher than in the simulation. Differences between measured and simulated velocities in the Saint-François River were also greater than for the other two tributaries, particularly at low flow [Verhaar et al., 2008]. This comparison is further complicated by the fact that in the simulations, bed change is equally spread over the submerged part of
the cross section, whereas the measured cross sections showed changes in the lateral direction and cross-sectional shape, particularly in the downstream reach which has a large meander loop. Considering the challenges in modelling a complex planform adequately with a 1 D model and the good agreement for simulated and measured water levels in this tributary, we believe that these simulations are valid, but that caution is required in interpreting results.

### 4.4.2 Simulations

The effects of alternative hydrological regime and base level scenarios are examined by averaging the model outputs from each 30-year horizon in each scenario and comparing these averages with those for the same horizon using present-day discharge and base level (RefQRefH). The results are interpreted visually and the statistical significance of the difference between each scenario and the RefQ-RefH baseline is assessed relative to the year-to-year variability within each simulation. In most cases the annual bed material transport and the relative bed elevation changes were not normally distributed, so non-parametric tests were used (Kruskal-Wallis and Wilcoxon). Not all the simulations of the Saint-François River cover the full time period of interest because of sedimentation in one of the branches along the island. All simulations with the RefH scenario, as well as the CSIRO-Mk2 and ECHAM4 discharge scenarios in combination with the $0.50 \mathrm{~m}-2040$ base level scenario, completed the full simulation (until 2100).

### 4.4.2.1 Annual bed material transport

The simulated annual flux of bed material entering and leaving each reach is presented in Figures 4.3 and 4.4. The trends for the A2 and B2 GHG-scenarios are very similar in all cases, and differences between these two GHG-scenarios are never statistically different at the 5\% significance level. Therefore, Figures 4.3 and 4.4 only present results from the A2 scenario, which is closest to the current GHG-emission rates and which has been used in recent studies on climate change and rivers [Lane et al., 2007, 2008]. Filled symbols in Figures 4.3 and 4.4 are used to indicate values that are significantly different from the RefQ-RefH scenario.

A comparison between incoming and delivery transport rates (Figures 4.3 and 4.4) indicates that the tributaries are in different states, either aggrading, degrading or in equilibrium. Figure 4.5 presents the bed material transport at the up- and downstream boundaries for the reference scenario (RefQ-RefH). Despite the same discharge being applied in each


Figure 4.3: Annual bed material transport ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{year}$ ) at the upstream boundary for all the rivers by climate model scenario for the A2 GHG-scenario: a), b), c): Batiscan River; d), e), f): Richelieu River; and g), h), i): Saint-François River. Black lines represent the annual bed material transport of the RefQ scenarios. Filled symbols indicate significant differences compared to the RefQ-RefH scenario at a 5\% significance level. Error bars are not presented in this figure to improve readability.


Figure 4.4: Annual bed material transport ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{year}$ ) at the downstream boundary for all the rivers by climate model scenario for the A2 GHG-scenario: a), b), c): Batiscan River; d), e), f): Richelieu River; and g), h), i): Saint-François River. Black lines represent the annual bed material transport of the RefQ scenarios. Filled symbols indicate significant differences compared to the RefQ-RefH scenario at a 5\% significance level. Error bars are not presented in this figure to improve readability.
horizon the upstream boundary transport can be different for each horizon due to morphological changes in the downstream reach that change the transport capacity. The Richelieu River is in a near equilibrium state under the current discharge and base level (Figure 4.5). The Batiscan River is slightly aggrading under the RefQ-RefH scenario, although differences between upstream and downstream boundaries are only statistically significant for the first horizon, and the trend is towards equilibrium towards the 2070-2099 horizon (Figure 4.5). For the Saint-François River, the bed material transport at the upstream boundary is markedly smaller than at the downstream end (Figure 4.5), though it increases over time so that again there is a trend towards equilibrium. One possible reason for this simulated degradation is that grain size composition at the upstream boundary of the Saint-François River is very coarse compared to the rest of the reach ( $D_{50} \approx 8 \mathrm{~mm}$ compared to $D_{50} \approx 0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$, Table 4.1). The difference in grain size is not as pronounced in the other two tributaries (Table 4.1). Velocities and bed shear stress in the upper reaches are thus not sufficient to transport the active layer coarse material, but they can move the finer sand further downstream, resulting in degradation in this river. Furthermore, this river might be still adapting to a decrease in base level as a consequence of dredging a navigation channel in Lake Saint-Pierre, as observed by its delta propagating into the lake [Bondue et al., 2006]. For the Richelieu this effect is minor as the downstream part is dredged regularly to maintain navigation depths. This could cause increased erosion in the more upstream part, which leads to aggradation in the dredged zone and is therefore not visible in 4.5 , where only sediment transport at the model boundaries is presented.

The effect of climate-induced discharge change (continuous coloured lines in Figures 4.3 and 4.4) varies for each river and for each climate model. The HadCM3 model predicts the largest changes in bed material transport for all the rivers. For the Batiscan and Richelieu rivers, the effect is more pronounced in the 2070-2099 horizon. For the Saint-François River, however, the change in annual bed material transport is much smaller. The CSIROMk2 climatic model predicts smaller increases than the HadCM3 model. In most cases the trends follows that of HadCM3, except for the Batiscan River where sediment transport at the downstream boundary decreases in the third horizon (Figure 4.4b). The ECHAM4 model (Figure 4.4c) in general predicts less sediment transport compared to the other two models (Figures $4.3 \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{i}$, and $4.4 \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{i}$ ) and in most cases a decrease compared with RefQ.

For all models, there appears to be a relationship between the equilibrium state of the
river and the impact of climate-induced discharge changes. In the Richelieu River (nearequilibrium state), climate changes result in increased sediment delivery at its mouth (Figure $4.4 \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{f})$. In the slightly aggrading Batiscan River, there is an increase in sediment delivery for the HadCM3 model, a small increase for the CSIRO-Mk2 model, and virtually no change for the ECHAM4 model (Figure 4.4a,b,c). For the Saint-François River, which is degradational, there is an overall decrease in sediment output with time, and the CSIRO-Mk2 and ECHAM4 models show smaller delivery rates than the RefQ scenario (Figure 4.4h,i). The HadCM3 model indicates increases for each horizon, but these are not statistically significant (Figure 4.4g). Simulated changes in input over time (Figure 4.3) also reflect the state of the reach, as can be seen most clearly for the RefQ-RefH scenario: in the near-equilibrium Richelieu River the input is almost stationary, but in the aggrading Batiscan River there is a slight decrease in input as the proximal gradient reduces and in the degrading Saint-François River the input increases as the proximal slope increases. These time trends in input are the opposite of the time trends in output, showing again how within-reach adjustment tends to restore equilibrium.

As would be expected the effect of a base level decrease (dashed lines in Figures 4.3 and 4.4) is to systematically increase the annual bed material transport compared to the RefH scenario, with an increasing impact over time as the magnitude of the base level fall increases. The RefQ simulations show that the


Figure 4.5: Annual bed material transport per horizon at the upstream and downstream boundary for the RefQ-RefH scenario for the three tributaries. Error bars represent $+/$ - one standard error of the variance between years within each horizon. effect of falling base
level reaches the inlet by the second horizon in two of the three rivers (Batiscan and Richelieu rivers).

### 4.4.2.2 Bed elevation

The effects of discharge and base level changes on bed elevation are compared relative to the RefQ-RefH scenario. Negative values mean lower bed elevation, which could result from either less sedimentation or more erosion. Because data are neither normally distributed nor independent, the Wilcoxon rank test is used to examine differences between GCMs and RefQ scenarios at the end of the simulation period. The lowest points for cross sections over 2.5 km reaches are grouped together to create data sets of multiple values, resulting in 8 to 26 cross sections per reach as the spacing between cross sections is less near the mouth.

Contrary to the bed material transport rates, the bed elevations predicted by the GHGscenarios are statistically different. The bed elevation for the A2 scenario is consistently lower than the B2 scenario averaged over the whole reach, by about 0.05 m in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers and 0.20 m in the Richelieu River.

Bed elevation is examined first in 2059 to assess the impact of the two base level scenarios since in both cases the total fall by that date is 0.50 m . The mean differences in bed elevation between the $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ and $0.50 \mathrm{~m}-2040$ base level scenarios are generally small (Figure 4.6), with average values of $0.010,0.007$ and 0.022 m for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers, respectively. These small values are nevertheless statistically significant in about half the cases. In the Batiscan River, the gradual base level fall produces more erosion in all cases compared to the step fall, whereas in the other two tributaries, the patterns are variable, with only a few cases where the step fall produced significantly more erosion, particularly in the downstream reach of the Saint-François River.

Figures 4.7 and 4.8 show how the mean bed elevation of one sub-reach located at the mouth ( $0-2.5 \mathrm{~km}$, Figure 4.7) and one in the middle section ( $7.5-10 \mathrm{~km}$, Figure 4.8 ) varies over time. The plotted values are differences from the RefQ-RefH scenario in order to eliminate the time trend due to present-day aggradation or degradation. In general the GCMs and base level scenarios result in lower bed elevations than the RefQ-RefH scenario, with the exception of the ECHAM4 model in the Richelieu and Saint-François rivers (Figure 4.7f,i). The future GCM discharge scenarios reduce the aggradation (RefQ) and lead to some erosion $(\approx 0.15 \mathrm{~m})$ in the downstream part of the Batiscan River (2010-2099). The equilibrium state
of the Richelieu River becomes degradational $(\approx 0.30 \mathrm{~m})$ under future climate scenarios. The degradation in Saint-François River is amplified by the HadCM3 scenario, remains similar for the CSIRO-Mk2 scenario and is reduced by the ECHAM4 scenario, with an average degradation for all GCMs of about $1.0-1.5 \mathrm{~m}$ over 2010-2099.

Not surprisingly, base level decrease leads to increased degradation for all discharge scenarios for the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers near the mouth, particularly in the last horizon (Figure 4.7). For the Richelieu River, base level decrease does not have a major impact for the RefQ scenario, possibly because bed levels have already been altered by dredging, but it does when combined with climate-induced discharge change. A substantial response to base level fall is also predicted in the Saint-François River, but only for the HadCM3 model near the mouth (Figure 4.7h). In the nearequilibrium Richelieu River, the impact of discharge changes is much greater than that of base level fall, particularly near the mouth (Figure 4.7d,e,f).


Figure 4.6: Difference in bed elevation between the $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ and $0.50 \mathrm{~m}-2040$ base level scenarios by the end of 2059. Negative values indicate lower bed elevation in the $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ scenario. The error bars show +/- one standard error. a): Batiscan River; b): Richelieu River; c): Saint-François River.

There is some variation in the distance over which a significant effect of a decrease in the base level only (i.e. for the RefQ scenario) occurs. For the Batiscan River, statistically significant differences are predicted for most of the studied reach, but these changes are only substantial ( $>0.25 \mathrm{~m}$ ) up to $5-7.5 \mathrm{~km}$ from the mouth. Bed erosion is 0.17 m in the middle section ( $7.5-10 \mathrm{~km}$, Figure $4.8 \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ ), and is less than 0.1 m in upstream reaches. For the










$$
\text { ——RefQ —— HadCM3 A2 ——CsIRO A2 —— ECHAM4 A2 ——RefH - 日- } 0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}
$$

Figure 4.7: Difference in bed elevation averaged near the mouth ( $0.0-2.5 \mathrm{~km}$ interval) between the climate model scenarios and the RefQ-RefH scenario, where negative value indicate lower bed elevations: a), b), c): Batiscan River; e), d), f): Richelieu River; and g), h), i): Saint-François River. Filled symbols indicate significant difference compared to the RefQ-RefH scenario at a 5\% significance level. Error bars are not presented in this figure to improve readability.


Figure 4.8: Difference in bed elevation averaged over a $7.5-10.0 \mathrm{~km}$ interval from the river mouth between the climate model scenarios and the RefQ-RefH scenario, where negative value indicate lower bed elevations: a), b), c): Batiscan River; e), d), f): Richelieu River; and g), h), i): Saint-François River. Filled symbols indicate significant difference compared to the RefQ-RefH scenario at a 5\% significance level. Error bars are not presented in this figure to improve readability.

Richelieu River, the impact of a base level fall is much smaller, and does not follow a consistent trend. As already noted the dredged reach close to the mouth is not affected by a base level fall (Figure $4.7 \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{f}$ ), but reaches up to distances of $10-12.5 \mathrm{~km}$ are significantly different from the RefH scenario (changes $\approx 0.13 \mathrm{~m}$ ). In the Saint-François River, considerable erosion due to base level drop is simulated in the downstream $5 \mathrm{~km}(>0.15 \mathrm{~m})$, and significant differences in bed elevation are found up to $10-12.5 \mathrm{~km}$ from the mouth ( $\approx 0.10 \mathrm{~m}$ ).

Although there are


Figure 4.9: Time series showing annual bed elevation variation with discharge for two cross sections, one at the mouth (red) and one in the middle reach ( 9.4 km upstream from the mouth, in blue) in the Batiscan River for the CSIROMk2 discharge scenario. Continuous lines represent the RefH water level scenario and dashed lines represent the $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ base-level drop scenario. systematic changes in response from one horizon to the next, annual variability can be high within each horizon. Figure 4.9 presents an example of this variability for the Batiscan River, using the CSIRO-Mk2 simulation for a mid-reach and downstream cross section. The impact of a base-level decrease is particularly clear from mid-century for the downstream cross-section where, for a flood of similar magnitude, bed erosion is markedly increased. Only after a relatively long period lacking high magnitude floods are bed levels reaching comparable levels (e.g. around 2070 in Figure 4.9).

The impact on bed elevation of climate variations and base level change varies between reaches, as illustrated by a few examples for the Batiscan River in Figure 4.10. The reach between 10 and 12.5 km is deeper than average, which is why aggradation is greater in this reach than elsewhere. This aggradation in these upstream reaches is slightly reduced by GCM or base-level fall (Figure 4.10b,c). The base-level fall will reduce the aggradation in the downstream reach $(2.5-0.0 \mathrm{~km})$ and change into degradation around the year 2050. The
bed elevation fluctuates more in the GCM and base-level scenarios than in the RefQ-RefH. Evidently the effect of base-level is more apparent towards 2099, whereas discharge change affects the bed elevation of downstream reaches from the first horizon onwards.

### 4.5 Discussion

The 1D morphodynamic model predicts that climateinduced changes in discharge and base level will have significant impacts on bed material transport and bed elevation in three tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River through the $21^{s t}$ century. Ideally, past climate change should be used to validate such a model [e.g. Coulthard et al., 2005]. Unfortunately, no historical dataset on sediment accumulation or erosion is available for the studied tributaries. Indeed, there is a surprising lack of both past and modern data on the Saint-Lawrence tributaries, which is why a major field


Figure 4.10: Time series showing annual bed aggradation ( $>0 \mathrm{~m}$ ) and degradation $(<0 \mathrm{~m})$ for the 7 reaches in the Batiscan River for a) the reference scenario (RefQ-RefH); b) CSIRO-Mk2 and RefH; c) RefQ-0.01m/y. data collection effort was required for this project.

Simulations with either climate change or base level held constant show that both types of forcing have an effect on sediment fluxes and channel stability. The general pattern is
for degradation to occur. However, the quantitative results are sensitive to the choice of GCM, which is not so surprising considering that the climate models used to generate discharge scenarios in this study were selected based on their marked differences. The choice of GHG-scenarios (A2 or B2) is much less important. It has even less effect on sediment delivery than it has on bed elevation. This may be due to the fact that values of bed elevation were compared only at the end of the simulation, using a spatial average over 2.5 km reaches, whereas sediment transport rates were compared over a 30 -year period, at a fixed location. The marked differences between GCMs highlight that conclusions of climate-change studies drawn from only one GCM should be examined with care, as was also noted by Prudhomme et al. [2003] who reported that flood magnitude and frequency varied by a factor of nine between different GCMs used in Northern England and Scotland. The low sensitivity of our results to an assumed constant decrease in base level when compared to a step fall also highlights that the choice of a GCM is the key controlling factor in determining future morphological adjustments of rivers.

Climate change impacts on rivers are often seen as impacts on flood risk [Longfield and Macklin, 1999] and their importance for sediment delivery is often overlooked, as pointed out by Lane et al. [2007, 2008]. However, the risk of flooding will not be the same if the river is undergoing aggradation or degradation, as flow stage will vary for a given discharge. Aggradation will exacerbate flood risk [Lane et al., 2008], whereas degradation may decrease flood risk but increase bank erosion potential. Running the morphodynamic model using a reference discharge scenario from 2010 to 2099 predicted that the Batiscan River was undergoing slight aggradation, the Richelieu River was in a near-equilibrium state, whereas degradation was the trend for the Saint-François River. The sediment delivery trend for the latter was opposite that in the other two tributaries, with sediment delivery decreasing with time (Figure 4.4). Thus, there are important differences in the impacts of discharge and base level decrease between the three tributaries despite them all being located in the same geomorphic zone (Saint-Lawrence Lowlands) and having very similar characteristics in terms of grain size and slope. High levels of inter-catchment and inter-reach variability have also been observed by Coulthard et al. [2005], despite simplified initial conditions. This research is one of the few long-term simulation studies that use real river representations rather than idealized channels to look at the impact of disturbances [e.g. Simon and Darby, 1997; Doyle and Harbor, 2003]. Our results suggest that complex river topography affects adjustment to
climate and base level disturbances. Furthermore, aggradation and degradation trends need to be examined carefully when attempting to predict near-future impacts of climate change, and caution is needed when generalizing results obtained from simulations of a single river.

Studying the impacts of climate change on rivers involves dealing with the uncertainty in temperature and precipitation prediction, as well as in the hydrological model to convert these changes into discharge [Prudhomme et al., 2003; Graham et al., 2007]. Furthermore, the delta method used here suffers from limitations with regards to flood recurrence intervals [Graham et al., 2007; Quilbé et al., 2008] which are dependent upon the reference period and so may be biased. For example, if a flood with a 100-year return period occurred during a 30 -year reference period it will occur in each predicted horizon, i.e. 3 times in the next 90 years. Thus, modelling near-future discharge and base level changes gives rise to results with very high uncertainty [Andersson et al., 2006; Fowler et al., 2007; Quilbé et al., 2008; Thodsen et al., 2008]. The difficulty of specifying any other upstream boundary condition than sediment supply equal to transport capacity in near-future simulations adds to this uncertainty [Gomez et al., 2009], though our sensitivity tests did not produce radically different results under alternative assumptions. In most cases, these should therefore not be interpreted as absolute quantities, but rather as indicators of trends. However, by comparing differences between scenarios, part of this uncertainty vanishes as the same systematic error affects all of the compared simulations. In other words, comparing scenarios may not provide accurate values, but it gives a good indication of the direction and relative magnitude of change.

The changes in bed material transport in the Richelieu and Saint-François rivers are important for Lake Saint-Pierre. The volume of bed material exiting the Richelieu River will change most in the 2070-2099 horizon (Figure 4.4d,e,f), with values three times the volume from the 2010-2039 horizon RefQ on average, resulting in an increase in the lake's sediment input. On the other hand, the Saint-François River, also draining into Lake Saint-Pierre, will see its sediment delivery decrease by the end of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century (on average, 0.59 times the RefQ scenario in the first horizon). Nevertheless, since the volume of transport is much larger in the Richelieu River, there is a potential risk of reduced depth through increased sedimentation in Lake Saint-Pierre in the future. The increase in bed material transport from the Richelieu River also has potential economic consequences as it enters the Saint-Lawrence River close to the navigation channel.

The topography of the tributaries seems to be highly influenced by the base level change,
particularly in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers. As these tributaries have very low energy slopes (Table 4.1), backwater effects persist far upstream, with significant bed elevation changes for distances up to 10 km .

The failed Saint-Maurice River simulation highlighted the limits of our 1D model when islands are present. Clearly in this case a two-dimensional modelling approach is required. The Saint-François island configuration was simpler, but the simulation of several scenarios in combination with base level decrease could nevertheless not be completed for the whole period of interest due to sedimentation in the eastern channel along the island (simulations were stopped as early as 2053). As stated by Wang et al. [1995], the stability of bifurcations in one-dimensional modelling depends on the sediment transport condition at the bifurcation. Here, we used a sediment transport ratio identical to the discharge ratio. This ratio may actually vary with discharge and depends on the topography at the bifurcation. Miori et al. [2006] showed that, in gravel-bed rivers, the branch which receives most of the discharge is generally the most active in terms of sediment transport and the branch with less base discharge is morphologically less active.

### 4.6 Conclusion

Morphological simulations for the $21^{s t}$ century of three tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River based on three GCMs involving changes in both discharge in the tributaries and in the water level of the Saint-Lawrence River (21 scenarios) predicted an overall increase in volumes of bed material that will reach the Saint-Lawrence River and Lake Saint-Pierre, as well as an effect on the longitudinal profile up to 10 km from the confluence with the SaintLawrence River.

The GHG-scenarios (A2 or B2) had a much smaller impact on the simulated results than the choice of a climatic model (CSIRO-Mk2, ECHAM4 or HadCM3). The HadCM3 model, which predicts the largest changes in precipitation and moderate change in temperature, produced the largest changes, followed by the CSIRO-Mk2 and ECHAM4 models. This indicates that conclusions drawn from only one climatic model need to be interpreted with caution. By analogy, it would be desirable in future work to determine the sensitivity of the morphodynamic predictions to the choice of hydrological model (here, HSAMI) and the choice of transfer method (here, the delta method) to convert predicted changes in tempera-
ture and precipitation into daily discharge.
Alternative base level fall scenarios (an abrupt change versus a progressive fall) indicated that the magnitude of the change is more important than the type of fall. By 2059, both scenarios reached a decrease of 0.50 m , and the difference in simulated bed elevation was on average less than 22 mm for the three tributaries. Note that in applications of this model to other rivers, the base level would be likely to increase due to anticipated sea level rise. This would likely counterbalance the overall increase in bed material transport simulated with the discharge scenarios and lead to sedimentation in the downstream reaches. However, the response of each tributary varied in this study, which highlights the difficulty of generalizing trends in rivers under various climate scenarios and base level change. Sediment delivery from the Saint-François River, which is undergoing degradation, is predicted to decrease over time for all climate models, which is contrary to the trend in the other two tributaries.

Only mean annual bed material transport volumes were examined in this study. As the climate change impacts on discharge affect extreme flows, but not the mean annual flow, a more detailed analysis of bed material transport at the event scale would provide a better insight on the role of extreme events associated with climate change on bed material delivery.

## Paragraphe de liason C

The previous chapter (4) showed that sediment transport rates are in general more sensitive to discharge changes than to a base level change. Furthermore, it revealed that the choice of GCM is more important than the GHG scenario or the effect of base level fall. Although the changes in mean daily discharge and mean annual maximum remain close to current values in the GCM scenarios, transport rates change drastically through time. Results in chapter 4 were bulked per horizon to describe general trends. This, however, does not allow a complete understanding of what generates an increase in sediment transport, i.e. does it come from a larger number of relatively frequent events, or from only a few very large storms? Because of the large variability between successive years it was felt that the analysis should focus on a smaller time scale. As the timing of floods as well as the number of floods varies from one scenario to another, a one-on-one comparison is impossible. To investigate what causes this strong non-linear response in sediment transport rates to changes in discharge, chapter 5 examines simulation results of individual sediment transport events and relates them to their associated hydraulic parameters of maximum discharge, duration and recurrence interval. This allows for an assessment of the impact of more extreme events on rivers. The use of the Pearson Type-III distribution is common in the literature and as we are applying this to simulated discharges for relatively short time periods ( 30 years), it is believed that this method is a relatively accurate tool for our data. It is also possible that the type of distribution would differ between scenarios, thus the use of a widely known and accepted method was deemed best. Furthermore, the recurrence intervals are used as an indication of flood magnitude, not to determine flood risks, for example. The use of recurrence interval is therefore considered a tool that allows us to compare results between the different tributaries.

## CHAPTER 5

# IMPLICATIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGE FOR THE MAGNITUDE AND FREQUENCY OF BED-MATERIAL TRANSPORT IN TRIBUTARIES OF THE SAINT-LAWRENCE ${ }^{3}$ 

### 5.1 Introduction

It is expected that climate change in the $21^{s t}$ century will increase the magnitude and frequency of floods as a result of an increase in rare meteorological events [Middelkoop et al., 2001; Reynard et al., 2001; Robson, 2002; Milly et al., 2002; Prudhomme et al., 2002; Lane et al., 2007, 2008]. Predicting extremes in a changing climate remains a challenge, particularly in terms of local flooding events [Hunt, 2002; Kundzewicz et al., 2005; Kay et al., 2006], but irrespective of the precise nature of hydrological change it seems inevitable that it will have consequences for the transport of sediment by rivers. However, the role of climate-induced changes in frequency, duration and seasonality of floods can only be assessed by an event-scale breakdown of the annual average sediment fluxes.

One widely-used approach to understanding how the trade-off between flood magnitude and frequency affects sediment transport is to use the flow duration curve and a transport rating curve to determine the transport magnitude-frequency curve. Wolman and Miller [1960] proposed that the effective discharge (that transports the greatest portion of the annual sediment load) is comparable with the bankfull discharge (with a recurrence interval of about 2 years) and mean annual flood [Wolman and Miller, 1960; Pickup and Warner, 1976; Andrews, 1980; Carling, 1988; Nash, 1994; Emmett and Wolman, 2001; Barry et al., 2008]. However, the frequency of effective discharge is known to vary greatly [Pickup and Warner, 1976; Ashmore and Day, 1988; Nash, 1994; Torizzo and Pitlick, 2004]. Furthermore, for a given mean discharge and sediment rating curve, the effective discharge has been shown to be higher when the variability in discharge is greater [Nash, 1994; Vogel et al., 2003]. Long-term sediment yield may be dominated by rarer catastrophic events, particularly in steep gravel-bed rivers [Kirchner et al., 2001; Lenzi et al., 2006], although there is yet no clear consensus on

[^3]this issue. An alternative approach such as the half-load discharge (value above and below which half the long-term sediment load is transported) was also presented by Wolman and Miller [1960], although most of the subsequent literature has only used their effective discharge method. Vogel et al. [2003] revived this second approach which they consider more meaningful to determine which discharges are responsible for carrying most of the long-term load. However, very little work has been done on the impacts of the expected increase in high-magnitude floods due to climate change on sediment loads in rivers, particularly with respect to bedload transport [but see Coulthard et al., 2005, 2008; Kundzewicz et al., 2007; Gomez et al., 2009].

We have examined elsewhere the likely impacts of climate change on mean annual sediment transport rates and aggradation/degradation in the lowermost parts of three tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River [Verhaar et al., in press]. A one-dimensional (1D) morphological model using simulated discharges from three Global Climate Models (GCMs) predicted an increase in sediment transport in these sand-bed rivers, and hence an increase in the sediment delivery to the Saint-Lawrence River, with the largest changes occurring during the winter and spring seasons [Boyer et al., 2009, in press; Verhaar et al., in press]. The objective of this study is to examine climate-change induced changes in the magnitude-frequency-duration relation for bed-material load in these rivers.

### 5.2 Methodology

### 5.2.1 Study area

The three tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River (Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers) are located between Montréal and Québec City, Eastern Canada. They have large catchment areas ( $>10000 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ ), low distal gradients $\left(<1 \times 10^{-4}\right)$ and predominantly sandy beds. Each river is exploited for hydroelectricity or influenced by dams used for flood control, water intake or recreational activities but the impact of these structures on the natural regime of the river is low for the Batiscan and Richelieu rivers and only moderate for the SaintFrançois River [Boyer et al., in press]. Our simulations indicate that the Batiscan River is currently aggrading, the Saint-François River degrading, and the Richelieu River almost in equilibrium [Verhaar et al., in press].

Detailed cross-sectional profiles of topography were taken with an echo sounder from a
boat at several cross sections (between 80 and 100) from their confluence with the SaintLawrence River to $15-17 \mathrm{~km}$ upstream in 2004 and 2005. Bed composition was obtained from samples also collected from a boat using a grab bucket. A detailed description of the field data collection, river characteristics and model validation can be found in Verhaar et al. [2008, in press].

### 5.2.2 Climate scenarios

Three GCMs (CSIRO-Mk2, ECHAM4 and HadCM3) and two greenhouse gas (GHG) emission scenarios [A2 and B2, Nakicenovic et al., 2000; Raupach et al., 2007] were used by the Ouranos research centre, a consortium on regional climatology and adaptation to climate change (www.ouranos.ca), to produce discharge scenarios for the three tributaries [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Boyer et al., in press]. Current GHG-emissions exceed both the A2 and B2 scenarios, but A2 is closest to the actual emissions [Raupach et al., 2007] and only these results will be presented here. The GCMs were selected based on their differences in predictions of precipitation and temperature to represent a wide range of outputs when compared to a multimodel dataset [Meehl et al., 2007]. The standard perturbation (or delta) method was used to add predicted changes in precipitation, temperature and evapotranspiration to an observational database which is used as input to a hydrological model to represent future climate [Arnell, 1998; Rosberg and Andréasson, 2006; Graham et al., 2007; Rydgren et al., 2007]. The use of the Canadian Regional Climate Model [CRCM, Caya and Laprise, 1999] was not considered optimal in this case as preliminary analyses by Ouranos showed that, in southern Québec where the topography is relatively smooth and the climate is not influenced by maritime conditions, using delta values for regional models at a 45 km resolution added little information compared to delta values derived from GCMs at a 250 km resolution [Boyer et al., in press].

The hydrological model HSAMI [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Minville et al., 2008; Boyer et al., in press], which is a lumped rain and snowfall runoff model used by HydroQuébec (Québec's national hydro-electricity company), was used by Ouranos to produce six time series (three GCMs combined with two GHG-scenarios) of daily discharge values. The delta values (precipitation and temperature) were added to the reference period (19611990) for three different time periods or 'horizons' (2010-2039, 2040-2069 and 2070-2099). The model was calibrated and validated on measured discharge data over the 1961-1990
time period [Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Boyer et al., in press]. These simulated daily discharges are used as a reference discharge scenario for the morphological modelling by repeatedly using it for the periods 2010-2039, 2040-2069 and 2070-2099, referred to as RefQ hereafter. More details on the simulation scenarios can be found in Boyer et al. [in press] and Verhaar et al. [in press].

### 5.2.3 Morphodynamic model

In this study, only sand transport in the lower reaches of the tributaries is considered, not washload supplied from the entire catchments. We have used a morphodynamic model to take into account the possible gain or loss of sediments from the channel bed as well as the throughput from upstream. In the context of climate change simulations for the 21st century, it was felt that running long-term simulations with a daily time-step over long reaches could only be achieved through a 1D morphodynamic model [Gomez et al., 2009].

The 1D uncoupled morphodynamic model SEDROUT4-M [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Verhaar et al., 2008] was selected for the simulation of the effects of climate-induced discharge on sediment transport. This model has proven to be capable of simulating morphological changes over various temporal and spatial scales [Talbot and Lapointe, 2002; Ferguson and Church, 2009]. Initial bed topography and bed composition are based on our measurements, with bed composition averaged over the cross section. The upstream limits of our reaches were chosen at locations where long-term stability of bed level could be assumed and bed-material input equated with transport capacity at all times. This, however, does not mean that sediment supply is constant as it will respond to hydrological changes as well as to any change in proximal slope following aggradation or degradation within the reach.

For each tributary the morphological changes for the period between our measurements (2004-2005) and the start of near future time series of discharge (2010) were predicted using observed discharges in the period from 2000 to 2005 and averaged water levels in the SaintLawrence River as measured over 1996-2005 at gauging stations close to the river mouths. The results of bed topography and bed composition from these simulations were then used as initial conditions for the near-future simulations over the period 2010-2099. Climate changes are expected to result in a decrease in the Saint-Lawrence River level due to increased evaporation in the Great Lakes following temperature increases [Croley, 2003; Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Morin et al., 2005]. A steady decline in base level of 0.01 m per year was
also used in some simulations [Verhaar et al., in press]. Here, we focus on the current dailyaveraged Saint-Lawrence water levels, although some simulation results based on a steady base level fall are also discussed later.

Sediment transport rates were simulated with the Ackers and White [1973] total load sediment transport formula and the parameter settings from White and Day [1982]. All particles smaller than $0.125 \mathrm{~mm}(3 \phi)$ are assumed to be transported as wash load and are therefore not considered relevant to morphological simulations of the tributary reaches. For various hydraulic conditions SEDROUT4-M was found to accurately simulate water level and mean cross-sectional velocities [Verhaar et al., 2008]. The morphological performance of the model was also verified by comparing simulated changes in bed topography over a period of one year with observed changes [Verhaar et al., in press].

### 5.2.4 Event analysis

Differences in mean annual bed-material transport strongly depend on discharge scenarios resulting from different GCMs [Verhaar et al., in press]. However, to examine how more extreme events associated with climate change affect bed-material transport, in this study we compare scenarios for different tributaries at the sediment transport event scale instead of the annual scale. Unlike in gravel-bed rivers where sediment transport drops to zero between events, sand-bed rivers are often characterized by very long tails in sediment transport curves [Ferguson et al., 2003; Li et al., 2008]. To analyze data at the event scale, bed-material transport events were defined here as successive days of transport over $10 \mathrm{~m}^{3} /$ day (approximately $1 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ ) with a single peak over $50 \mathrm{~m}^{3} /$ day. These values were determined after examining several sediment transport events associated with several multiple peak floods. Events were separated where the minimum transport between two peaks occurred. For each sediment transport event the maximum discharge, duration and transported volume are calculated.

Discharges are expressed in recurrence intervals to facilitate comparison between the different tributaries and between the climate scenarios. They were calculated by fitting a Pearson-type III distribution approach from the annual maximum discharge time series. For each tributary, the present-day recurrence intervals were computed from the 1932-2004 record (HYDAT, Environment Canada), whereas the future recurrence intervals were obtained from the 2010-2099 series for each GCM scenario. Note that the perturbation method used in this study, which has the advantage of being stable and robust [Graham et al., 2007],
replicates the inter-annual variability of climate variables of the reference period and can thus not introduce new types of variability which may occur under future climate [Boyer et al., in press]. The variability in precipitation and temperature is therefore stationary and the method cannot predict extreme events very accurately. The frequency/magnitude analysis and calculation of recurrence intervals for future scenarios must therefore be used with caution, knowing that the extreme events may be underestimated. However, the objective here is not to predict future discharge values corresponding to a given recurrence interval, but rather to investigate the relative contributions to sediment transport of events of different recurrence intervals.

### 5.2.5 Effective and half-load discharge

Wolman and Miller [1960] noted that since transport rate tends to zero in the lowest flows, but flow frequency tends to zero at the highest transport rates, the product of transport rate and frequency must be greatest at some intermediate discharge which they termed the effective discharge. It is known that the estimated value of effective discharge depends on the choice of bin size (or discharge intervals for which the daily sediment transport volumes are summed) [Crowder and Knapp, 2005]. The effective discharge was calculated for about 25 class intervals of discharge, following Crowder and Knapp [2005]. The chosen class intervals have a size of 30,50 and $70 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers, respectively, although our tests using various bin sizes did not reveal marked differences. Nevertheless, the effective discharge metric has been criticized as it does not clearly document which discharges are responsible for carrying the bulk of the long-term load [Vogel et al., 2003; Doyle and Shields, 2008]. Hence, an alternative approach using the half-load discharge is also used. This is defined as the discharge value above and below which $50 \%$ of the total load is transported [Wolman and Miller, 1960; Vogel et al., 2003].

| Recurrence interval | 1 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 20 | 50 | $Q_{M A M}$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Batiscan | 315 | 587 | 741 | 841 | 936 | 1059 | 465 |
| Richelieu | 538 | 1025 | 1246 | 1375 | 1488 | 1623 | 1095 |
| Saint-François | 661 | 1360 | 1755 | 2012 | 2255 | 2567 | 1277 |

Table 5.1: Discharge ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) associated with recurrence intervals of $1,2,5,10,20$ and 50 years for the three tributaries, based on the present-day (1932-2004) records at gauging stations in the downstream part of the tributaries. $Q_{M A M}$ is the mean annual maximum discharge for each series.

### 5.3 Results

### 5.3.1 Hydrology

Discharges corresponding to present-day recurrence intervals of $1,2,5,10,20$ and 50 years for the three tributaries are presented in Table 5.1. The mean annual maximum discharge for the RefQ-scenario (1961-1990) in each tributary is close to the 2 -year recurrence interval. When comparing each recurrence interval to the present-day 2 -year recurrence interval, the tendency for high discharge events (long recurrence intervals) to become more frequent is very obvious, particularly for the Richelieu River (Figure 5.1). For the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, this trend is less marked, but it is visible for the 50-year recurrence interval, with the exception of the ECHAM4 scenario (Figure 5.1a,c).

The change in mean annual maximum discharge for the three GCMs does not show a consistent trend for all the tributaries and is markedly different from the change in mean daily discharge, with larger variation for the mean annual maximum discharge ( $-21 \%$ to $+44 \%$ ) compared to daily discharges ( $-10 \%$ to $+14 \%$ ) (Table 5.2). However, in most cases (with two exceptions), the direction of change (either increasing or decreasing) remains the same for the two types of discharge. The changes in mean annual maximum discharge are largest for the Richelieu River where it increases in all GCM-scenarios. The ECHAM4 model reduces the mean daily discharge for all tributaries, whereas the HadCM3 model results in the largest differences for both daily and mean annual maximum discharge (Table 5.2). For each GCMscenario the direction of change in mean annual maximum discharge compared to the RefQ varies from year to year, as illustrated in Figure 5.2 for the Batiscan River. The CSIRO-Mk2 and HadCM3 models generally predict higher floods than ECHAM4. For all tributaries, the timing of flood events also changes for all GCMs, with an expected spring flood in advance by 22 to 34 days by the last horizon (2070-2099) [Boyer et al., in press].

|  | CSIRO-Mk2 |  | ECHAM4 |  | HadCM3 |  | mean |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | $Q_{\text {daily }}$ | $Q_{M A M}$ | $Q_{\text {daily }}$ | $Q_{M A M}$ | $Q_{\text {daily }}$ | $Q_{M A M}$ | $Q_{\text {daily }}$ | $Q_{M A M}$ |
| Batiscan | $6 \%$ | $8 \%$ | $-7 \%$ | $-9 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $19 \%$ | $3 \%$ | $6 \%$ |
| Richelieu | $6 \%$ | $36 \%$ | $-9 \%$ | $5 \%$ | $14 \%$ | $44 \%$ | $4 \%$ | $28 \%$ |
| Saint-François | $4 \%$ | $-8 \%$ | $-10 \%$ | $-21 \%$ | $9 \%$ | $6 \%$ | $1 \%$ | $-8 \%$ |
| mean | $5 \%$ | $12 \%$ | $-9 \%$ | $-8 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $23 \%$ |  |  |

Table 5.2: Percentage of change in mean daily discharge ( $Q_{\text {daily }}$ ) and mean annual maximum discharge ( $Q_{M A M}$ ) for the period 2010-2099 compared to the RefQ-scenario for three GCMs in each tributary.


Figure 5.1: Dimensionless flood frequency plots expressed as discharge of a given recurrence interval divided by discharge of a 2-year recurrence interval in the reference scenario (RefQ), against recurrence interval for a) the Batiscan River; b) the Richelieu River; and c) the Saint-François River.

### 5.3.2 Sediment transport

### 5.3.2.1 Magnitude-frequency analysis

The impact of GCM scenarios on effective discharge is examined in Figure 5.3. All three tributaries have a bimodal distribution in the RefQscenario, which implies that both high- and lowfrequency events could be important for maintaining the channel. The effective discharge is around the 2 -


Figure 5.2: Annual maximum discharge over the simulated period (20102099) for the RefQ and GCM-scenarios for the Batiscan River. Dashed lines refer to the different discharges associated with recurrence interval of $1,2,5$, 10,20 and 50, based on the 1932-2004 records at the Batiscan gauging station. year (present-day) recurrence discharge for the Richelieu and Saint-François rivers (Figure 5.3b,c) and around the 5-year (present-day) recurrence interval for the Batiscan River (Figure 5.3a). The transported volume varies for the three horizons, with an increase for the Batiscan River, a slight decrease in the Richelieu River and a decrease in the Saint-François River. For the GCM scenarios, the effective discharge increases by several size classes to discharges with present-day recurrence intervals of more than 50 years, with a clear shift towards higher discharge from the first to the last horizon (2070-2099). For all tributaries, the CSIRO-Mk2 and HadCM3 models have similar effective discharges in the low-frequent discharge range. For the ECHAM4 model in the Batiscan River (Figure 5.3 g ), the effective discharge decreases over time and becomes smaller than the RefQ scenario in the last horizon.

Half-load discharges also increase for all the GCM scenarios over the 2010-2099 period, although less so for the ECHAM4 model (Table 5.3). The half-load discharge for each horizon remains fairly constant within the RefQ scenario, in a similar way to the effective discharge. For GCM scenarios, the overall trend is an increase compared to the RefQ as well as an increase towards the last horizon (Table 5.3). The CSIRO-Mk2 produces the largest increase ( $33 \%$ on average for the three rivers for the entire period), followed by HadCM3


Figure 5.3: Bed-material sediment transport discharge histograms at the downstream boundary for the first (2010-2039) and last (2070-2099) horizons for the Batiscan River (a,d,g,j); Richelieu River (b,e,h,k); and Saint-François River (c,f,i,l) for the RefQ (a,b,c); CSIRO-Mk2 (d,e,f); ECHAM4 (g,h,i); and HadCM3 (j,k,l) models. The arrows indicate the effective discharge for each horizon (black: RefQ, blue: first horizon, green: second horizon and red: third horizon). The upper $x$-axis represents the present-day recurrence intervals from the 1932-2004 records.

|  | horizon | RefQ | CSIRO-Mk2 | ECHAM4 | HadCM3 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Batiscan | $2010-39$ | 522 | 623 | 470 | 551 |
|  | $2040-69$ | 506 | 750 | 603 | 567 |
|  | $2070-99$ | 500 | 760 | 516 | 721 |
|  | $2010-99$ | 509 | 717 | 538 | 621 |
| Richelieu | $2010-39$ | 1112 | 1233 | 1052 | 1370 |
|  | $2040-69$ | 1102 | 1353 | 1175 | 1293 |
|  | $2070-99$ | 1093 | 2022 | 1366 | 1711 |
|  | $2010-99$ | 1102 | 1516 | 1203 | 1464 |
|  | $2010-39$ | 1210 | 1362 | 1076 | 1416 |
|  | $2040-69$ | 1226 | 1516 | 1329 | 1400 |
|  | $2070-99$ | 1251 | 1620 | 1906 | 1745 |
|  | $2010-99$ | 1225 | 1463 | 1279 | 1469 |

Table 5.3: Half-load discharge ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) for each discharge scenario for each horizon and for the entire simulated period. Half-load discharge is defined as the value above and below which $50 \%$ of the total load is transported.
(25\%) and ECHAM4 (6\%). Note that changes in half-load discharges exhibit markedly less variability than the effective discharge changes (Figure 5.3).

Bed-material transport rate has a higher variation than water discharge, mainly because of the non-linear character of sediment transport. The change in bed-material volume transported over the whole simulation period (2010-2099) is presented in Figure 5.4. The total bed-material transport increases the most for the HadCM3-scenario, with values 209\%, 286\% and $134 \%$ of the volume in the RefQ-scenario for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers, respectively. The CSIRO-Mk2 model also results in increased transport, whereas ECHAM4 simulations are usually close to, or slightly less than, the RefQ (Figure 5.4). In the two cases where the changes in mean daily and annual maximum discharge are opposite to each other (Richelieu River, ECHAM4, and Saint-François River, CSIRO-Mk2, Table 5.2), the total bed-material transport remains close to the RefQ-scenario.

In Figure 5.4, sediment volume is split in recurrence interval ranges. For example, bedmaterial transported during floods with a maximum discharge falling between recurrence intervals of 2 to 5 years were grouped together (green in Figure 5.4). The present-day recurrence intervals are used for the RefQ scenarios of each tributary, whereas the future recurrence intervals are used for the three GCM scenarios. In the RefQ scenario, discharges with a recurrence interval of 2 years or less transport about $50 \%$ of the sediments in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers. In all GCM scenarios, this proportion is reduced for the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, but it increases for the Richelieu River except for the ECHAM4 sce-


Figure 5.4: Sediment transport volume as a fraction of the total volume transported with the RefQ-scenario for the a) Batiscan River; b) Richelieu River; and c) Saint-François River. Sediment volumes associated with events where the maximum discharge is within the same range of recurrence intervals within the scenario are grouped together. For the RefQ-scenario, the present-day (1932-2004) are used, whereas the future recurrence intervals (2010-2099) are used for each GCM.
nario (Figure 5.4). However, with the CSIRO-Mk2 and HadCM3 scenarios, the total volume of transported sediment increases, thus the proportion of transport associated with discharges of 2-year or less recurrence interval is less ( $17 \%$ on average for all tributaries, with a range from 7 to $35 \%$ ). In the Richelieu River, discharges with recurrence intervals of 5 years or less contribute to $50 \%$ of the total sediment volume transported in the RefQ-scenario. This volume, as well as volumes associated with larger recurrence intervals, remains similar in all GCMs in the Richelieu River (Figure 5.4b). However, in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, there is a marked tendency for extreme events (with long future recurrence intervals) to be responsible for a larger proportion of the volume of transported sediments under all GCM scenarios (Figure 5.4a,c). For example, the five largest sediment transport events in the CSIRO-Mk2 transport $36 \%$ of the total volume in the Batiscan River, and $29 \%$ of the total volume in the Saint-François River. In the RefQ scenario, the five largest events transported only 24 and $13 \%$ of the total volume in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, respectively.

The threshold discharge for sediment transport in the Richelieu River is estimated at $450 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The mean discharge for the RefQ scenario in this river is $437 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, and is thus very close $(97 \%)$ to this threshold. The Batiscan and Saint-François rivers have estimated threshold values of approximately 150 and $330 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, respectively, with mean discharges of 97 and $196 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ for the RefQ scenarios, which correspond to $65 \%$ and $60 \%$ of the threshold discharge, respectively. The Richelieu River is the only tributary where in the future scenarios the mean discharge exceeds the threshold value for sediment transport, which partly explains why the increase in sediment volume is higher in this river (Figure 5.4b).

### 5.3.2.2 Event analysis

When events of specific recurrence intervals are examined more closely, the variability of sediment transport volume becomes apparent (Figure 5.5). In Figure 5.5, all flood events (i.e. from RefQ and GCMs simulations) are combined together since no difference in trend was observed between them. In other words, an event with a maximum discharge of, say, 500 $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in the RefQ time series for a given river should result on average in the same volume of bed-material transport as a $500 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ event size in the GCM time series. The variability in sediment transport per event is particularly large for frequent events that occur more than once every 2 years, which is likely due to the large range of event duration for these discharges (Figure 5.5). Floods with a recurrence interval of 2 years generally transport more than the


Figure 5.5: Boxplots of the relative sediment transport volume per event grouped by present-day recurrence interval of their maximum discharge for: a) Batiscan River; b) Richelieu River; and c) Saint-François River. Whiskers (-) represent the $1 \%$ and $99 \%$ percentile and symbols (+) represent outliers. Relative sediment transport volume per event is the volume of each individual event divided by the average volume per event for all events in the river concerned. All simulated maximum discharges (i.e. RefQ and GCMs) are combined in this figure.
mean volume per event and their variability is much less than that of the lower magnitude events. The 2-year events are also less sensitive to the duration as the volume of transport mainly depends on the maximum discharge that largely exceeds the threshold of sediment transport.

The effect of flood peak and duration on bed-material transport volume is further investigated in Figures 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8 for the reference and GCM scenarios. Individual events are plotted in these diagrams as circles of area proportional to the bed-material volume. Vertical dashed lines indicate the half-load discharge over the 2010-2099 period in the RefQ-scenario, which is used to separate 'small' and 'large' events. Note that because the total sediment volume transported for a given event is plotted for the maximum discharge of the event (i.e. it is not plotting daily sediment volume against the associated daily discharge value), the proportion of large events (on the right side of the vertical dashed line in Figures 5.6 to 5.8) is larger than $50 \%$ by definition. The median duration of sediment transport events in the RefQ scenario was used as a threshold to separate short from long events.

As expected, there are more small magnitude, short duration events - falling in the lowerleft zone in Figures 5.6 to 5.8) - for all tributaries and GCMs. For the Batiscan and SaintFrançois rivers (Figures 5.6 and 5.8), the relative contribution of short events (below the horizontal dashed line) increases from about $30 \%$ in the RefQ scenario to about $50 \%$ for all the GCMs, whereas for the Richelieu River (Figure 5.7) the relative contribution remains similar to RefQ (45\%) for the CSRIO-Mk2 and HadCM3 scenarios and increases to 56\% for the ECHAM4 scenario. The large events for all the tributaries (right of the vertical dashed line) contribute to more sediment volume in all cases, except for the Saint-François River in the ECHAM4 scenario where it remains the same (69\%). In general, the relative contribution of large events for the CSIRO-Mk2 and HadCM3 scenarios (77-88\%) is similar for all the tributaries, and the ECHAM4 model (68-72\%) lies between the RefQ (64-69\%) and the other two GCMs.

For the RefQ scenario, the sediment transport during winter is mostly associated with events with small maximum discharge in the Richelieu and Saint-François rivers (no winter events occurred in the RefQ scenario for the Batiscan River - Figure 5.6). In all tributaries and under all GCM scenarios, both the frequency and magnitude of winter events increase. The spring events remain more spread out than the winter events, with both short and long duration and small and large maximum discharge, although for the Richelieu River the winter


Figure 5.6: Duration/magnitude diagram of sediment transport event duration against maximum discharge for the Batiscan River. Circles are proportional to the volume of sediment transported during the event. The vertical dashed line indicates the half-load discharge for the RefQ scenario for the $2010-2099$ period ( $509 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ). The horizontal dashed line represents the median value of sediment transport event duration (i.e. $50 \%$ of the transport events are shorter than this value) in the RefQ scenario ( $d=10$ days). The percentage in each quadrant gives the contribution to the total sediment transport of short/long and small/large events. The upper x -axis represents the present-day recurrence intervals. The continuous coloured lines indicate 'envelopes' of events occurring within each season. a) RefQ; b) CSIRO-Mk2; c) ECHAM4; d) HadCM3.


Figure 5.7: Duration/magnitude diagram of sediment transport event duration against maximum discharge for the Richelieu River. Circles are proportional to the volume of sediment transported during the event. The vertical dashed line indicates the half-load discharge for the RefQ scenario for the $2010-2099$ period ( $1102 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ). The horizontal dashed line represents the median value of sediment transport event duration (i.e. $50 \%$ of the transport events are shorter than this value) in the RefQ scenario ( $d=12$ days). The percentage in each quadrant give the contribution to the total sediment transport of short/long and small/large events. The upper x -axis represents the present-day recurrence intervals. The continuous coloured lines indicate 'envelopes' of events occurring within each season. a) RefQ; b) CSIRO-Mk2; c) ECHAM4; d) HadCM3.


Figure 5.8: Duration/magnitude diagram of sediment transport event duration against maximum discharge for the Saint-François River. Circles are proportional to the volume of sediment transported during the event. The vertical dashed line indicates the half-load discharge for the RefQ scenario for the 2010-2099 period $\left(1225 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right)$. The horizontal dashed line represents the median value of sediment transport event duration (i.e. $50 \%$ of the transport events are shorter than this value) in the RefQ scenario ( $d=6$ days). The percentage in each quadrant give the contribution to the total sediment transport of short/long and small/large events. The upper x -axis represents the present-day recurrence intervals. The continuous coloured lines indicate 'envelopes' of events occurring within each season. a) RefQ; b) CSIRO-Mk2; c) ECHAM4; d) HadCM3.
and spring events become similar. The events that occur in summer and fall remain similar to the RefQ in terms of duration and maximum discharge for all the tributaries and GCM scenarios.

More sediment transport events occur in the Richelieu River than in the other tributaries. The Richelieu River has a total sediment transport duration ranging from $18 \%$ to $28 \%$ of the simulated period, whereas in the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers the total sediment transport duration ranges from only $3 \%$ to $7 \%$. The Richelieu River also has sediment transport events with a longer median duration (12 days compared to 10 and 6 days for the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, respectively).

### 5.4 Discussion

Our study shows that climate-induced changes in discharge in the $21^{s t}$ century are very likely to affect the magnitude and timing of floods in the three studied Saint-Lawrence River tributaries. There is some variability between the three GCM scenarios [which is to be expected since they were specifically chosen to represent a wide range of precipitation and temperature outputs - Chaumont and Chartier, 2005; Boyer et al., in press] but simulations show consistent trends between GCMs and between rivers, with low frequency events becoming more frequent. The largest change in bed material transport can be expected from GCMs that predict the largest change in precipitation. Similar findings in terms of recurrence intervals were found for fall and summer simulations of the Châteauguay River, another tributary of the Saint-Lawrence River [Roy et al., 2001]. However, recurrence intervals can be misleading because they are determined from the peak magnitude of flow and they do not take into account the magnitude and duration of out-of-bank flow [Lane et al., 2007]. In this study, the reliability of the determination of recurrence intervals is also limited by the fact that simulations for the $21^{s t}$ century are based on a 30 -year reference period (1961-1990), the same reference period for each of the three horizons and thus any rare events in the reference period could occurw 3 times within the near-future simulation. Furthermore, the perturbation method is known to generate over-prediction of rare events [Lenderink et al., 2007] so a precise analysis of shifts in effective discharge should not be attempted. However, the qualitative trend corresponds well to findings from other studies [e.g. Andrews, 1980; Nash, 1994; Emmett and Wolman, 2001]. To add to this complexity, a clear relationship between discharge
and sediment transport cannot be defined [Reid et al., 2007a,b; Coulthard et al., 2008], as highlighted in this study by the large variability in Figure 5.5.

The effective discharge is predicted to increase in all GCM and tributaries, except for the Batiscan River in the ECHAM4 scenario (Figure 5.3). Grain size, flow variability and basin size are considered to be the most important factors influencing effective discharge recurrence interval [Wolman and Miller, 1960; Andrews, 1980; Knighton, 1998; Doyle et al., 2007]. Here the grain size remains about the same and obviously basin size is constant. The shift in effective discharge, towards low-frequency floods, is thus solely a result of increased flow variability. The use of effective discharge has been a topic of debate since it was first introduced by Wolman and Miller [1960], and a lot of uncertainty remains around its calculation [Ashmore and Day, 1988; Lenzi et al., 2006; Doyle and Shields, 2008]. For the three rivers studied here, the effective discharge in the RefQ scenario corresponds to a $2-5$ year recurrence interval, which is larger than the 1-2 year value reported in Wolman and Miller [1960], but conforms to observations of Doyle et al. [2007] for lowland sand-bed rivers. One of the consequences of climate change modifications to discharge in these rivers is a transition from a relatively simple distribution of effective discharge histograms (Figure $5.3 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}$ ), to a much more complex form of effective discharge histograms with multiple peaks (Figure $5.3 \mathrm{~d}-1$ ). This may also be the case in other rivers, particularly where there is a predicted shift in spring flood discharge. This could indicate a channel maintaining role of near-bankfull flows with recurrence intervals of $2-5$ years, with extreme rare events mainly affecting channel bank erosion [Phillips, 2002].

Half-load discharges [Vogel et al., 2003] show similar trends to the effective discharge for the RefQ scenario (Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3), with an overall increase in the $21^{\text {st }}$ century. However, half-load discharge trends for the GCM scenarios are much more consistent than those in the effective discharge. Because the half-load discharge is not dependent on the parameters such as bin size, it provides a more robust indicator of change in morphological behaviour than the effective discharge, and it is also simpler to calculate. However, according to Vogel et al. [2003], the half-load discharge for total load corresponds to a relatively rare event compared to the effective discharge of Wolman and Miller [1960], whereas for the lowland rivers studied here, half-load discharges for bed-material in the RefQ scenario correspond to recurrence intervals of about 2 years. The half-load discharge is lower than the effective discharge for the Batiscan and Saint-François rivers, and approximately the same
for the Richelieu River.
The increase in frequency and magnitude of winter events results in higher transport rates since for the same discharge, the water surface slope for high magnitude events in the tributaries will be markedly higher in the winter compared to the spring when the Saint-Lawrence River, with highly regulated water levels [Fagherazzi et al., 2005], will reach its maximum level [Boyer et al., 2009]. Because the slopes of the tributaries are very low (3 to $6 \times 10^{-5}$ ), the impact of base level is significant, unlike in small upstream systems with much steeper slopes. The seasonal effect will be enhanced under all GCM scenarios as longer duration, higher magnitude winter events are predicted for all tributaries (Figures 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8). This will be further exacerbated by the predicted $20 \%$ decrease in discharge of the SaintLawrence River, resulting in a 0.5 to 1 m decrease in it water level, during the $21^{\text {st }}$ century [Croley, 2003]. This effect has been tested using two base-level decrease scenarios in the Saint-Lawrence River (see details in Verhaar et al. [in press]). The same winter discharge events when the Saint-Lawrence level was between 0.5 and 1 m lower than their current values resulted in average increases in sediment transport of $40 \%$ for the Richelieu and SaintFrançois rivers and $116 \%$ for the Batiscan River.

It is commonly assumed that if climate change leads to a more frequent occurrence of high magnitude, long duration flood events there will be an increased risk of overbank flooding. However, peak-flow magnitude is not the only control on flood risk, as changes in channel geometry, in particular in systems undergoing long-term aggradation, also need to be considered [Lane et al., 2007, 2008]. Our morphodynamic simulations suggest that the Batiscan River is undergoing slight aggradation under the present hydrological regime, the Saint-François River is degrading slightly, and the Richelieu River is almost in equilibrium [Verhaar et al., in press]. However, under all climate-change scenarios increased bed erosion is predicted. This results in reduced aggradation with some erosion in the downstream reaches for the Batiscan River, a switch from equilibrium to a degradational state for the Richelieu River, and increased degradation in the Saint-François River [Verhaar et al., in press]. Thus, the increase in flood risk due to more frequent extreme events is in part compensated by incision of the bed in the three studied tributaries. Higher flood levels which occur more often are predicted for all GCMs and all three tributaries (Figure 5.9). This shows that although lower bed elevation decreases flood risk, the increased frequency of rare events outweighs this effect and the likelihood of observing floods in the range of 1 to 1.25 m above the bankfull level
is increased, particularly with the CSIRO-Mk2 model. Note that this increased flood risk is also present for all simulations with a steady fall $(0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr})$ in the downstream water levels of the Saint-Lawrence River, with the exception of the ECHAM4 model in the Saint-François River.

Because of the scarce availability of long-term series of sediment transport data to investigate the geomorphic impacts of magnitude-frequency of large floods versus more frequent events, a sediment modelling approach such as that used in this study provides an additional method for validating and comparing the role of different discharges within rivers [Shields et al., 2003]. However, ideally, a more sophisticated 2D modelling approach which could simulate bank erosion would be required to assess the role of extreme events on bank erosion and sediment supply. In the Batiscan and Richelieu rivers, banks are stable, but high lateral migration rates were observed in the Saint-François River which cannot be adequately modelled in a 1D approach.

### 5.5 Conclusion

Morphodynamic simulations for the $21^{s t}$ century based on three GCM scenarios for three tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River indicate that climate-induced changes in discharge will markedly increase the low-frequency, high-magnitude events which will have a very important impact on both bed-material transport and flood risk. Although mean daily discharge does not alter much in GCM scenarios, there is an increase in flow variability and this results in higher effective and half-load discharges under future scenarios. Very large volumes of sediments are transported by fewer, extreme flood events in most simulations compared to a reference scenario where events of recurrence interval 5 years or less transported most of the sediment. The change in the timing of these events, with much more frequent long duration, high magnitude floods in the winter, will also have a major impact as these events occur during low flow in the Saint-Lawrence River, leading to a greater water surface slope in the tributaries and thus higher transport capacity.

Although the three GCMs predict an increase in large magnitude events, there remains a large variability between these scenarios, with ECHAM4 (dry/warm prediction) resulting in the smallest impact in terms of sediment transport and flood risk, and HadCM3 (largest change in precipitation) having the largest impact on these variables. Future research on


Figure 5.9: Frequency of the number of occurrences per year of five water surface elevations above bankfull level at the upstream boundary for: a) Batiscan River; b) Richelieu River; and c) Saint-François River. Frequency of occurrence is expressed as a percentage of the number of occurrences per year (e.g. $20 \%$ is once in 5 years). The bankfull water surface elevations (calculated based on a 2-year recurrence interval) for the Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers are $6.47 \mathrm{~m}, 6.59 \mathrm{~m}$ and 7.55 m , respectively.
climate-induced morphodynamic changes in rivers should thus continue to use more than one GCM scenario, unless or until GCM refinement leads to a convergence of climate predictions. Furthermore, there is a need to develop further 2D modelling tools that could run long-term unsteady simulations of bed-material transport and incorporate the impacts of bank erosion on channel evolution.

## CHAPTER 6

## LIMITS OF 1D NUMERICAL MODELLING: THE NEED TO DEVELOP A 2D APPROACH

Although previous chapters have revealed that plausible results are obtained from SEDROUT4M, some limitations with the 1D approach have been highlighted by our analysis. The code of SEDROUT4-M can be found in Appendix III and the structure of input-files is given in Appendix IV with the Saint-François River as an example. Some of these limitations may be due to the software itself (i.e. another 1D model may have performed better, that can deal with unsteady flow for example), but some may only be possible to solve through a 2 D approach. The first part of this chapter analyses in more detail specific problems that have occurred in the 1D simulations of the Yamachiche, Saint-Maurice and Saint-François rivers (some of which have been briefly mentioned in chapter 4). In the second part of the chapter, adaptations to the 2D model H2D2 that are required to incorporate a bed material transport module are described. This is followed by a comparison between the 1D and 2D simulation results and a discussion on the potential of long-term 2D morphological simulations.

### 6.1 Complications in 1D modelling of the Saint-Lawrence tributaries

Initially five tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River were selected. However, two rivers could not be validated: the Yamachiche and Saint-Maurice rivers [Verhaar et al., in press, chapter 4]. The other three tributaries (Batiscan, Richelieu and Saint-François rivers) were

| Tributary | Drainage basin $\left(\mathrm{km}^{2}\right)$ | Average discharge ( $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) | Width (m) | Energy <br> slope (-) | Average depth (m) | Width-todepth ratio (-) | Sinuosity <br> (-) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Batiscan | 4700 | 99 | 167 | $6 \times 10^{-5}$ | 2.72 | 61.4 | 1.51 |
| Richelieu | 23720 | 346 | 198 | $5 \times 10^{-5}$ | 7.64 | 25.9 | 1.09 |
| Saint-François | 10180 | 208 | 233 | $3 \times 10^{-5}$ | 4.43 | 52.6 | 1.20 |
| Saint-Maurice | 43250 | 693 | 238 | $1 \times 10^{-5}$ | 5.65 | 42.1 | 1.25 |
| Yamachiche | 269 | 6 | 25 | $4.5 \times 10^{-4}$ | 1.50 | 13.3 | 1.75 |

Table 6.1: Characteristics of selected Saint-Lawrence tributaries.
relatively well simulated by SEDROUT4-M. However, the Saint-François River remained problematic due to the complex geometry around the permanent island which caused some of the simulations to crash before 2099 [Verhaar et al., in press, chapter 4]. The problems faced in modelling each of these rivers are different and are therefore described and explained in separate sections.

### 6.1.1 Yamachiche River: critical flow



Figure 6.1: Map of cross section locations in the Yamachiche River. The arrow indicates the position of the hydraulic jump in the simulations.

The Yamachiche River is the smallest river selected for this project. It is one to two orders of magnitude smaller in basin size, discharge and water surface width than the other tributaries (Table 6.1). Also, compared to the other tributaries, the width-to-depth ratio of the Yamachiche River is markedly lower (Table 6.1). However, its energy slope is higher compared to the other tributaries, but still low in comparison to other rivers simulated using SEDROUT (0.5$2.2 \times 10^{-2}$ ) [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Ferguson et al., 2001; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002]. Although the river is small, it contains large meanders and its sinuosity is high compared to three of the other tributaries (Table 6.1). The downstream end $(0.5 \mathrm{~km})$ is almost straight and the river was highly affected by construction of highway 40 (Figure 6.1). However, the sinuosity in a $1-\mathrm{km}$ section downstream of highway 40 is fairly high (2.1). It remains smaller than the sinuosity of 2.5 in the upstream part of the Batiscan River and should therefore not cause a problem for 1D modelling. The most downstream meander of the Yamachiche River has a very stable position [Bondue et al., 2006],
although those further upstream within our study-reach are more mobile. This may be problematic in 1D modelling. On the other hand, a far more detailed topographical survey would be needed for 2D modelling of the Yamachiche River, which is practically not feasible as all topography points must be obtained from a total station by wading in this small tributary.

| Variable or change | type of change | result |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Manning $n$ | increase to values of $0.075-0.2$ | jump occurs further upstream un- <br> til a value of 0.2 when the up- <br> stream boundary is reached |
| Downstream water level <br> Discharge | increased by 0.25 to 1.5 m <br> increase from 5 up to $30 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | jump occurs further upstream <br> same effect as Manning $n$ and wa- <br> ter level |
| Extra cross section | placed a new cross section down- <br> stream of the hydraulic jump to re- <br> duce cross sectional distance jump occurred in the <br> same location |  |
| Remove cross section | Removed the cross section where <br> hydraulic jump occurred <br> Changed the way SEDROUT is | hydraulic jump shifted to the up- <br> stream cross section <br> Critical flow still occurred |
| Top-down first estimate of water the water level for the |  |  |$\quad$| hydraulic computation |
| :--- | :--- |

Table 6.2: Overview of attempts to solve the critical flow occurring in the Yamachiche model.

Compared to the other tributaries, the Yamachiche River has a long profile shape that comes closest to the theoretical concave shape (Figure 6.2, compared with Figure 4.2). However, simulations with a realistic discharge ( $4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) and downstream water level ( 5 m ), but relatively high roughness value ( $n=0.05$ ) caused supercritical flow to occur at 0.88 km from the mouth (arrow on Figure 6.1). An overview of the various attempts to deal with this problem is given in Table 6.2. All these attempts were unfruitful, although some gave better results in the sense that critical flow did not occur. However, these cases used unrealistic conditions (i.e. high downstream water level and discharge, high roughness value, etc.) and could clearly not be considered meaningful in any simulation of sediment transport rates. Increasing roughness, downstream water levels and/or discharge solved the problem of critical flow at 0.88 km from the mouth, but frequently the hydraulic jump problem occurred further upstream. Simulations with a high roughness value (Manning's $n>0.1$ ) were successful, although this value is unrealistic as values of $0.024-0.075$ would be expected in this river even if the presence of meanders as well as dunes under high flow conditions should contribute to higher roughness values [Chow, 1950].

It is difficult to understand why it is much more difficult to run sensible simulations for the Yamachiche River compared to the other tributaries. SEDROUT has previously been


Figure 6.2: Measured longitudinal profiles of the Yamachiche (in black). Approximation of the theoretical profile in red.


Figure 6.3: Cross sections in the Yamachiche River downstream (xs 12) and at the location of the hydraulic jump (xs 13) as well as the additional cross section that was used in an attempt to solve the hydraulic jump problem.
successfully used in rivers of a size similar to that of the Yamachiche River, for example the Allt-Dubhaig [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994] (Table 6.3). However, unlike the study of Hoey and Ferguson [1994], we have used original cross-sectional shape instead of idealized rectangular cross sections. Cross-sectional shapes are asymmetrical in the meanders, but they are not very complex and should therefore not cause the simulation to crash. The cross-sectional shapes around the point where the hydraulic jump occurs are nearly prismatic (Figure 6.3).

Bed topography measurements in this river were obtained by wading and measuring the profile with a total station instead of echo-sounding from a boat. The difficulty in obtaining topography data partly explains why the distance between cross sections relative to the channel width is six times larger than in other rivers (Table 6.3). SEDROUT uses the slope of the deepest points between cross sections as a first estimation of the water surface elevation at the upstream cross section. As can be seen in Figure 6.3, the cross section where the hydraulic jump occurs (xs13) has a fairly rectangular shape. Thus, the use of a different proxy for the energy slope, such as the mean depth instead of the maximum depth, would give a similar starting point for the hydraulic computation. Tests with an increased water elevation in the first iteration of the hydraulic computation also resulted in the simulation crashing at that same cross section.

The large cross-sectional distance relative to the width in combination with the nonuniform width of the cross sections is believed to be the reason of the occurrence of super-

| River | Channel <br> length (m) | Number of cross <br> sections | Average <br> distance (m) | Average <br> width (m) | Distance width <br> ratio (-) |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Batiscan | 17174 | 79 | 217 | 167 | 1.30 |
| Richelieu | 15168 | 99 | 153 | 198 | 0.77 |
| Saint-François | 15017 | 72 | 208 | 233 | 0.90 |
| Saint-Maurice <br> Yamachiche | 13487 | 80 | 168 | 238 | 0.66 |
| Allt Dubhaig* | 7348 | 61 | 120 | 20 | 6.03 |
| [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994] | 2800 | 29 | 100 | 10 | 10.00 |
| Vedder* |  |  |  |  |  |
| [Ferguson et al., 2001] | 8175 | 49 | 167 | 110 | 1.52 |
| Sainte-Marguerite*** <br> [Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] | 12000 | 60 | 200 | 45 | 4.44 |

Table 6.3: Distance between cross sections and the ratio of distance over the width. * used idealized crosssectional shape and long-profile; ${ }^{* *}$ used idealized cross-sectional shape with constant width; ${ }^{* * *}$ assumed prismatic cross sections
critical flow within the Yamachiche River simulations. Other studies conducted with SEDROUT used not only idealized cross-sectional shapes, but also a constant, relatively high, discharge instead of 'real' daily values. The use of real discharge values, which include low flow conditions, can become problematic in simulations of small rivers with large inter cross-sectional distances. However, the relation between cross-sectional distance, river width and energy slope for one-dimensional hydrological and morphological numerical modelling would need further investigation as it was not possible in this study to clearly isolate the cause of the crashing problem in the Yamachiche River.

### 6.1.2 Saint-Maurice River: discharge distribution in bifurcations

The model of the Saint-Maurice River contains three major channels with two major bifurcations (A and B Figure 6.5) over a short distance ( 1650 m ). A small channel, not included in the model for reasons of simplicity - very little discharge flows through it and the geometry is already complex with two bifurcations - connects the eastern channel with the center channel (Figure 6.5). The convergence of water levels with two bifurcations was a challenge to incorporate in SEDROUT4-M and the details of the bifurcation coding are provided in Appendix III.

The simulated discharge distributions are $76-24 \%$ and $88-12 \%$ for the upstream (A) and downstream (B) bifurcations, respectively, whereas the measured distributions are 65-34\% and $69-31 \%$ (Figure 6.5). The absence of the small channel could contribute to the fact that


Figure 6.4: The Saint-Maurice River with the measured cross sections.
the eastern channel in the model is receiving less discharge than what was measured, but only about $2 \%$ of the total discharge flows through this small channel. To compensate for the absence of the small channel in the model, the cross sections in the eastern channel downstream of bifurcation C (Figure 6.5) were widened to increase their water transport capacity. However, even doubling the width of this part of the river did not result in the correct discharge distribution at the upstream bifurcation - the discharge distribution remained remarkably similar to what it was with the original topography. The most downstream cross section in the eastern channel is slightly further away from the confluence with the Saint-Lawrence River. Therefore, the distance in the model is relatively shorter, but this should lead to a slightly higher discharge in the eastern channel of the model, which is not what is observed.

Another attempt to obtain a more reasonable distribution of the discharge at the upstream bifurcation was to eliminate the center channel. This should have decreased the water transport capacity of the western channel and forced more of the discharge into the eastern channel. This attempt was also unsuccessful; the discharge distribution became closer to the measured
values, but was still too far off to be acceptable. An option that was not tested would be to give the channels different roughness values. This option was not implemented for two reasons: first, there is no reason to believe that roughness in the two channels should be very different. Second, it would have required an adaptation of the model and a more complicated calibration/validation procedure which would also have required additional field data that were not available.

The measured distribution is biased by downstream water level changes and discharge fluctuations, as the cross sections of flow measurements were taken at different times. Nevertheless, this cannot account for the large difference observed (the eastern channel only receives $70 \%$ of what was measured), as the cross sections at the bifurcation were taken within half an hour from each other and the discharge of both channels added up to the discharge measured upstream of the bifurcation. The channel connecting the eastern and center channel only accounts for


Figure 6.5: Complex geometry of the downstream confluence of the Saint-Maurice River with the Saint-Lawrence River. The black lines in the river indicate the thalweg of the reaches. Numbers give the proportional discharge split at the bifurcations as simulated with SEDROUT4-M with the ADCP measured split in brackets. Letters indicate two major bifurcations (A, B) and a smaller one (C).
$5 \%$ of the discharge in the eastern channel (at most $2 \%$ of the distribution at the upstream bifurcation A), leaving a $28 \%$ variation unexplained.

A great deal of research on the sediment distribution at bifurcations in 1D models has focussed on determining an appropriate method to specify the ratio between the two downstream branches. However, the Saint-Maurice River example highlights that a good understanding of what determines the water discharge ratio is also a requirement when simulating natural rivers.


Figure 6.6: The Saint-François River bed topography with the location of detailed figures indicated by black squares.

### 6.1.3 Saint-François River: sedimentation in a channel branch

The sediment distribution of bed-material at a bifurcation is often unknown and influenced by local topography and near-bed flow patterns. Our simulations with variable discharge and downstream water levels increase the level of complexity as this distribution is not constant over time.

| Discharge scenario | RefH | $0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ | $0.50 \mathrm{~m}-2040$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RefQ | 2100 | 2066 | 2080 |
| CSIRO-Mk2 A2 | 2100 | 2075 | 2100 |
| CSIRO-Mk2 B2 | 2100 | 2073 | 2100 |
| ECHAM4 A2 | 2100 | 2082 | 2100 |
| ECHAM4 B2 | 2100 | 2083 | 2100 |
| HadCM3 A2 | 2100 | 2063 | 2058 |
| HadCM3 B2 | 2100 | 2063 | 2065 |

Table 6.4: End date of simulations in the Saint-François River.

In the Saint-François River, all the simulations with a smooth base level fall crashed prior to 2099 due to sedimentation in the eastern channel (see Table 6.4 for an overview and Figure 6.6 for location). The RefQ and HadCM3 (A2 and B2) simulations with the sudden drop in 2040 also crashed. The reason for the crash is mainly because of the downstream water level fall which leads to lower water levels in the Saint-François River. The crashing occurred irrespective of the discharge scenarios. The different discharge scenarios only have an influence on the timing of the crash, i.e. when low discharge occurs simultaneously with low downstream water level. HadCM3 crashes earlier than the others but at approximately the same date for both base-level fall scenarios (2058-2065), when the base-level drop is close to 0.50 m in both scenarios.

To solve this problem, the sediment discharge distribution was modified so that the aggrading branch would receive less sediment. This was achieved by setting the sediment transport distribution equal to a different ratio than the water discharge ratio. The following formula was used to calculate the sediment input in the western branch (2 on Figure 6.7) downstream of the bifurcation with the parameter $R$, which adjusts the sediment transport ratio at the bifurcation ( 1 results in the same ratio as that of the water discharge):

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s 2}=\frac{Q_{s 1} \times R}{\frac{Q_{1}}{Q_{2}}+R-1} \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The formula generates a sediment input that is always smaller than the total transport in the upstream reach. Equation 6.1 was used to see how sensitive aggradation in the island branch


Figure 6.7: Predicted magnitude of flow velocities by H2D2 for bankfull flow conditions.
was to the nodal point relationship - of course the morphological meaning of such a condition would be very questionable. The modified sediment distribution was simulated for the RefQ$0.01 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{y}$ scenario, with a range of values for $R$ (Table 6.5 ). Results show that for higher values of $R(=2,10)$ the runs complete the simulation period (Table 6.5). Sedimentation in the eastern channel occurs in all simulations, except for $R=10$, indicating that this might be a realistic phenomenon and not solely an artefact of the sediment transport relationship at the bifurcation in SEDROUT4-M. This suggests that the crash of SEDROUT4-M could be solved by enabling critical flow or channel cut-off under low water elevations.

The total sediment transport at the downstream boundary remains approximately the same with differences of less than $1.5 \%$ for $R$ values of $1.1,1.5$ and 2 , and $\pm 4 \%$ for $R=10$. Overall, the ratio of sediment distribution at the island seems to have had a minor effect on our bed material transport analysis of sediment delivery from the Saint-François River, although the morphology within the branches along the island is highly affected.

### 6.2 2D model: H2D2

The model H2D2, which is an acronym for HydroSim 2 [Heniche et al., 2000] and DisperSim 2 [Secretan et al., 2000a], is used to examine differences in simulations in the island area in the Saint-François River between a 1D and a 2D approach. H2D2 combines a twodimensional finite element model for the simulation of shallow water flow with a dispersion model for contaminants in the water column, including sediments in suspension. The shallow water equations (or Saint-Venant equations) are solved on a triangular mesh. Flow velocities in two directions and water depths are solved at each corner of the mesh and velocities are calculated half-way each side of the triangles as well.

Approximations used for the hydraulic computation in H2D2 are the following: the water column is well mixed in the vertical direction and the depth is small in comparison to the

| $R$ | $R_{Q s}$ | End date | $Q_{\text {s:out }}\left(\mathrm{m}^{3}\right)$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1.0 | 0.70 | 2066 | 1926819 |
| 1.1 | 0.72 | 2074 | 1937471 |
| 1.5 | 0.77 | 2096 | 1935267 |
| 2.0 | 0.82 | 2100 | 1938422 |
| 10.0 | 0.92 | 2100 | 1980006 |

Table 6.5: End date of simulations with different values of $R$ for the sediment transport distribution in the Saint-François River for the RefQ-0.01m/y scenario. $R_{Q s}=\frac{Q_{s 2}}{\left(Q_{s 2}+Q_{s 3}\right)}$ is given for a discharge distribution that is 70-30\%. $Q_{\text {s:out }}$ represents the sediment transport volume at the downstream boundary for the period 2010-2066.
width; there is hydrostatic pressure in the vertical, meaning that the vertical component of the acceleration is neglected, so waves are small in amplitude or of long period, like tidal waves; the velocity is constant in the vertical direction (depth averaged); the porosity of the field is taken into account to make a difference between dry and wet area.

To accurately describe hydraulics in a


Figure 6.8: Two different concepts of moving boundaries in 2D modelling, a) classic approach, b) new approach, adapted from Heniche et al. [2000]. 2D model under variable flow conditions, a good definition of the model boundaries is critical [Heniche et al., 2000]. Figure 6.8 shows two different approaches for a moving boundary condition. In H2D2, the new approach (Figure 6.8b) is used, allowing the model to have negative water depths. To maintain mass conservation, Manning's $n$ is given the normal value for each positive value of water depth, and a high value for each negative water depth. Thus, no water movement can occur in dry areas. Heniche et al. [2000] introduced this wetting-drying model in H2D2 and tested it on two artificial cases and a case study. The method has been shown to reproduce complex boundary profiles in stationary and transient flow modelling sufficiently well.

H2D2 has a software tool to set-up the model called Modeleur [Secretan and Leclerc, 1998; Secretan et al., 2000b], which contains a Geographical Information System (GIS) based module to integrate raw data into a numerical terrain model. The strength of this tool is that different data sets can be used together as a basis for the model, for example echosounder profiles of the river channel and LIDAR data for the floodplain. Post-processing analysis can also be carried out with Modeleur, and it provides a user-friendly tool to create maps and analyse the results.

A description of the main features and principles of H2D2 can be found in chapter 2 (section 2.5.2), Heniche et al. [2000] and Secretan et al. [2000a]. The equations for conservation of mass and momentum are also described in this chapter (equations 2.16, 2.17 and 2.18). H2D2 can currently only deal with suspended load sediments over fixed bed topography. The sediment transport is calculated using the methodology of Van Rijn [1987]. H2D2 has proven its efficiency in different types of studies, for example in the Saint-Lawrence River
between Montréal and Trois-Rivières [Morin et al., 2000] and to estimate flood risk along the Montmorency River (Québec) [Leclerc et al., 2003; Blin et al., 2005].

### 6.2.1 Model set-up



Figure 6.9: Interpolation of echosounder bed topography in Modeleur and the addition of depth contour lines to provide a better interpolation: a) initial interpolation; b) added points and echo sounder data points; c) final interpolation.

The Saint-François River was used as a test case for H2D2. With the use of the Modeleur software tool a model was set up for the main channel of the Saint-François River. The data collection campaign was conducted to set up the 1 D model, but cross sections were taken sufficiently close together to be used for the 2D model. However, despite the short distance between cross sections, the interpolation of bed topography resulted in artificial bars, as clearly visible in Figure 6.9a near the outer bend bank. To improve the interpolation, contour lines (based on other topographic data from Environment Canada) perpendicular to the cross section data were added and transformed into points (Figure 6.9b). With the manually created points a new interpolation was performed which resulted in a smoother and more realistic bed topography (Figure 6.9c).

The created mesh contained only the river channel ( 7582 points and 3575 elements), on

|  | Low | Moderate | Bankfull |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Discharge $\left(\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right)$ | 65 | 200 | 550 |
| Water level $(\mathrm{m})$ | 3.87 | 4.45 | 6.35 |

Table 6.6: Discharge and water level in the Saint-François River for three flow stages.
which later the floodplain and part of the Saint-Lawrence River were added. The first step after creating the topography was to define the boundary conditions and calibrate the model parameters. As the mesh of the channel does not include the floodplains, the first simulations were done with low flow conditions measured on 19 and 20 July 2005 (Table 6.6). A bankfull simulation was done with the flow conditions measured on 26 and 27 April 2005 (Table 6.6). For convergence purposes an intermediate flow stage was used based on discharge and water level measured at gauging stations ( $Q=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ and $h_{d s}=4.45 \mathrm{~m}$, Table 6.6). A Manning$n$ value of 0.02 was used over the entire mesh, which is different from the value used in SEDROUT4-M (0.03) as 1D models represent a river as a straight channel and therefore do not include resistance by meanders. The value of $n$ for dry areas was set to 7. H2D2 allows for a spatially distributed roughness, which is necessary for the simulation of large rivers or for cases that include floodplains with different vegetation types. Full calibration of the model was not carried out as this was a first attempt to develop a model that would incorporate the main channel of the Saint-François River, its floodplain, as well as the Lake Saint-Pierre area to investigate the effects of increased sediment delivery on the morphology of the lake. Unfortunately, due to various reasons this model could not be set up within this thesis and therefore only hydraulic data from the Saint-François River are analysed here. However, the adaptation steps to reach this original objective are described below.

### 6.2.2 Adapting H2D2 for morphological simulations

The original H2D2 model can only deal with suspended sediment transport over static topography. To use this 2D model for the assessment of climate change impacts on sediment transport and topography, a bed-material or bed load formula needs to be added as well as a module to update bed elevation and bed composition. Identifying zones of primary accumulation within the Lake Saint-Pierre area could theoretically be done by only adding bed material transport, without updating the bed elevation as currently is the case with suspended sediment transport. In such a case, the sediment balance at each point could be used to see if erosion or sedimentation occurred under various hydrological conditions. This would provide a very rough indication of instantaneous erosion/sedimentation patterns, but it would not be possible to quantify the total accumulation.

The first step to incorporate bed-material transport in H2D2 was to add the Ackers and White [1973] total load transport formula to the code. The global and local parameters of

H2D2 were grouped to provide an overview of the information exchanged between the different modules of H2D2: SVC, CD2D, and SED2D, which are respectively the hydraulic, suspended sediment transport and bedload (to be developed) modules (Figure 6.10). The setup for this bedload module and the formulation of the total load formula for the code were carried out, but unfortunately, it was not possible to make the total integration with the code and include transport direction, bed elevation and bed composition updates.

The development of a sediment transport module that includes bed material requires more than just a transport formula. The bed elevation and bed composition need to be updated after each iteration and, more importantly, a 2D model requires the direction of sediment transport. The factors that determine the direction of bed material transport are: 1) the direction of flow near the bottom (caused by secondary flow) and, 2) the transverse bed gradients. The latter is a function of grain size as larger/heavier particles have a higher tendency to move downwards. Thus, contrary to secondary flow that has the same effect for all grain sizes the bed slope contributes to grain sorting in the transverse direction.

Both secondary flow and transverse bed slopes are the reason that bedload transport ratio at a bifurcation is not necessarily the same as the discharge ratio. However, counteracting effects could occur as a result of upstream meander bends or different channel slopes [Kleinhans et al., 2008].

Adaptation of the model to include this phenomenon requires a translation of the depthaveraged flow direction into a direction near the bottom. This can be done through secondary flow intensity, which is computed in H2D2. To fully simulate the direction of bed-material transport, the transverse bed slope is also needed. The formula for the angle between the applied shear stress and the sediment transport for a combination of transverse slope and secondary flow is derived by Struiksma et al. [1985]:
where $\frac{\delta z}{\delta y}$ is the transverse slope, $\frac{\delta z}{\delta x}$ is the longitudinal slope, $\beta_{s i}$ is the direction of sediment transport for size fraction $i$ and $\beta_{\tau}$ is the direction of the shear stress, where both directions are relative to the longitudinal direction. $f\left(\theta_{i}\right)$ is an empirical function derived from experiments


Figure 6.10: Overview of variables and constants that need to be exchanged between the different components of H2D2: SVC, CD2D, SED2D. In the upper-left corner the constants are listed and in the centre the variables that are calculated in post-treatment, and not by the modules themselves, are indicated.
by Talmon et al. [1995]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\theta_{i}\right)=9\left(\frac{D_{i}}{H}\right)^{0.3} \sqrt{\theta_{i}} \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\theta_{i}$ is the non dimensional shear stress (Shields number) for size fraction $i$ defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{i}=\frac{\tau}{\left(\rho_{s}-\rho\right) g D_{i}} \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the analyses with H2D2, only the hydraulic output of the Saint-François River was available. Sediment transport approximations were based on shear velocity magnitude and direction, although the direction was not corrected for the secondary flow effects as described above, nor is the bed slope effect on the direction of sediment transport.

### 6.2.3 Saint-François example

To assess the advantage of 2D modelling in the complex topography of the Saint-François River, we have compared our measured ADCP data at low and bankfull flow conditions with the results of simulations of the model created for the main channel of the Saint-François River. The simulations of H2D2 were also compared with those of SEDROUT4-M for these two flow conditions, as well as for an intermediate flow stage (Table 6.6). Overbank flow could not be included in the analysis as the model including the floodplains was not available and no ADCP data were taken at these high flow stages. Note that in the 1D simulations, we used a condition that forced water level in both branches at the bifurcation to be within 0.1 mm and another that fixed sediment transport ratio as being equal to the discharge ratio for all grain size fractions.

No sediment transport occurs at low flow stage. For the moderate and high flow stage, simulated hydraulics from H2D2 is transformed into an approximation of sediment transport rates by using the shear stress at each point and calculating the transport rate with the White and Day [1982] formula and parameters. These calculations were done in MATLAB with a constant grain size distribution that is equal to that measured at the cross sections near the permanent island in the Saint-François River. The direction of sediment transport is equal to the mean velocity of each velocity point and is not corrected for secondary flow and bed slope. The sediment transport rates from this simplified exercise only provide instantaneous transport capacity at the head of the two branches along the island.

### 6.2.3.1 Hydraulic comparison

|  | Low flow |  |  |  | Bankfull |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | SEDROUT4-M |  |  | H2D2 | SEDROUT4-M |  |  | H2D2 |
| Mean difference | 0.021 | $(16 \%)$ | -0.019 | $(-14 \%)$ | 0.029 | $(7 \%)$ | 0.042 | $(10 \%)$ |
| Mean absolute difference | 0.044 | $(33 \%)$ | 0.025 | $(18 \%)$ | 0.036 | $(8 \%)$ | 0.046 | $(11 \%)$ |
| Standard deviation | 0.036 |  | 0.016 |  | 0.036 |  | 0.031 |  |

Table 6.7: Mean difference, mean absolute difference, and standard deviation of cross-sectional average velocities between the models (SEDROUT4-M and H2D2) and the ADCP-measurements ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ ).

Hydraulic simulations with downstream water level and discharge measured during our field campaign show good agreement with water elevation (within 0.001 m ). Table 6.7 presents the mean difference, the mean absolute difference and the standard deviation of the average velocity at each cross section between the simulated values by SEDROUT4M, H2D2 and measured values with the ADCP. At bankfull stage the absolute difference is slightly larger for H2D2 than it is for SEDROUT4-M, but the standard deviation is smaller (also for low flow), meaning that the differences are more similar for each cross section in H2D2. Thus, despite not being fully calibrated, H2D2 is already giving good results. Figure 6.11 presents the relationship between the width-averaged H2D2 velocity and the simulated cross-sectional velocity of SEDROUT4-M at three different flow stages. With increasing flow stage the agreement between the two models is improving, with a regression slope getting close to 1 at bankfull stage. The complex flow field observed in the meander downstream of the island (Figure 6.12) is also well represented by H2D2.


Figure 6.11: Comparison of cross-sectional velocities simulated by SEDROUT4-M with H2D2 simulations three different flow stages: a) low flow; b) moderate flow; c) bankfull flow. Line represents regression the equation and $\mathrm{R}^{2}$ are given ate the bottom of each graph.

The discharge distribution at the bifurcation around the large island is presented in Figure 6.13a. The discharge split in H2D2 is approximated from the raw data by summing the specific discharge at each point along a cross section and multiplying by the distance between the points. Both the 1D and 2D models overestimate the discharge in the large western branch, with respectively $74-26 \%$ and $71-29 \%$ ratios, when ADCP measurements indicate a $68-32 \%$ split (Figure 6.13a). Under bankfull flow conditions, both models approach the measured ratio of 68-32\%, with 70-30\% for SEDROUT4-M and $69-31 \%$ for H2D2. Both models follow the trend of decreasing ratio with higher flow stage, but H2D2 is closest to the measured ratio than SEDROUT4-M. This can be


Figure 6.12: Velocity field at low flow conditions ( $60 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ) as simulated by H2D2. explained by the fact that the 2D model includes the topography and the momentum of the water discharge at the bifurcation. The good representation of the flow field in the bifurcation zone can be seen in Figure 6.7 at bankfull condition. H2D2 velocities are very similar to the ADCP data that show values of $0.35-0.38 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ at the cross sections directly downstream of the bifurcation (2 and 3), whereas H2D2 predicts velocities in the range of $0.40-0.43 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$. Velocities just upstream of the bifurcation (1) are also in the same range ( $0.47 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ from ADCP data and $0.50-0.53 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ in H2D2).

### 6.2.3.2 Morphological comparison

The sediment transport rates from H2D2 are instantaneous rates based on a fixed grain size distribution, whereas the SEDROUT4-M rates are the rates over a one-day simulation. By definition, the sediment transport ratio is the same as the discharge ratio for SEDROUT4M. The ratio for H2D2 is about 0.5 for bankfull flow, which does not seem to be realistic (Figure 6.13b), at lower flow stages no sediment transport occurred around the island. How-
ever, this is actually the transport capacity for bed-material at the initial condition, as bed composition changes over time relatively quickly compared to bed elevation which would change after a certain number of iterations. This ratio would likely change through time due to the water sediment interaction and supply from upstream. Indeed, morphological models need some adaptation time at the start-up to correctly represent the sediment transport rates from initial settings because grain size data of the river bed is sparsely sampled and the grain size distribution is averaged over large areas.

The ratio of sediment transport between


Figure 6.13: a) Ratio of discharge at the bifurcation (large island) for three flow stages as obtained from ADCP measurements, SEDROUT4-M and H2D2 simulations; b) Sediment transport rate at the bifurcation obtained from SEDROUT4-M and H2D2. $Q_{2}$ and $Q_{3}$ are the discharges in the bifurcated channels. the two channels of the Saint-François River is a good example of the complexity of 2D morphological modelling. Sediment transport distribution cannot simply be subtracted from instantaneous flow fields based on average water velocity directions, the feedback loop of sediment transport on bed elevation and bed composition is not present in the model. It also confirms that the sediment transport rates at the beginning of each simulation are very sensitive to the initial conditions. A more careful integration of sediment transport is required to solve the sediment transport equation, which is currently underway through post-doctoral work carried out at INRS-ETE (Dr. Muluneh Mekonnen, under the supervision of Drs. Yves Secretan and Pascale Biron).

The H2D2 bankfull simulations indicate that velocities drop to values under $0.38 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ over the entire width of the channel in the eastern branch along the island (Figure 6.7). This zone of low velocities starts at the location where sedimentation occurs in the long-term SEDROUT4M simulations. This is another indication that the sedimentation that was simulated in 1D is not artificial, but the development over time should be investigated more closely. Island channels are normally relatively stable - compared to, say, multiple channels in gravel braided
rivers which are not always morphologically active. However, in this sand-bed river, a similar situation may occur, where one of the channels is markedly less active than the other.

### 6.2.4 Discussion

Although the hydraulic performance of H2D2 around the island in the Saint-François River seems superior to that of SEDROUT4-M, the morphological results based on the instantaneous flow field are not very promising. Morphodynamic models need some adaptation time at the start-up and, as shown by Ferguson and Church [2009], the model spin-up (alos called zeroing or priming) can have a substantial influence on the results. However, a fully integrated sediment transport module has the potential to overcome this low performance of H2D2. Unfortunately, we have no available measurements of the sediment discharge distribution at the bifurcation of the island to further examine this question.

Sediment distribution at bifurcations in rivers are not fully understood [Bolla Pittaluga et al., 2003; Federici and Paola, 2003; Bertoldi and Tubino, 2007]. Morphodynamic modelling of rivers with bifurcations remains a challenge in both 1D and 2D, nevertheless good results with both 1D and 2D models have been obtained [Zanichelli et al., 2004; Miori et al., 2006]. The analysis here shows that 2D modelling has a better representation of the discharge distribution at the bifurcation in the Saint-François River. Therefore, it has the potential to give better morphological results than SEDROUT4-M.

For 2D models, the grain size distribution in the lateral direction becomes important. This is because, on the one hand, sediment transport is not equally distributed over the river width [Frings and Kleinhans, 2008], which is an important factor in sediment distribution at bifurcations. On the other hand, velocities are variable over the width. As sediment transport is a non-linear function of velocity, good results can only be expected if the correct grain size distribution is used. This is one of the reasons why the transport rates could be different for the approximation of the H2D2 hydraulic results.

It would have been interesting to also be able to investigate the complex multiple bifurcation geometry of the Saint-Maurice River with H2D2. This was unfortunately not possible in this study due to lack of time, but, based on the results of the Saint-François bifurcation, it seems likely that results closer to ADCP measurements would have been obtained.

The debate on the optimal dimension (i.e. 1D, 2D or 3D) of models for river simulations is still open. Clearly, the flow field in complex channels is better represented in 2D and 3D
models. As mentioned previously, running long-term simulations for long reaches in 3D remains unrealistic at this point both due to the amount of data required for calibration and validation and to computer processing time limitations. The choice is therefore between a 1 D and 2D approach. There is no doubt that 2D models are conceptually superior to 1D models, but in river management, 1D models remain widely used [Ferguson and Church, 2009].

A complex reach of the Fraser River (British Columbia) was modelled with both a 1D model [SEDROUT Ferguson and Church, 2009] and a 2D model using a commercial 2D code [MIKE21C DHI, 1999] in fixed-bed mode [Li and Millar, 2007; Li et al., 2008]. Both models used the same transport equation [Parker, 1990b]. Interestingly, the 2D model did not reproduce the aggradation profile as well as the 1D model in this case. Results from the 2D model could have been better if the model had been run in full morphodynamic mode [Ferguson and Church, 2009], but the 2D model still predicted unrealistically large values of bed shear stress around bar margins [Ferguson, 2008; Li et al., 2008], which is problematic in this reach of the Fraser River where bar features are ubiquitous.

## CHAPTER 7

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

This thesis has investigated the morphological effects of climate change on tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River through changes in discharge and base level. The 1D-morphodynamic model SEDROUT was adapted to deal with these types of changes and to the morphological and topographic settings of the selected tributaries. This concluding chapter first summarizes the key findings from the morphodynamic simulations presented in chapters 3 to 5 and from the investigation of the potential of a 2D-model for long term simulations (chapter 6). A general discussion of these findings is then presented and is followed by suggestions for future research.

### 7.1 Key findings

The 1D model SEDROUT was chosen for this study because it was felt that it was robust and adaptable - the collaboration with the two researchers who have developed the model (Trevor Hoey and Rob Ferguson) helped in understanding the model and facilitated the implementation of new modules in the existing model. This model has now been used in a variety of geomorphological contexts, ranging from small [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] to large rivers such as the Fraser River [Ferguson and Church, 2009] and now the tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence River, from gravel [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] to sand and mixed sand and gravel [Ferguson et al., 2001], and in aggradational [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994; Ferguson et al., 2001; Talbot and Lapointe, 2002] and degradational cases [Talbot and Lapointe, 2002]. The modifications made in this study (chapter 3) broaden even further the types of problems that can now be solved with a strong level of confidence in the results. This is a significant outcome of this thesis as the impacts of near-future climate-induced changes on discharge and base level in large lowland sandbedded rivers subject to tidal fluctuations will need to be assessed in many parts of the world.

Overall the volume of bed material delivered from the Saint-Lawrence tributaries will increase in the near future regardless of the GCM scenario used to generate discharge time series. The expected water level fall in the Saint-Lawrence River also leads to increased
sediment transport, which could have significant consequences for Lake Saint-Pierre as it is already undergoing sedimentation [Carignan and Lorrain, 2000]. Increased bed-material transport is associated with increased maximum discharge and a shift in timing of spring floods towards the winter. More frequent large flood events, with high recurrence intervals, have a dominating impact on the river response (chapter 5). Furthermore, chapter 4 revealed that bed elevations are affected up until relatively large distances upstream. Bed lowering may have consequences for infrastructures within the downstream parts of these rivers, for example for bridge piers. Additionally, the risk of flooding has been shown to increase despite the expected bed erosion because of the predicted increase in frequency and magnitude of large floods (chapter 5).

The analyses of mean annual bed-material transport rates and bed elevations were conducted by comparing the outcome of different scenarios with a reference scenario (chapter 4), in order to minimize the uncertainties in global climate change modelling. Comparison of annual bed-material transport rates and bed elevation revealed that variation from different GCMs is larger than that due to base level drop and GHG scenarios. This raises the question of why these discharge scenarios have such a large influence on the morphological adjustment of rivers when the mean daily and mean annual maximum discharge remained relatively similar. Chapter 5 provides some insight on this question as it reveals that the large change in sediment transport comes partly from an increased variability in the hydrograph and partly because of a change in timing of the spring flood compared to the water levels in the SaintLawrence River.

Although the 1D-model has satisfactorily simulated three of the five selected tributaries, the difficulties encountered with the Yamachiche and Saint-Maurice rivers are a good illustration of the challenges that remain in numerical modelling of river morphology (chapter 6). The Yamachiche River problems indicate that the cross-sectional distance relative to the river width is important, although no standard rule is available and therefore it remains a subjective decision to be made by the researcher. The difficulty of adequately capturing a complex river geometry with a 1D model is revealed in both the Saint-Maurice and Saint-François River simulations. There is an obvious advantage in cases of islands and bifurcations to consider the use of a 2D-morphodynamic approach. However, in river management, a 2D approach remains difficult due to the much larger data input requirements.

### 7.2 Discussion

One of the major challenges in predicting the impacts of climate change on rivers is to deal with the cumulative uncertainty in predicted scenarios and models. In any modelling project, one has to manage uncertainty in measurements, modelling approximations, simplification, assumptions and validation. However, even if this study focussed on the impact of discharge and water level changes on sediment transport of different rivers, an important component of each chapter - chapter 4 in particular - involved justifying the choice of GCMs, of the downscaling approach and of a hydrological model to convert temperature and precipitation changes into daily discharges.

The choice of the GCMs used in this study, CSIRO-Mk2, ECHAM4 and HadCM3, and the use of the perturbation method have an obvious effect on the obtained results. However, the GCM models are covering different possible outputs for near future temperature and precipitation and therefore include most of the possible outputs. For the water level scenarios in the Saint-Lawrence River, only future time series (quarter months) are available for the 2040-2069 horizon [Morin et al., 2009]. These time series were constructed in a similar way as the discharge for the tributaries, but only for the middle horizon and they are therefore not providing information on how the water level decrease will evolve through time. The adopted strategy to use two simple scenarios for the Saint-Lawrence water levels removed any potential bias in the modelling approach, as well as in the natural variability. The latter could have some consequences on the effects of timing, although having scenarios of water levels based on the same time period as the discharge for the tributaries could introduce a dependency on the timing of discharge and water levels that does actually not exist.

Because of the emphasis on the initial steps (which were not strictly speaking part of this study), perhaps less attention has been given in this thesis to the uncertainty in the morphodynamic modelling itself. The latter can be very important as sediment transport formulae are not very precise - bedload formulae that predict transport rates within one-half or twice the observed amounts are sparse [White and Crabbe, 1975; Andrews, 1981; Batalla, 1997; Mueller et al., 2008]. The very good fit between SEDROUT simulations and field measurements in the Fraser River [Ferguson and Church, 2009] strengthens our confidence in SEDROUT results considering that the complexity of the Fraser River is much higher than that of the studied tributaries. Thus, at this point, we feel that the uncertainty in climate modelling
was much greater than the uncertainty in morphological modelling. The climate scenarios used in this study, generated in 2005, were chosen to cover a range of GCM outcomes in order to compare their effects. The recent trend in climate change simulations is to use an ensemble of models, from which the average outcome as well as some extremes can be used with a hydrological model to examine discharge impacts [Graham et al., 2007; Leutbecher and Palmer, 2008]. Inherent to future climate change research is the difficulty of translating global trends to local effects on precipitation and temperature. With rapid improvements in reducing the uncertainty in climate modelling and in downscaling at the local scale [Rydgren et al., 2007], it should be possible to obtain in the near future even more reliable predictions of river adjustment to climate change.

Uncertainty comes from the climate models or scenarios, but the use of a hydrological model contributes to the uncertainty as well. The generation of discharge scenarios was beyond the scope of this research, but the fact that only one hydrological model was used could have an influence on the obtained results. Ideally, it other hydrological models should have been tested to verify it similar changes would have been predicted. However, given the high Nash coefficients for all of the tributaries, one could speculate that the differences with other models should be relatively minor.

The lack of field data, particularly on sediment transport, makes it virtually impossible to calibrate and validate thoroughly morphodynamic models [Cao and Carling, 2002b; Gomez et al., 2009]. Examples of extensive field data sets over longer time periods are very sparse, although they exist for the Fraser River [McLean et al., 1999; McLean and Church, 1999; Rice et al., 2009] and Waipaoa River [Gomez et al., 2009]. Long-term data sets on bed and bank topography and sedimentology require considerable efforts, especially when a sufficient spatial and temporal resolution is needed for both model setup and model verification. Considering the economical and ecological importance of the Saint-Lawrence River, it is surprising that virtually no information on either bed topography, grain size distribution or velocity of its tributaries was available at the onset of this project. In contrast, there is a wealth of data on the Saint-Lawrence River [Carignan and Lorrain, 2000; Morin et al., 2000, 2005; Hudon, 2004; Hudon and Carignan, 2008, among others]. However, it will not be possible to make predictions of the future state of the Saint-Lawrence River without knowing what quantities of sediments will be delivered from its tributaries under future climate. In order to make full use of the potential of numerical modelling, a monitoring program should be put in place to at
least obtain data on the downstream sections of the key tributaries. With recent technological developments such as the green lidar [McKean and Isaak, 2009], it may be possible to obtain very detailed bed topography datasets under water at a very high spatial resolution. It may not be as simple to collect sedimentological data, although recent photogrammetric findings on automating the characterization of gravel-bed surfaces [Butler et al., 2002; Carbonneau et al., 2005] are also promising.

Interestingly, the three tributaries for which it was possible to run long-term simulations with the 1D model were in different morphological states according to simulations with the RefQ scenario, i.e aggradation for the Batiscan River, near-equilibrium for the Richelieu River, and degradation for the Saint-François River (chapter 4). This information was not known when the tributaries were selected, but it allowed further generalization of our results. Indeed, if all rivers had been, say, in an aggradational state, wrong conclusions may have been drawn as the variation in the sediment transport trends for different scenarios was considerable between the three rivers. This question probably requires a more systematic investigation.

When generalizing the results obtained in this study to other rivers in the world, it must be remembered that the Saint-Lawrence River may be a special case compared to other watersheds, partly because of the impact of climate change on the Great Lakes (the source of the Saint-Lawrence River), which will result in lower discharges under future climate, and hence provide lower base levels for its tributaries. In many other areas, a sea-level rise, and hence an increase in base level for tributaries, is predicted. Although the modified 1D model SEDROUT4-M should be able to deal with either an increase or a decrease in base level, obviously the conclusion of this study that climate change will in general increase the amount of sediments delivered to the main channel are specific to the base level drop situation. Another characteristic of the Saint-Lawrence watershed is the importance of the spring flood and the impact of climate change on winter temperature and, therefore, on the timing of the peak annual flow. It is possible that climate-induced changes on discharge would be less in a context where spring flood is less dominant in the yearly flood hydrograph.

In general the near-future scenarios lead to an increase in sediment transport towards the Saint-Lawrence River compared to the reference discharge scenarios. However, the ECHAM4 model, which is simulating the smallest change in precipitation and the largest in temperature, predicts similar bedload transport or even a decrease in the future. Further-
more, in general, not only the sediment volume but also the timing is expected to change. This could have consequences for ecology as certain species such as invertebrates depend on sediment transport. The increase in sediment transport volume within the Richelieu has consequences for the harbour in its downstream reach and for the Saint-Lawrence seaway. The increased sediment delivery would likely require more dredging in the near future. As for the Saint-François River, the situation is different. The sediment transport increases compared to the reference scenario, although over time the river approaches the equilibrium state, therefore the volume is actually decreasing over time in all the scenarios. This decrease over time is smaller for the GCM-scenarios than it is for the RefQ-scenario. This would mean that the propagation of its delta as observed in the past [Bondue et al., 2006] will continue at a slower rate than in the past, but for the GCM-scenarios the propagation of the delta would be faster than it would be under the RefQ scenario. The propagation of the delta leads to a diminution in water surface area of Lake Saint-Pierre, on the other hand it increases the perimeter of this lake, as the river mouth reaches further into the lake when the sediment volume is not sufficient to fill in the whole lake.

### 7.3 Future research

This research focused on in-channel processes, but there is a need for a more integrative modelling approach that would also take into account the connectivity between channels and hillslopes. The connectivity issue was not perceived as essential in this study where lowland rivers were examined, but it is clearly crucial in upland reaches [Lane et al., 2007, 2008; Raven et al., 2009]. Future research should examine the applicability of combining a landscape model such as CAESAR [Coulthard, 2002; Hancock, 2009] with either a 1D or 2D morphodynamic model to be able to simulating the impacts of varying sediment supply on river adjustment. Such a model should incorporate the effects of vegetation changes on sediment delivery and river adjustment.

The importance of extreme events on river adjustment was addressed in this study. However, different downscaling approaches would need to be tested as the perturbation method used here is known to be less accurate for individual floods. Considering the importance of large floods for sediment transport and flood risk, it is essential to test how other methods would affect future discharge time series, and what the resulting impact on river bed eleva-
tion and sediment transport delivery would be. Large events are also most likely to generate major planform changes through bank erosion, a process that is still not well integrated in morphodynamic models and that needs to receive more attention in future studies.

Finally, the uncertainty in morphodynamic modelling and the sensitivity of the model to input parameters would need to be addressed more thoroughly in order to provide information to river managers in terms of probability that certain river adjustments would occur under future climate. In all cases, there is a clear requirement for more complete field datasets to calibrate and validate simulation results. This should be facilitated by technological progress in the automation of bed topography and sedimentology data collection, but there also needs to be a political will to fund field monitoring programs as part of climate change adaptation plans.

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## Appendix I

## Accord des coauteurs et permission de l'éditeur

Patrick Michiel Verhaar, PhD, Geography

## Article 1

Verhaar PM, Biron PM, Ferguson RI, Hoey TB, A modified morphodynamic model for investigating the response of rivers to short-term climate change, Geomorphology, 101(4),674682, 1 November 2008.

By title of co-author of the article identified above I grand permission to Patrick Verhaar to include this article in his PhD-thesis entitled: Numerical modelling of the impact of climate change on morphology of the Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries, which will be completed at Université de Montréal by the end of 2009.

Patrick Michiel Verhaar, PhD, Geography

Article 2

Verhaar PM, Biron PM, Ferguson RI, Hoey TB, Numerical modelling of climate change impacts on Saint-Lawrence River tributaries, Earth Surface Processes and Landforms, in press, accepted on October 14th 2009.

By title of co-author of the article identified above I grand permission to Patrick Verhaar to include this article in his PhD-thesis entitled: Numerical modelling of the impact of climate change on morphology of the Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries, which will be completed at Université de Montréal by the end of 2009.

Patrick Michiel Verhaar, PhD, Geography

## Article 3

Verhaar PM, Biron PM, Ferguson RI, Hoey TB, Implications of climate change for the magnitude and frequency of bed-material transport in tributaries of the Saint-Lawrence, Hydrological Processes, to be submitted.

By title of co-authors of the article identified above I grand permission to Patrick Verhaar to include this article in his PhD-thesis entitled: Numerical modelling of the impact of climate change on morphology of the Saint-Lawrence River and its tributaries, which will be completed at Université de Montréal by the end of 2009.

## Appendix II

## Bed material transport formulae

## II. 1 Wilcock and Crowe formula

The similarity collapse has the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=f\left(\frac{\tau}{\tau_{r i}}\right) \tag{II.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau$ is the bed shear stress, $\tau_{r i}$ is the reference shear stress of size fraction $i$ and $Q_{s i}^{\star}$ is the dimensionless sediment transport rate of size fraction $i$ defined by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=\frac{(s-1) g q_{i b}}{F_{i} u_{\star}^{3}} \tag{II.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s$ is the ratio of sediment to water density, $g$ is the acceleration due to gravity, $q_{i b}$ is the volumetric bed material transport per unit width of size $i, F_{i}$ is the proportion of fraction $i$ in surface size distribution and $u_{\star}$ is the shear velocity.

The shear stress reference value $\tau_{r i}$ is scaled against that of the mixture by comparing the grain size diameter:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\tau_{r i}}{\tau_{r s 50}}=\left(\frac{D_{i}}{D_{s 50}}\right)^{k} \tag{II.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau_{r s 50}$ is the shear stress of $D_{s 50}, D_{i}$ is the grain size of fraction $i, D_{s 50}$ is the median grain size of bed surface and $k$, the exponent, is defined by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=\frac{0.67}{1+\exp \left(1.5-\frac{D_{i}}{D_{s m}}\right)} \tag{II.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{s m}$ is the mean grain size of bed surface. The function fitted to the transport observations is:

$$
Q_{s i}^{\star}= \begin{cases}0.002 \psi^{7.5} & \text { for } \psi<1.35  \tag{II.5}\\ 14\left(1-\frac{0.894}{\psi^{0.5}}\right)^{4.5} & \text { for } \psi \geq 1.35\end{cases}
$$

where $\psi=\tau / \tau_{r i}$.

## II-2

## II. 2 Ackers and White formula

It is defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=C\left\{\frac{F_{g r i}}{A_{i}}-1\right\}^{d} \tag{II.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{g r i}$ is the mobility number of sediment in the $i$ th fraction and $C, A_{i}$ and $d$ are empirical coefficients depending on the dimensionless particle size $\left(D_{g r i}\right)$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}^{\star}=\frac{X_{i} H}{s D_{i}}\left\{\frac{u_{\star}}{U}\right\}^{e} \tag{II.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{i}$ is rate of sediment transport in terms of mass flow per unit flow rate for the $i$ th fraction, $H$ is the water depth, $U$ is the mean velocity, $e$ is a transition exponent that is a function of the dimensionless particle size.

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{g r i}=\frac{u_{\star}^{e}}{\left[g D_{i}(s-1)\right]^{1 / 2}}\left\{\frac{U}{\sqrt{32} \log _{10}\left(\alpha H / D_{i}\right)}\right\}^{1-e} \tag{II.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\alpha=10$ for turbulent flow.

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{g r i}=D_{i}\left\{\frac{g(s-1)}{v^{2}}\right\}^{1 / 3} \tag{II.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{g r i}$ is the dimensionless particle size of the $i$ th fraction and $v$ is the kinematic viscosity of water.

The coefficients $e, A_{i}, d$ and $C$ are defined as follows depending on the dimensionless particle size.

$$
D_{g r i}>60: \quad 60 \geq D_{g r i} \geq 1:
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
e & =0.000 \text { (II.10) } & e & =1.00-0.56 \log _{10} D_{g r i}  \tag{II.14}\\
A_{i} & =0.170 \text { (II.11) } & A_{i} & =\frac{0.23}{\sqrt{D_{g r i}}}+0.14 \\
d & =1.500 \text { (II.12) } & d & =\frac{9.66}{D_{g r}}+1.34 \\
C & =0.025 \text { (II.13) } & \log _{10} C & =2.86 \log _{10} D_{g r i}-\left(\log _{10} D_{g r i}\right)^{2}-3.53
\end{align*}
$$

For Wallingford [1990] $d$ and $C$ are different from the original settings of Ackers and White [1973].

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
D_{g r i}>60: & 60 & \geq D_{g r i} \geq 1: \\
d=1.78 & \text { (II.18) } & d & =\frac{6.83}{D_{g r i}}+1.67 \\
& & \log _{10} C & =2.79 \log _{10} D_{g r i}-\left(0.98 \log _{10} D_{g r i}\right)^{2}-3.46(\text { II.20 })
\end{array}
$$

In equation $2.4 A_{i}$ is replaced with $A_{i}^{\prime}$ for the White and Day [1982] settings and is calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{i}^{\prime} & =\left(0.4 \frac{D_{a}}{\sqrt{D_{50}}}+0.6\right) A_{i}  \tag{II.21}\\
D_{a} & =D_{50}\left(1.62\left(\frac{D_{84}}{D_{16}}\right)^{0.5}\right)^{-0.55} \tag{II.22}
\end{align*}
$$

where $D_{a}$ is the particle size that begins to move under the same conditions as uniform material and $D_{16}, D_{50}$ and $D_{84}$ represent the subsurface particle size for which respectively $16 \%$, $50 \%$ and $84 \%$ of the sediment sample is finer. Finally the sediment transport rate can be calculated from the sediment transport rate in terms of mass per unit flow rate $\left(X_{i}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{s i}=X_{i} Q \frac{\rho_{s}}{\rho} \tag{II.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q_{s i}$ is the total bed-material transport rate for fraction $i, Q$ is the water discharge, $\rho$ the density of water and $\rho_{s}$ the density of sediments.

## Appendix III

## SEDROUT4-M FORTRAN code

In the first part of the SEDROUT4-M code the changes made are shortly described in reversed chronological order. This appendix presents code after describing some changes to the code that are not presented in Verhaar et al. [2008]. The version 22 is the one that is described in Verhaar et al. [2008] (see chapter 3) under the SEDROUT4-M version, later $.22 \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ and c were released to write more variables every day, when the daily output option is used. New code (loops and statements) is marked by C PATRICK at the start and C END at the end, single added or changed lines are just marked C PATRICK in the line above, both are accompanied with a short description where possible. Added subroutines are marked at the beginning with C PATRICK*** with a short description of the routine's function, similar to the original code.

The main changes to the code to allow for variable flow, downstream water level changes including tide, sand-bed rivers and daily output are described in Verhaar et al. [2008] (see chapter 3). Some technicalities that are not presented in the paper are described below and include a change in time administration, more detailed information on how the daily discharge and water level are handled and on the adjustment of the definition of transport layer thickness. Also the option to have a backwater curve from the downstream cross section was made available (the original version only allowed for equilibrium water levels at the downstream boundary).

The original version of SEDROUT [Hoey and Ferguson, 1994] based the time administration on keeping track of the cumulative seconds that passed. The input data provided by Ouranos [see Chaumont and Chartier, 2005, for more details] contains daily averaged discharges, therefore the time administration is converted to a calendar date and time format, including leap years. The time step management is changed to assure that the cumulative time by the end of each day will be exactly a multiple of $86400 \mathrm{~s}(24 \times 60 \times 60)$ and the discharge and water level will be updated exactly at midnight of each day. In the case of tide at the downstream boundary a multiple of $3600 \mathrm{~s}(60 \times 60)$ is used to have the water level updated exactly every hour. The time module checks every time step if the multiple of 86400 s

## III-2

or 3600 s will be exceeded in the the next two iterations to keep the initial time step for the new boundary conditions as large as possible.

As explained in chapter 3 a quasi-steady flow approach is used in our simulations: in accordance with the data provided by Ouranos the update of the hydrological boundary conditions is done once a day, when there is no tide, otherwise the maximum time step is set to 1 h . Test runs have shown [Verhaar et al., 2008, chapter 3] that this is sufficient for the Batiscan River. Daily discharges are stored in . qdt-files covering one calendar year with the last four characters of the file name corresponding to the year (i.e. FrEA2010.qdt, FrEA2011.qdt, etc.). During the simulation at the end of every year the file of the next year is read and stored in a vector of the memory. The water level file contains a yearly time series of values that is reused throughout the simulation and changed accordingly to the water level scenario and/or tide specified in the .ini-file.

If the multiple channel option is used an extra routine is used to assure convergence of the water level and to assure that the discharge redistribution is not oscillating between two values. Also in the case of two bifurcations that are influencing each other it assures that both will find a satisfactory discharge ratio that match the specified accuracy.

Overview of added subroutines:

- ACKERS
- QDATA
- NEWDATE
- READQDATA
- QDISTRIB
- WATERLEVEL
- READWLD

| CHANGES MADE BY PATRICK VERHAAR JUNE 2005 <br> All changes within C PATRICK and C END marks (5) Variable discharge option programmed. Read *.qdt file <br> (4) Courant condition changed for constant layer thickness <br> DZTOL $=1 \%$ of transport layer. Future change to sand river <br> condition like $\mathrm{D} 84<0.01 \mathrm{~m}$ or so. <br> (3) Made the constant transport layer thickness working and <br> added output-file with transport layer thickness and interpolate the discharge at each iteration. <br> (2) Output-file with time step data (elapsed time, time step <br> and critical time step) <br> (1) Constant roughness equation added: $n=a$ <br> IMPORTANT CHANGE FEB 2004 <br> For all runs a file SEDFILES. INI must be present. This <br> contains a list of the 4 control files for each run as follows. NB the names of input files are not now included <br> in the ini file. *.ini $\quad$ name of control file <br> *.sds name of cross-section data file <br> *.gss name of grain-size file *.qdt <br> Changes made September/October 2001 by TBH. <br> (1) Old INFO and SEDINFO arrays are now declared in COMMON <br> blocks, or simply passed as individual variables <br> All Separate subroutine libraries (DLLs) have been removed. <br> and linking easier - so transferability should be improved. <br> All code is now in one file. This makes program compilation <br> (3) The run is now controlled in years so far as the user <br> sees things at both input and output stages. The program still uses seconds. ini files must contain run lengths <br> and writing intervals in years <br> (4) Output file formats and options have been modified. The <br> old output files can still be produced and the .res and inf <br> files are written by default. Additional files for all key <br> variables can be written, with cross-sections in columns and <br> times in rows. The specification of which files to write is <br> located at the end of the ini file. Note that file code <br> numbers have nearly all been altered <br> the program uses $x>9000$ as its test for end-of-file <br> (5) The end of file indicator in . SDS files is now 9999, as |
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SEDROUT 4-M 15 April 2008

| ES MADE bY PATRICK VERHAAR AUGUST UNTIL APRIL 200 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| SEDROUT5.0.22 is published in Ge |  |
|  |  |
| SEDROUT4M, later version a, b and c are added. <br> (22c) write all output in daily files for DAILY in ini-file |  |
|  |  |
| (22b) Also write water level elevation at each day |  |
| (22a) Writing sediment transport data at the end of each day |  |
|  |  |
| (22) Tidal option added if no tide use 0 in .ini file |  |
|  |  |
| The downstream water level is updated every hour, the tidal period used is 12 hours. For tide specify the amplitude half the |  |
| en |  |
| (21) Ackers and White corrected. WLDFILE added. TOL read in |  |
|  |  |
| Total sediment volume saved for each section of |  |
| (20) Island (multi-channel) option. Extra input required inini-file: Specify number of sections "NSECT" (single channel |  |
|  |  |
| ches) after number of $x$. (use 1 if no island). |  |
| specify NSECT-1 times the upstream xs number as located in .sds-file followed by the section number(s) directly downstream of this section two numbers need to be specified if there is |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| 1 section downstream last number MUST be 0 . |  |
| All up and downstream xs must be specified tree times in the .sds-file. |  |
| (19) Grain size distribution with fixed levels for |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| for the use with variable discharge (not devided by width) (17) Friction factor (FF) calculated in SFRICT-subroutine |  |
| (16) TEXTDATE and TEXTTIME are now stored instead of TIMEYR |  |
| Outfile (39) for lowest point of each cross section (.LP). |  |
| (15) RMETHOD option 6 added, specify discharge and calculate |  |
|  |  |
| (14) Multiple files with discharge and/or water |  |
| used. Data can be stored in a separate folder by specif |  |
|  |  |
| date may be different from the first date in the file, but must appear in that file. |  |
|  |  |
| (13) Time is converted into date, also a begin and end date n to be specified in ini-file. Program still uses seconds. |  |
|  |  |
| to be specified in ini-file. Program still uses seconds. <br> (12) Output-files are now stored after each writing to ensure |  |
| data is also available when program cras |  |
| CHANGES MADE BY PATRICK VERHAAR JULY 2005 |  |
| (11) Ackers and White's transport formula, use ACKERS1973 ACKERS 1990 or ACKERSDAY to select the values of parameters |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| (10) Max number in loops with SURV-data changed to 100 instead of 50 , all data points are used. |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| (9) RMEIHOD option 5 added, specified discharge and |  |
| -w |  |
|  |  |
| (8) Extention can be done by a specified slope in th |  |
| To avoid problems with rivers with a small or negative slope |  |
|  |  |
| ${ }^{\text {a }}$ first approximation of the water level must be specified |  |
| in the ini-file when using RMEIHOD 1. |  |
|  |  |
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| 125 | C | equation option (.ini file code is 'WILCOCK') |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 126 | C |  |
| 127 | C | Changes made August 2003 |
| 128 | C | (11) Tributary inputs generalised to up to 5 tributaries. |
| 129 | C | Input format details are in runinfo.ini file. |
| 130 | C |  |
| 131 | C | Changes made December 2003 |
| 132 | C | (12) Option for defining active layer thickness as k.Dgm |
| 133 | C | (surface geometric mean size) added. |
| 134 | C | (13) Dgm now written to res file, which now contains 18 |
| 135 | C | columns (see .inf file for details) |
| 136 | C |  |
| 137 | C | Changes made September 2004 |
| 138 | C | (14) Option to output surface, sub-surface and bedload D90 added |
| 139 | C |  |
| 140 | C | Arrays that contain information about model nodes. |
| 141 |  | REAL ACTSTART (125), |
| 142 |  | +BACKBED (125,25) , BACKLAYER (125) , $\operatorname{BACKMAX}(125)$, $\operatorname{BACKSED}(125,26)$, |
| 143 |  | $+\operatorname{BACKSIZE}(5,125,25), \operatorname{BEDCH}(2,125), \operatorname{BEDFRACT}(125,25)$, |
| 144 |  | +CRITWS (250), |
| 145 |  | +D165084ACT $(4,250)$, D165084SUB $(4,250)$, D165084BLD $(4,250)$, |
| 146 |  | +DGMACT(250), DISTANCE (250), |
| 147 |  | +ESLOPE(250), |
| 148 |  | +FFACTOR (250), FR(250), |
| 149 |  | +MANNING (250), MAXALTDEP (125) ,MEANDEP (250), |
| 150 |  | +NEWSURV (100,500), |
| 151 |  | +QBEDLOAD (125) , |
| 152 |  | +R(250) |
| 153 |  | +SCRIT (250), SIZELAYER (5,125,25), SIZESTART(5,125,25), |
| 154 |  | +SUBTHICK (125), SURV (100,500), |
| 155 |  | +THICKLAYER (125), $\operatorname{TRACERS}(500,5)$, |
| 156 |  | +VELOCITY (250), VOLCH $(2,125)$, |
| 157 |  | +WATSURF (250), WSWIDTH(250) |
| 158 | C |  |
| 159 | C | Real variables used during calculations and parameter settings |
| 160 | C | etc |
| 161 |  | REAL APP, |
| 162 |  | +BACKDT,BACKHDIFF(25), BACKQSECT (25), BEDDS, BEDDS1, |
| 163 |  | +DEFREAL (20), DELTAH,DELTAT, DELTATC, DIMTAU,DISPLAY, |
| 164 |  | +DSDEPTH (500), DSWATER(500), DXINT, |
| 165 |  | +ERR1,ERROR,EXPROP (25),EXTSLOPE, |
| 166 |  | +G, |
| 167 |  | +HDS1,HDSC, HEST, HLOW, $\mathrm{HRAD}, \mathrm{HSC}(25)$, $\mathrm{HDIFF}(25)$, HCHANGE , |
| 168 |  | +INSED (26), |
| 169 |  | +KACTIVE,KVISC, |
| 170 |  | +MANNINGN,LOWPOINT ( 125) ,MSECT, |
| 171 |  | +PARKER ( 36,3 ) , PARAM ( 5 ) , PCELAPSE, $\operatorname{PCSAND}(125)$, |
| 172 |  | +Q(250), QBIN, QBFRACTIN(25), QDS (500), QEST, QSECT (25), QSECTMAX (25), |
| 173 |  | +QSECTMIN ( 25 ) , |
| 174 |  | +RHO, RHOSED, RDATE (6) , RESTDATE, |
| 175 |  | +SEDTOTAL (10), SEDCHTOT ( 25,2 ), SIZEFINE (25), SS ,STRAINC, |
| 176 |  | +TAU, TINT, TLENGTH, TELAPSE, TELAPSEYR,THROPUT, TIMEYR,TMAX, TPOS, TOL, |
| 177 |  | +TRACEL, TREC, TRIBFRACT ( 25,5 ) , TRIBK (5), TRIBLOC( 5 ) , TRIBQ ( 5 ) , |
| 178 |  | +TRIBQB (5) ,TRWRITE,TSTART ,TTOTAL, TW, TIDE , |
| 179 |  | +UBAR, UNITGB, UNITGBIN |
| 180 | C |  |
| 181 |  | INTEGER A, ACTIVE, |
| 182 |  | +BIFUR (25), |
| 183 |  | +CODE (250), CH , CHECK , CHECKOSS (25), |
| 184 |  | +DATE (7) ,DEBUG, DEFINT ( 10 ), DIFF, DTINT , DXTEST, DAILY , |
| 185 |  | +ENDDATE (3), EQUATION, EQUCODE, |
| 186 |  | +HDATE (5000 , 2) , HT , HTYPE , HYEAR, |




[^4]




## III-8












III-11





[^5]

## 
























| 2915 | C |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2916 | C | ***************************************************************** |
| 2917 |  | SUBROUTINE APPROX (SURV,ESTMIN,DIFFMIN ,XSN, Q,MEANDEP, |
| 2918 |  | +APPROOT,AWET,WSB,EQUATION,PARAM) |
| 2919 | C |  |
| 2920 |  | REAL APPROACH,APPROOT,AWET, DIFF , DIFFMIN ,ESTMIN ,G,MEANDEP(250) , |
| 2921 |  | +PARAM (5), Q(250), |
| 2922 |  | +SURV (100,500), TEMPINFO (2,15), WATSURF (250),WSB,WSCALC,WSEST |
| 2923 | C |  |
| 2924 |  | INTEGER EQUATION, I , XSN |
| 2925 | C |  |
| 2926 |  | APPROACH=1 |
| 2927 |  | BEDMIN=0 |
| 2928 |  | $\mathrm{G}=9.81$ |
| 2929 |  | WSEST=ESTMIN+0.01 |
| 2930 | C |  |
| 2931 |  | DO $50, \mathrm{I}=1,20$ |
| 2932 |  | CALL LOWBED (SURV, XSN, BEDMIN) |
| 2933 |  | IF (WSEST.LT. BEDMIN) GOTO 51 |
| 2934 |  | TEMPINFO $(1,13)=0$ |
| 2935 |  | CALL WSURFACE (SURV, WSEST, XSN, Q,TEMPINFO, WSCALC,AWET,WSB, UUP, |
| 2936 |  | + HBAR,EQUATION,PARAM) |
| 2937 |  | DIFF=WSCALC -WSEST |
| 2938 |  | IF (ABS (DIFF).LT.ABS (DIFFMIN)) THEN |
| 2939 |  | DIFFMIN=ABS ( DIFF) |
| 2940 |  | ESTMIN=WSEST |
| 2941 |  | WSEST=ESTMIN + (0.0 1 * APPROACH $)$ |
| 2942 |  | ELSE |
| 2943 |  | IF (I.EQ.1) THEN |
| 2944 |  | WSEST=ESTMIN-0.01 |
| 2945 |  | APPROACH=-1 |
| 2946 |  | ELSE |
| 2947 |  | GOTO 51 |
| 2948 |  | ENDIF |
| 2949 |  | ENDIF |
| 2950 | 50 | CONTINUE |
| 2951 | C |  |
| 2952 | 51 | $\operatorname{TEMPINFO}(1,13)=0$ |
| 2953 |  | CALL WSURFACE (SURV, ESTMIN, XSN, Q,TEMPINFO, WSCALC, AWET, WSB, UUP, |
| 2954 |  | +HBAR, EQUATION, PARAM) |
| 2955 | C |  |
| 2956 |  | IF (ESTMIN.GT.BEDMIN) THEN |
| 2957 |  | IF (WSCALC.GT. BEDMIN) THEN |
| 2958 |  | APPROOT $=($ WSCALC+ESTMIN ) $/ 2$ |
| 2959 |  | ELSE |
| 2960 |  | APPROOT $=($ ESTMIN + BEDMIN $) / 2$ |
| 2961 |  | ENDIF |
| 2962 |  | ELSE |
| 2963 |  | IF (WSCALC.GT.BEDMIN) THEN |
| 2964 |  | APPROOT $=($ BEDMIN+WSCALC) $/ 2$ |
| 2965 |  | ELSE |
| 2966 |  | APPROOT $=$ BEDMIN+MEANDEP ( $\mathrm{XSN}+1$ ) |
| 2967 |  | ENDIF |
| 2968 |  | ENDIF |
| 2969 | C |  |
| 2970 |  | IF (ESTMIN.GT.WSCALC) WATSURF(XSN) = ESTMIN |
| 2971 |  | IF (ESTMIN.LT.WSCALC) WATSURF (XSN) =WSCALC |
| 2972 | C |  |
| 2973 |  | END |
| 2974 | C |  |
| 2975 | C | ***************************************************************** |
| 2976 |  | SUBROUTINE EXTEND (SURV, Q, HDS ,N, D165084ACT, DISTANCE,MEANDEP, |



$\mathrm{G}=9.81$
CALL AREA (SURV, WSEST, XSN, AWET, WSB, WP) HRAD=AWET/WP
CALL SFRICT (Q, XSN, HRAD,AWET, D 165084 ACT ,
+ENSL, UBAR, FF , EQUATION ,PARAM) +ENSL, UBAR, FF, EQUATION ,PARAM $)$
SFUP=ENSL
SFDOWN $=$ ESLOPE $(X S N+1)$ IF $\begin{aligned} & \text { (SFUP.LT.SFDOWN .AND. (SFUP+SFDOWN) .LT . } 0.2 \text { ) THEN } \\ & \text { SFBAR }=(\text { SFUP }+ \text { SFDOWN }) / 2\end{aligned}$ SFBAR $=($ SFUP + SFDOWN $) / 2$
ELSE
SFBAR $=(2 *$ SFUP $*$ SFDOWN $) /($ S

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { SLSBAR }=(2 * \text { SFUP } * \text { SFDOWN }) /(\text { SFUP }+ \text { SFDOWN }) \\
& \text { ENDIF }
\end{aligned}
$$

HEAD $=\operatorname{SFBAR} *($ DISTANCE $(\mathrm{XSN}+1)-\operatorname{DISTANCE}(\mathrm{XSN}))$
$\mathrm{UUP}=\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{XSN}) /$ AWET
UDOWN $=\mathrm{VELOCITY}(\mathrm{XSN}+1)$
UDOWN=VELOCITY (XSN+1)
HDOWN=WATSURF (XSN+1)
WSCALC=HEAD+HDOWN+ $((\mathrm{UDOWN} * * 2) /(\mathrm{G} * 2))-((\mathrm{UUP} * * 2) /(2 * \mathrm{G}))$
VELOCITY $(\mathrm{XSN})=\mathrm{UUP}$ VELOCITY (XSN)=UUP
ESLOPE (XSN) = SFUP WATSURF $($ XSN $)=$ WSCALC
MEANDEP $($ XSN $)=$ AWET $/$ WSB
MEANDEP $(\mathrm{XSN})=\mathrm{AWEI}$
R (XSN $)=\mathrm{HRAD}$
FFACTOR $(\mathrm{XSN})=\mathrm{FF}$
FR (XSN) $)=\mathrm{UUP} /((\mathrm{G} *(\mathrm{~A}$
WSWIDTH $(\mathrm{XSN})=\mathrm{WSB}$
MANNING $(\mathrm{XSN})=(\operatorname{HRAD} * *(0.667)) *(\mathrm{ENSL} * * 0.5) / \mathrm{UBAR}$
臮



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REAL SIZEDATA(25), SIZES (11), PCS (10),CUMPC,LOW, PHI, SIZEFINE (2 5 ),
+LOWPH, DMG,LDMG,DMED, PHIMED
INTEGER SELECT $(10)$, CALC
PARAMETER (CALC $=1$ )
PCS $(1)=5$
PCS $(2)=10$
PCS $(3)=16$
PCS $(4)=25$
PCS $(5)=35$
PCS $(6)=50$
PCS $(7)=65$
PCS $(8)=84$
PCS $(9)=90$
PCS $(10)=95$
 $\underset{\text { CONTINE }}{\text { ENDF }}$
LDMG $=0$
PHIMED $=(3 * \operatorname{SIZEFINE}(1)-\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(2)) / 2$

Do $30, \mathrm{I}=1$, NCLASS
 IF (I.LT. NCLASS) $)$ PHIMED $=(\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(1)+\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(1+1)) / 2$
CONTINUE
DMG=(EXP(LDMG))/1000 $\underset{\substack{\text { DMG=(EXP(LDMG) }) / 1000 \\ \text { SIZES }(11)=\operatorname{DMG}}}{\text { and }}$

 PEL PEDATA (25) DMED DMGGUMY(25) ENSL ESLOPE(250)
 - $\stackrel{\circ}{-}$


$\cup$

|  | SUBROUTINE OMEGAEST (BEDDATA,DMG,NUM,PHISGO,PARKER, SIZEFINE , +NCLASS,OMEGA, STRAINC) |
| :---: | :---: |
| C | REAL BEDDATA (25), $\operatorname{COEFF}(3,3), \operatorname{COEFF} 2(3,3)$, <br> +DMED,DET,DET2,DETPRIME (3), DETPRIME2 (3), INHOM (3), INHOM2 (3) , <br> +OMEGA,OMEGAOAK, PARKER ( 36,3 ) , PHIMED, <br> +SIGOAK, SIGPHI, SIGPHI2, SIZEFINE (25), <br> +SOLN(3),SOLN2 (3) ,STORE(3) ,STORE2(3) ,STRAINC, Z |
|  | INTEGER NCLASS,NUM |
| C | SIGPHI2 $=0.0$ <br> PHIMED $=(3 * \operatorname{SIZEFINE}(1)-\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(2)) / 2$ |
| C | ```DO 20,I=1,NCLASS DMED }=2**\mathrm{ PHIMED / }100 Z=2 SIGPHI2=SIGPHI2 + BEDDATA(I)*0.01*((LOG(DMED/DMG)/LOG(Z))**2) IF (I .LT.NCLASS) PHIMED=(SIZEFINE(I)+SIZEFINE(I + 1))/2``` |
| ${ }_{C}^{20}$ | CONTINUE |
|  | SIGPHI=SIGPHI2 $* * 0.5$ |
|  | IF (PHISGO.LT.0.6684) THEN SIGOAK $=0.8157$ OMEGAOAK=1.011 |
|  | ELSE |
|  | DO 40, J=2,36 |
|  | IF (PHISGO.LT.PARKER(J,1)) THEN |
|  | DO $50, \mathrm{~K}=1,3$ <br> DO $60, \mathrm{~L}=3,1,-1$ |
|  | $\operatorname{COEFF}(\mathrm{K},(4-\mathrm{L}))=\operatorname{PARKER}((\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{K}-2), 1) * * \mathrm{~L}$ <br> $\operatorname{COEFF} 2(\mathrm{~K},(4-\mathrm{L}))=\operatorname{PARKER}((\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{K}-2), 1) * * \mathrm{~L}$ |
| 60 | CONTINUE |
| 50 | CONTINUE |
|  | DO $70, \mathrm{~K}=1,3$ |
|  | INHOM(K)=PARKER ( $(\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{K}-2), 2)$ |
|  | INHOM2 ( K ) $=\operatorname{PARKER}((\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{K}-2), 3)$ |
| 70 | CONTINUE |
|  | CALL DETERMINANT (COEFF, DET) |
|  | CALL DETERMINANT (COEFF2, DET2) |
|  | DO $80, \mathrm{~K}=1,3$ |
|  | DO $90, \mathrm{~L}=1,3$ |
|  | IF (K.GE.2) THEN |
|  | $\operatorname{COEFF}(\mathrm{L},(\mathrm{K}-1))=\operatorname{STORE}(\mathrm{L})$ <br> COEFF2 (L, (K-1))=STORE2 (L) |
|  | ENDIF |
|  | $\operatorname{STORE}(\mathrm{L})=\operatorname{COEFF}(\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{K})$ |
|  | $\operatorname{COEFF}(\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{K})=\operatorname{INHOM}(\mathrm{L})$ |
|  | STORE2 (L) = COEFF2 (L,K) |
|  | $\operatorname{COEFF} 2(\mathrm{~L}, \mathrm{~K})=\mathrm{INHOM} 2(\mathrm{~L})$ |
| 90 | CONTINUE |
|  | CALL DETERMINANT (COEFF, DETPRIME(K)) |
|  | CALL DETERMINANT (COEFF2, DETPRIME2(K)) |
| 80 | CONTINUE |
|  | GOTO 45 |
|  | ENDIF |
| 40 | CONTINUE |
| 45 | DO $100, \mathrm{~L}=1,3$ |
|  | SOLN(L) = ${ }^{\text {deTPRIME }}$ (L) / DET |
|  | SOLN2 2 L) = DETPRIME2(L)/DE |




$\operatorname{QBFRACT}(\mathrm{I}, \operatorname{CASE})=\operatorname{WISTAR}(\mathrm{I}) *(\operatorname{USTAR} * * 3) * 0.01 * \operatorname{BEDDATA}(\mathrm{I}) /(\operatorname{SSI} * \mathrm{G})$
IF (I.LT. $\operatorname{NCLASS}) \operatorname{PHIMED}=(\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(\mathrm{I})+\operatorname{SIZEFINE}(\mathrm{I}+1)) / 2$ UNITQB=
CONTINUE CONTINUE
QBED $($ CASE $)=$ UNITQB $*$ WIDTH
DO $50, \mathrm{~J}=1$, NCLASS
QBFRACT ( J, CASE $)=$ QBFRACT ( J, CASE $) *$ WIDTH
CONTINUE
END $* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *$
SUBROUTINE DETERMINANT (M,DET)


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REAL $\operatorname{DSWATER}(500), \operatorname{HRDATE}(2)$
INTEGER $\operatorname{DATE}(7), \operatorname{HDATE}(500,2), \mathrm{I}$
CHARACTER WLDFILE $* 62$
OPEN $6, \operatorname{FILE}=\mathrm{WLDFLE})$
DO $\begin{aligned} & 10, \mathrm{I}=1,500 \\ & \operatorname{READ}(6, *)(\operatorname{HRDATE}(\mathrm{J}), \mathrm{J}=1,2), \operatorname{DSWATER}(\mathrm{I}) \\ & \operatorname{DO} \quad 15, \mathrm{~J}=1,1,2 \\ & \operatorname{HDATE}(\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{J})=\operatorname{HRDATE}(\mathrm{J})\end{aligned}$
$\cup 00$


## Appendix IV

## Example input-files for Saint-François River

An example of the required input files can be found in Appendix IV where the required input files for SEDROUT4-M are presented for the simulation of ECHAM4 discharge scenario with the gradual base level fall, in the Saint-François River starting from the beginning of 2010. In Appendix IV. 1 the Fran2010. ini-file is shown with a brief description of the changes. The sedfile.ini-file (Appendix IV.2) requires two extra lines to specify the location of the .wld-file (Appendix IV.3) and . qdt-file (Appendix IV.4) that contain respectively the yearly hydrograph at the downstream end and the daily discharges of the first year at the upstream boundary. Appendices IV. 5 and IV. 6 respectively show the topography input per cross section (.sds-file) and the grain size distribution per cross section (.gss-file) in the same way as before.

## IV. 1 Francois.ini

Lines 4 and 5 contain respectively the start and end date of the simulation in the YYYY MM DD format. On line 6 four new input variables need to be specified after the discharge option. The first is a switch for downstream water level scenario ( $0=$ no change, $1=$ change). On line 7 a second input variable is required to incorporate the island configuration. The next number of lines depends on the number of sections and is the number of sections minus 1 , that contain the number of the downstream cross section followed by the section number(s) downstream of the section. The second variable specifies if there is a change in downstream water level $(0=n o ; 1=y e s)$ and the third new input variable specifies the type of change ( $0=$ gradual, YYYY is sudden change, followed by the amplitude and direction (negative values for a decrease) of the fourth variable. The last new input variable gives the half amplitude of the tide at the downstream end independently from the others. Line 27 is the bed slope for downstream channel extension if equilibrium depth is assumed while using real cross section shapes, because the channel is extended based on the slope of the deepest points, which can increase due to change in cross-sectional shape. The value entered forces SEDROUT to extend the channel in the right direction. Line 37 is added for the discharge distribution option, the iteration is repeated until the specified tolerance is satisfied. Line 42 has two new options YEAR and DAILY to write output to the selected files at the beginning of each year or every day. Line 46 has three options for the Ackers and White sediment transport formula, ACKERS1973, ACKERS1990 and ACKERSDAY. Finally the lines 89-92 are added for the four extra output files.

| 1 | Francois | River/site name |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | PMV | Operator |
| 3 | Fran 2100 | Name of output files |
| 4 | 20100101 | start date of siumlation (yyyy mm dd) |
| 5 | 21000101 | end date of simulation (yyyy mm dd) |
| 6 | 2100000 | Discharge fixed (=1), or variable (=2) followed by 3 values (see code ...for details) |
| 7 | $100 \quad 4$ | Number of cross-sections, Number of sections (1 section use 0) |
| 8 | $27 \quad 2$ | 3 |
| 9 | $37 \quad 4$ | 0 |
| 10 | $55 \quad 4$ | 0 |
| 11 | FRACTIONS | Input of grain-size data as FRACTIONS or D84 (hydraulics only) |
| 12 | 13 | Number grain-size classes ( $<=25$ ) |
| 13 | -2.5 1 | psi-class upper limits on classes, followed by c parameter |
| 14 | -2 1 |  |
| 15 | -1.5 1 |  |
| 16 | $\begin{array}{ll}-1 & 1\end{array}$ |  |
| 17 | -0.5 1 |  |
| 18 | $0 \quad 1$ |  |
| 19 | 0.51 |  |
| 20 | $1 \quad 1$ |  |
| 21 | 21 |  |
| 22 | 31 |  |
| 23 | 41 |  |
| 24 | 4.31 |  |
| 25 | $4.5 \quad 1$ |  |
| 26 | FIXED | How to determine reach extension slope; CALC (from .sds data) or FIXED ( ...read from 2 nd column here) |
| 27 | 0.001 | REACH EXTENSION SLOPE (IF NEEDED) |
| 28 | 53 | Roughness methode ( $1-5$ ) and equation ( $1-3$ ) : see code for detials |
| 29 | 0.03 | Parameters for roughness equetion or roughness value $n$ |
| 30 | 0 | Number of Tributaries (NT; 0 to 5 maximum) |
| 31 | SED | SED or NOSED; if 0 tribs. then anything can go here; if NT>1 put SED or ...NOSED NT times on NT lines |
| 32 | $0 \quad 0$ | Location at which trib. enters and $Q$; if 0 tribs any values can go here; ... otherwise NT rows of location Q ; MUST be ordered from $\mathrm{u} / \mathrm{s}$ to $\mathrm{d} / \mathrm{s}$. |
| 33 | NOTRIB | Trib. bedload input rate type; KXUSMAIN, KXMAIN or CONST (ALL IN CAPS ...PLEASE) ; if no tribs. then anything in these next 3 lines; if $>1$ then ...repeat these 3 lines NT times in the same order; if NOSED then these 3 ... still needed for each trib, although info. not used |
| 34 | 0 | K or bedload input rate ( $\mathrm{m} 3 / \mathrm{s}$ ) according to prev. line |
| 35 | NOTRIB | Trib. input gsd (FIXED = specified on next N lines, where N is number of ... gs classes; or main $=$ main channel) |
| 36 | 5.5250 | For $Q$ method, this is a first estimation of the depth $Q$ at $d / s$ end of ...reach (so includes tributary conditions) |
| 37 | 0.0001 | Tolerance for hydraulic computation |
| 38 | CALC | Slope calculation methode at $\mathrm{d} / \mathrm{s}$ end |
| 39 | SED | Sediment routing? |
| 40 | 11 | Run length (yrs) and frequency of data recording (yrs or iterations as ...specified below) |
| 41 | VARIABLE | Timestep (VARIABLE or CONSTANT; if CONSTANT line after next is timestep ...dt) |
| 42 | DAILY | Data output written after TIME or ITERS (fixed \# iterations) or YEAR ...every first of January |
| 43 | 0.3 | Bed prorsity |
| 44 | CONSTANT | Active layer thickness (K.D84, K.DGM, or CONSTANT) |
| 45 | 0.1 | K or active layer thickness (m) |
| 46 | ACKERSDAY | Bedload equation (PARKER1990 followed by 4 lines; gravel hiding, sand ...hiding, tauref, straining exponent; if WILCOCK or EINSTEIN then keep ...the next4 lines) |
| 47 | -0.0951 |  |
| 48 | -0.0951 |  |
| 49 | 0.0386 |  |
| 50 | 0.3 |  |
| 51 | FIXED ELEV | u/s boundary condition (FIXED ELEV; QBCONST; KXS1FIX; KXQB1 ;QBCGSDV) |
| 52 | NO | Tracers? if YES then furthe info. required |
| 53 | Y sed | sediment summary data $* * *$ LISTING OF OUTPUT FILE EXTENSIONS WITH Y OR N |


| 54 | Y | tpt | bedload transport data |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 55 | Y | sur | surface \% in each size class |
| 56 | Y | sub | sub-surface \% in each size class |
| 57 | Y | bld | bedload \% in each size class |
| 58 | Y | hyd | hydraulic data |
| 59 | Y | 50 a | active layer D50 |
| 60 | Y | 84 a | active layer D84 |
| 61 | Y | qb | unit bedload tpt. rate |
| 62 | Y | 50 b | bedload D50 |
| 63 | Y | S | energy slope |
| 64 | Y | tau | dimensionless stress based on active layer D50 |
| 65 | Y | zz | bed elevation |
| 66 | Y | R | hydraulic radius |
| 67 | Y | FR | Froude number |
| 68 | Y | ff | friction factor |
| 69 | Y | 16a | active layer D16 |
| 70 | Y | 16 s | sub-surface D16 |
| 71 | Y | 50 s | sub-surface D50 |
| 72 | Y | 84 s | sub-surface D84 |
| 73 | Y | 16b | bedload D16 |
| 74 | Y | 84b | bedload D84 |
| 75 | Y | n | Manning n |
| 76 | Y | h | mean flow depth |
| 77 | Y | dz | bed elevation change per timestep |
| 78 | Y | Sdz | cumulative bed elevation change |
| 79 | Y | dA | bed area change per timestep |
| 80 | Y | SdA | cumulative bed area change |
| 81 | Y | pcs | \% sand in active layer |
| 82 | Y | u | mean flow velocity |
| 83 | Y | wws | water surface elevation |
| 84 | Y | 1 at | tributary (lateral) sediment input |
| 85 | Y | dgm | geometric mean size of surface layer |
| 86 | Y | 90 a | surface D90 |
| 87 | Y | 90 s | sub-surface D90 |
| 88 | Y | 90b | bedload D90 |
| 89 | Y | DT | time step (time elapse; time step used; critical time step) |
| 90 | Y | LA | active layer thickness |
| 91 | Y | LP | Long profile based on deepest points |
| 92 | Y | YQS | Cumulative sediment transport at boundaries |

## IV. 2 sedfiles.ini

Lines 4 and 5 are added with the pathname of the .wld and . qdt files. The length available is 64 characters the description needs to start after these, this number can be increased if necessary by specifying a longer vector in the SEDROUT4-M code.

```
1 Francois.INI Name of control file (.ini)
2 Fran2010.sds Name of input cross-section data file (.sds)
3 Fran2010.gss Name of input grain size data file (.gss)
4 ~ D : \ p a t r i c k \ W a t e r l e v e l \ L a c S t P i e . w l d ~ ( P a t h ) N a m e ~ o f ~
...waterlevel data file (.wld)
D \\patrick\Hydrodat\Francois \FrEA2010.QDT
    ...discharge data files (.qdt)
```

IV-6

## IV. 3 LacStPie.wld

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 4.15 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | 4.20 |
| 3 | 1 | 7 | 4.10 |
| 4 | 1 | 8 | 4.05 |
| 5 | 1 | 14 | 4.10 |
| 6 | 1 | 15 | 4.15 |
| 7 | 1 | 16 | 4.20 |
| 8 | 1 | 17 | 4.25 |
| 9 | 1 | 19 | 4.30 |
| 10 | 1 | 20 | 4.40 |
| 11 | 1 | 21 | 4.45 |
| 12 | 1 | 25 | 4.40 |
| 13 | 1 | 26 | 4.35 |
| 14 | 1 | 27 | 4.30 |
| 15 | 1 | 28 | 4.25 |
| 16 | 1 | 30 | 4.30 |
| 17 | 1 | 31 | 4.35 |
| 18 | 2 | 3 | 4.30 |
| 19 | 2 | 5 | 4.25 |
| 20 | 2 | 10 | 4.30 |
| 21 | 2 | 13 | 4.25 |
| 22 | 2 | 15 | 4.30 |
| 23 | 2 | 18 | 4.35 |
| 24 | 2 | 20 | 4.40 |
| 25 | 2 | 21 | 4.45 |
| 26 | 2 | 22 | 4.50 |
| 27 | 2 | 23 | 4.45 |
| 28 | 2 | 27 | 4.40 |
| 29 | 3 | 4 | 4.35 |
|  | : | : | : |
| 125 | 10 | 12 | 3.80 |
| 126 | 10 | 13 | 3.85 |
| 127 | 10 | 16 | 3.90 |
| 128 | 10 | 17 | 3.95 |
| 129 | 10 | 23 | 4.00 |
| 130 | 10 | 26 | 4.05 |
| 131 | 10 | 28 | 4.10 |
| 132 | 10 | 30 | 4.05 |
| 133 | 11 | 1 | 4.00 |
| 134 | 11 | 8 | 4.05 |
| 135 | 11 | 9 | 4.10 |
| 136 | 11 | 13 | 4.15 |
| 137 | 11 | 24 | 4.10 |
| 138 | 11 | 26 | 4.15 |
| 139 | 11 | 28 | 4.20 |
| 140 | 11 | 29 | 4.25 |
| 141 | 12 | 1 | 4.30 |
| 142 | 12 | 3 | 4.25 |
| 143 | 12 | 5 | 4.20 |
| 144 | 12 | 8 | 4.15 |
| 145 | 12 | 10 | 4.20 |
| 146 | 12 | 11 | 4.25 |
| 147 | 12 | 13 | 4.20 |
| 148 | 12 | 18 | 4.15 |
| 149 | 12 | 20 | 4.10 |
| 150 | 12 | 24 | 4.15 |
| 151 | 12 | 26 | 4.20 |
| 152 | 12 | 27 | 4.15 |
| 153 | 99 | 99 | 9999 |

## IV. 4 FrEA2010.qdt

| 1 | 2010 | 1 | 1 | 32.89 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 2010 | 1 | 2 | 32.25 |
| 3 | 2010 | 1 | 3 | 31.67 |
| 4 | 2010 | 1 | 4 | 31.13 |
| 5 | 2010 | 1 | 5 | 30.63 |
| 6 | 2010 | 1 | 6 | 30.17 |
| 7 | 2010 | 1 | 7 | 29.75 |
| 8 | 2010 | 1 | 8 | 29.36 |
| 9 | 2010 | 1 | 9 | 28.99 |
| 10 | 2010 | 1 | 10 | 28.65 |
| 11 | 2010 | 1 | 11 | 28.33 |
| 12 | 2010 | 1 | 12 | 28.03 |
| 13 | 2010 | 1 | 13 | 27.74 |
| 14 | 2010 | 1 | 14 | 27.48 |
| 15 | 2010 | 1 | 15 | 27.26 |
| 16 | 2010 | 1 | 16 | 27.18 |
| 17 | 2010 | 1 | 17 | 27.16 |
| 18 | 2010 | 1 | 18 | 27.07 |
| 19 | 2010 | 1 | 19 | 26.89 |
| 20 | 2010 | 1 | 20 | 26.66 |
| 21 | 2010 | 1 | 21 | 26.40 |
| 22 | 2010 | 1 | 22 | 26.14 |
| 23 | 2010 | 1 | 23 | 25.88 |
| 24 | 2010 | 1 | 24 | 25.63 |
| 25 | 2010 | 1 | 25 | 25.38 |
| 26 | 2010 | 1 | 26 | 25.13 |
| 27 | 2010 | 1 | 27 | 24.88 |
| 28 | 2010 | 1 | 28 | 24.63 |
| 29 | 2010 | 1 | 29 | 24.39 |
| 30 | 2010 | 1 | 30 | 24.16 |
| 31 | 2010 | 1 | 31 | 23.92 |
|  | : | : | : | : |
| 338 | 2010 | 12 | 4 | 157.91 |
| 339 | 2010 | 12 | 5 | 577.69 |
| 340 | 2010 | 12 | 6 | 778.81 |
| 341 | 2010 | 12 | 7 | 628.14 |
| 342 | 2010 | 12 | 8 | 436.92 |
| 343 | 2010 | 12 | 9 | 324.43 |
| 344 | 2010 | 12 | 10 | 270.29 |
| 345 | 2010 | 12 | 11 | 242.44 |
| 346 | 2010 | 12 | 12 | 232.78 |
| 347 | 2010 | 12 | 13 | 226.17 |
| 348 | 2010 | 12 | 14 | 215.82 |
| 349 | 2010 | 12 | 15 | 203.90 |
| 350 | 2010 | 12 | 16 | 190.89 |
| 351 | 2010 | 12 | 17 | 177.27 |
| 352 | 2010 | 12 | 18 | 163.92 |
| 353 | 2010 | 12 | 19 | 154.31 |
| 354 | 2010 | 12 | 20 | 162.81 |
| 355 | 2010 | 12 | 21 | 174.64 |
| 356 | 2010 | 12 | 22 | 174.57 |
| 357 | 2010 | 12 | 23 | 167.76 |
| 358 | 2010 | 12 | 24 | 158.57 |
| 359 | 2010 | 12 | 25 | 148.49 |
| 360 | 2010 | 12 | 26 | 138.32 |
| 361 | 2010 | 12 | 27 | 128.75 |
| 362 | 2010 | 12 | 28 | 125.12 |
| 363 | 2010 | 12 | 29 | 146.46 |
| 364 | 2010 | 12 | 30 | 157.50 |
| 365 | 2010 | 12 | 31 | 150.06 |
| 366 | 2011 | 1 | 1 | 137.99 |

## IV-8

## IV. 5 Fran2010.sds

```
27054
            0.00
        0.000000 20.000000
        0.000000 5.670000
        5.020000 4.300000
        10.070000 3.440000
        15.200000 3.020000
        20.219999 3.040000
        25.070000 3.000000
        30.160000 3.170000
        \vdots
    175.080002
    180.130005
    185.110001
    189.839996
    194.570007
    194.570007
    20.000000
27053
        240.88
        0.000000 20.000000
        0.000000 2.612827
        4.860000 2.102827
        9.970000 1.953402
        15.240000 1.873402
        19.459999 1.993402
        25.180000 2.212827
        \vdots
    305.109985
        310.179993
        3.771420
        320.239990 5.185267
        320.720001 4.699570
        320.720001 20.000000
        9999.000000 9999.000000
26035
        15017.41
            0.000000 20.000000
            0.000000 4.130629
            8.210000 3.929002
        15.960000 3.949024
        23.910000 4.007958
        31.790001 3.819097
        40.189999 4.007958
            \vdots
        735.909973 4.453962
        743.940002 4.335372
        752.090027 4.443962
        768.440002 4.591931
        776.309998 4.777431
        780.510010 5.185570
        780.510010 20.000000
    9999.000000 9999.000000
```


## IV. 6 Fran2010.gss

| 1 | 27054 |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 |
| 3 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 |
| 4 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 |
| 5 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 |
| 6 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 |
| 7 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 |
| 8 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 |
| 9 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 |
| 10 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 |
| 11 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 |
| 12 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 |
| 13 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 |
| 14 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 |
| 15 | 27053 |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 1.9822 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 |
| 17 | 3.9059 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 |
| 18 | 3.8107 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 | 4.3354 |
| 19 | 2.6268 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 | 3.2533 |
| 20 | 2.1277 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 | 2.8278 |
| 21 | 1.4229 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 | 1.9714 |
| 22 | 1.5390 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 | 2.1695 |
| 23 | 1.5705 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 | 2.1208 |
| 24 | 7.2297 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 | 8.1116 |
| 25 | 20.2550 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 | 18.9867 |
| 26 | 29.6977 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 | 27.8399 |
| 27 | 15.0428 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 | 14.1006 |
| 28 | 8.7891 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 | 8.2384 |
| 29 | 27052 |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 2.3154 | 1.9624 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 | 1.9541 |
| 31 | 4.9500 | 4.1274 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 | 4.0905 |
|  | : | : | : | : | : |
| 71 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 372 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 73 | 26034 |  |  |  |  |
| 74 | 2.2519 | 6.8578 | 9.5157 | 9.5157 | 9.5157 |
| 375 | 3.0699 | 5.2823 | 6.1928 | 6.1928 | 6.1928 |
| 76 | 28.1053 | 51.7351 | 64.8970 | 64.8970 | 64.8970 |
| 77 | 21.7644 | 18.4749 | 14.1888 | 14.1888 | 14.1888 |
| 378 | 20.8659 | 10.1493 | 3.8185 | 3.8185 | 3.8185 |
| 379 | 13.0532 | 4.4205 | 0.7751 | 0.7751 | 0.7751 |
| 380 | 6.9789 | 1.8863 | 0.3498 | 0.3498 | 0.3498 |
| 81 | 2.1121 | 0.7368 | 0.1431 | 0.1431 | 0.1431 |
| 82 | 1.7984 | 0.4570 | 0.1192 | 0.1192 | 0.1192 |
| 383 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 384 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 385 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 386 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 387 | 26035 |  |  |  |  |
| 388 | 2.1819 | 3.1987 | 9.7109 | 9.5157 | 9.5157 |
| 3 | 3.2942 | 4.1745 | 6.4105 | 6.1928 | 6.1928 |
| 390 | 32.6313 | 43.1120 | 64.6385 | 64.8970 | 64.8970 |
| 391 | 23.5386 | 26.3629 | 14.1172 | 14.1888 | 14.1888 |
| 392 | 19.4997 | 14.4227 | 3.7908 | 3.8185 | 3.8185 |
| 393 | 11.0234 | 5.7742 | 0.7607 | 0.7751 | 0.7751 |
| 394 | 5.2219 | 2.0075 | 0.3331 | 0.3498 | 0.3498 |
| 395 | 1.6022 | 0.6715 | 0.1321 | 0.1431 | 0.1431 |
| 396 | 1.0068 | 0.2761 | 0.1063 | 0.1192 | 0.1192 |
| 397 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 398 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 399 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 40 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |


[^0]:    (C) Patrick Michiel Verhaar, 2010.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ the basis of this chapter is published in Geomorphology, 2008 Vol.101(4)

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ the basis of this chapter is accepted by Earth Surface Processes and Landforms, on 2009-October-14, ESP-09-0229
    entitled: Numerical modelling of climate change impacts on the Saint-Lawrence River tributaries

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ the basis of this chapter is submitted to HYdrological Processes. 2009-December-01, HYP-09-0608

[^4]:    

[^5]:    

