



# 1 **Effect of stress history on sediment transport and channel adjustment** 2 **in graded gravel-bed rivers**

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9 **Abstract.** With the increasing attention on environmental flow management for the maintenance of habitat diversity and  
10 ecosystem health of mountain gravel-bed rivers, much interest has been paid to how inter-flood low flow can affect gravel-  
11 bed river morphodynamics during subsequent flood events. Previous research has found that antecedent conditioning flow can  
12 lead to an increase in the critical shear stress and a reduction in sediment transport rate during a subsequent flood. But how  
13 long this effect can last during the flood event has not been fully discussed. In this paper, a series of flume experiments with  
14 various durations of conditioning flow are presented to study this problem. Results show that channel morphology adjusts  
15 significantly within the first 15 minutes of the conditioning flow, but becomes rather stable during the remainder of the  
16 conditioning flow. The implementation of conditioning flow can indeed lead to a reduction of sediment transport rate during  
17 the subsequent hydrograph, but such effect is limited only within a relatively short time at the beginning of the hydrograph.  
18 This indicates that bed reorganization during the conditioning phase, which induce the stress history effect, is likely to be  
19 erased with increasing intensity of flow and sediment transport during the subsequent flood event.

## 20 **1 Introduction**

21 Prediction of sediment transport is of vital importance because it is related to many aspects of river dynamics and  
22 management, including river morphodynamics modeling (Parker, 2004), river restoration (Chin et al., 2009), aquatic habitats  
23 (Montgomery et al., 1996), natural hazard planning (Marston, 2008), bedrock erosion (Sklar and Dietrich, 2004), and landscape  
24 evolution (Howard, 1994). In mountain gravel-bed rivers, sediment transport is controlled by flow magnitude and flashiness,  
25 sediment supply, bed surface structures, channel morphology and the grain size distribution (GSD) of sediment (Montgomery  
26 and Buffington, 1997). Therefore, prediction of sediment transport in mountain rivers still remains difficult despite the large  
27 body of existing theories. This is due to the fact that these theories were mostly developed for lowland streams with continuous  
28 sediment supply and an average flow regime, which do not apply to mountain streams (Gomez and Church, 1989; Rickenmann,  
29 2001; Schneider et al., 2015).



30 For example, the hydrograph of mountain gravel-bed rivers is often characterized by large fluctuations of flow  
31 discharge, including both short-term flash flood and long-term inter-flood low flow (Powell et al., 1999). However, research  
32 on the morphodynamics of mountain rivers often focuses on the effects of floods (or constant high flow) and neglects the role  
33 of inter-flood low flow, with the consideration that most sediment transport and morphological adjustments of mountain rivers  
34 occur during relatively high flows (Klingeman and Emmett, 1982; Paola et al., 1992).

35 Reid and colleagues (Reid and Frostick, 1984; Reid et al., 1985) studied the effects of inter-flood low flow on  
36 subsequent sediment transport in Turkey Brook, England. They found that bedload transport rates were reduced during  
37 relatively isolated flood events (e.g., events separated by long time intervals) compared to those that were closely spaced, with  
38 the entrainment threshold up to as large as three times higher. They linked this with sediment reorganization during prolonged  
39 periods of antecedent flow, which can make the river bed more armored and more resistant to entrainment, thus delaying the  
40 onset of sediment mobility in the following flood event.

41 To further study such “memory” effect of antecedent flow on the sediment transport during a subsequent flood, a  
42 number of flume experiments as well as field surveys have been conducted in the past decade, and different terms have been  
43 proposed, including “stress history effect” (Monteith and Pender, 2005; Paphitis and Collins, 2005; Haynes and Pender, 2007;  
44 Ockelford and Haynes, 2013), “flood history effect” (Mao, 2018), “flow history” (Masteller et al., 2019), etc. Given that all  
45 these terms are similar, here we adopt the term “stress history” in this paper.

46 Paphitis and Collins (2005) conducted flume experiments to study the entrainment threshold of uniform sediment  
47 subjected to antecedent flow durations of up to 120 minutes. They found that with a longer and higher antecedent flow, the  
48 critical bed shear stress increases and the total bedload flux decreases. The work of Paphitis and Collins (2005) was extended  
49 by Monteith and Pender (2005) and Haynes and Pender (2007) to consider bimodal sand-gravel mixtures. They found that for  
50 a graded bed, longer periods of antecedent flow increase bed stability due to local particle rearrangement, in agreement with  
51 Paphitis and Collins (2005); whereas higher magnitudes of antecedent flow reduce bed stability due to selective entrainment  
52 of the fine matrix on bed surface, counter to Paphitis and Collins’ (2005) conclusion based on uniform sediment. Hayes and  
53 Pender (2007) further analyzed the two competing effects and concluded that particle rearrangement may be of greater relative  
54 importance than the winnowing of the fine sediment as it affects subsequent sediment transport. By using high resolution laser  
55 scanning and statistical analysis of the bed topography, Ockelford and Haynes (2013) also demonstrated that the response of  
56 bed topography to stress history is grade specific: bed roughness decreased in uniform beds but increased in graded bed with  
57 an increase length of an antecedent flow period. Performing a series of flume experiments, Masteller and Finnegan (2017)  
58 studied the evolution of the river bed on particle scale during low flow. They linked reduction of bedload flux to the re-  
59 organization of the highest protruding grains (1%-5% of the entire bed) on bed surface.

60 Because of the above-mentioned research, existing sediment transport formulae for gravel-bed rivers (e.g. Meyer-  
61 Peter and Müller, 1948; Parker, 1990; Wilcock and Crowe, 2003; Wong and Parker, 2006) are regarded to be inaccurate  
62 because they do not take the effect of stress history into account. To this end, Paphitis and Collins (2005) proposed an empirical  
63 formula for the exposure correction factor in the critical shear velocity for a uniform sand-size bed based on their experimental



64 data. Johnson (2016) developed a state function for the critical shear stress in terms of transport disequilibrium, which  
65 incorporates the effects of stress history and hydrograph variability. Ockelford et al. (2019) proposed two forms of functions  
66 to link the antecedent duration and the critical shear stress. The two alternatives proposed by Ockelford et al. (2019) correct  
67 the function proposed by Paphitis and Collins (2005), whose exposure correction uses a logarithmic function which implicitly  
68 assumes an unbound growth as antecedent time tends towards infinity.

69 Research to date has shown that antecedent flow can stabilize the river bed, thus influencing the threshold of sediment  
70 motion as well as bedload flux. However, most of the previous research about stress history is either under conditions with  
71 relatively low sediment transport or with relatively short durations of sediment transport in order to capture the threshold of  
72 sediment motion (Monteith and Pender, 2005; Paphitis and Collins, 2005; Haynes and Pender, 2007; Ockelford and Haynes,  
73 2013; Masteller and Finnegan, 2017; Ockelford et al., 2019). On the other hand, other researchers have found that exceptionally  
74 high discharge events can reduce critical shear stress by disrupting particle interlocking and breaking of bed structure  
75 (Turowski et al., 2011; Yager et al., 2012; Ferrer-Boix and Hassan 2015; Masteller et al., 2019). Flume experiments by  
76 Masteller and Finnegan (2017) also indicate an increase in the number of highly mobile, highly protruding grains in response  
77 to sediment transporting flows. Therefore, the effect of high discharge events in reducing the critical shear stress likely  
78 counterbalances the stress history effect of antecedent flow to increase the critical shear stress. In consideration of these  
79 opposing mechanisms, how long can the stress history effect last during a subsequent flood event is not well understood. Such  
80 a question is important especially in light of the fact that most sediment transport and channel adjustment of mountain gravel-  
81 bed rivers occurs during high discharge events, when the flow shear stress is high.

82 In this paper, flume experiments consisting of extended cycles of high and low flow is conducted to study this problem.  
83 The experimental arrangement is described in Sect. 2. In Sect. 3, we present the experimental results showing how channel  
84 morphology and sediment transport during a subsequent hydrograph respond to various durations of antecedent conditioning  
85 flow. The threshold of motion is analyzed in Sect. 4 based on the experimental data. Implications and limitations of this study  
86 are also discussed in Sect. 4. Finally, conclusions are summarized in Sect. 5.

## 87 **2 Experimental arrangements**

88 The experimental arrangements were guided by conditions observed in East Creek, a small mountain creek in Malcom  
89 Knob Forest, University of British Columbia (for details on the study site see Papangelakis and Hassan, 2016). To investigate  
90 study objectives, we conducted flume experiments in the Mountain Channel Hydraulic Experimental Laboratory at the  
91 University of British Columbia. The experiments were conducted in a tilting flume with a length of 5 m, a width of 0.55 m  
92 and a depth of 0.80 m. The initial slope was 0.04 m/m. Water, but not sediment was recirculated by an axial pump. A set of  
93 six experiments (REF2 – REF7) was conducted; the experimental conditions are briefly summarized in Table 1. For  
94 experiments REF3 – REF7, the same hydrograph and sedimentograph were conducted, but with different durations of constant  
95 conditioning flow prior to the hydrograph/sedimentograph. We denote these as REF3 (10), REF4 (2), REF5 (5), REF6 (15)



96 and REF7 (0.25), with the numbers in the brackets denoting the duration of the conditioning flow in hours. Experiment REF2  
97 (15) consists of a 15-hour conditioning period without a subsequent hydrograph/sedimentograph, to test the reproducibility of  
98 our experimental results during the conditioning flow.



99 **Table 1.** Summary of the experimental conditions and measurements. The experiments are listed in the table in order of decreasing duration of conditioning flow.

No.	Phase	Duration (h)	Flow discharge (l/s)	Water surface slope (%)	Flow depth (cm)	Froude number (-)	$\tau_b$ (Pa)	Sediment feed (kg/h)	$D_{s50}$ (mm)	$D_{s90}$ (mm)	$D_{150}$ (mm)	$D_{190}$ (mm)	$\tau_{s50}^*$	$Q_s$ (kg/h)
REF2 (15)	Conditioning	15	25	2.62	6.33	0.91	16.27	0	15.2	29.6	1.07	5.43	0.069	0.27
	Conditioning	15	25	3.27	6.47	0.88	20.76	0	15.87	30.69	35.18	42.84	0.089	0.89
REF6 (15)	Step 1	2	26	3.34	6.39	0.94	20.93	1	15.66	29.98	12.51	39.38	0.083	0.68
	Step 2	2	28	3.10	6.29	1.03	19.13	1.5	17.18	30.40	7.28	27.59	0.069	0.76
	Step 3	2	32	3.06	6.80	1.05	20.41	3.2	15.34	30.85	12.39	36.54	0.082	6.73
	Step 4	2	40	2.81	7.78	1.07	21.45	10	15.95	30.34	11.48	36.03	0.083	13.39
REF3 (10)	Conditioning	10	25	2.73	6.02	0.98	16.12	0	14.9	29.5	2.17	9.98	0.071	0.28
	Step 1	2	26	2.75	5.93	1.04	16.00	1	15.0	29.3	2.55	19.94	0.066	1.71
	Step 2	2	28	2.69	6.35	1.01	16.77	1.5	15.5	29.7	4.06	26.99	0.067	2.19
	Step 3	2	32	2.88	6.81	1.04	19.25	3.2	15.9	29.7	6.18	24.26	0.075	2.44
	Step 4	2	40	2.48	8.34	0.96	20.28	10	15.6	32.8	14.45	39.13	0.080	12.45
REF5 (5)	Conditioning	5	25	3.26	5.51	1.12	17.63	0	16.35	31.14	8.23	25.34	0.066	0.49
	Step 1	2	26	3.24	6.19	0.98	19.68	1	16.30	30.90	6.57	23.63	0.075	2.24
	Step 2	2	28	3.09	6.21	1.05	18.82	1.5	16.87	31.27	9.38	28.44	0.069	3.30
	Step 3	2	32	3.05	6.65	1.08	19.91	3.2	16.04	31.04	11.90	47.91	0.077	5.72
	Step 4	2	40	2.78	7.82	1.06	21.33	10	14.72	31.44	15.09	38.56	0.090	40.03
REF4 (2)	Conditioning	2	25	2.82	5.55	1.11	15.34	0	13.58	28.78	3.10	15.79	0.070	1.50
	Step 1	2	26	2.73	5.55	1.16	14.85	1	14.61	28.83	3.90	20.31	0.063	0.96
	Step 2	2	28	2.71	6.19	1.06	16.46	1.5	15.44	29.09	6.28	46.76	0.066	2.41
	Step 3	2	32	3.15	6.85	1.04	21.15	3.2	14.44	28.65	17.34	37.76	0.091	26.73
	Step 4	2	40	2.76	8.01	1.02	21.69	10	14.06	30.22	10.88	35.45	0.095	5.23
REF7 (0.25)	Conditioning	0.25	25	3.46	6.20	0.94	21.06	0	14.67	30.10	10.54	28.03	0.089	19.44
	Step 1	2	26	3.20	6.54	0.90	20.53	1	15.52	30.86	7.11	28.91	0.082	3.48
	Step 2	2	28	3.14	6.58	0.96	20.27	1.5	16.62	31.33	6.91	30.73	0.075	2.52
	Step 3	2	32	3.12	7.00	1.00	21.41	3.2	14.89	30.78	10.09	37.40	0.089	12.32
	Step 4	2	40	2.73	8.29	0.97	22.19	10	17.68	36.20	12.13	30.78	0.078	16.80

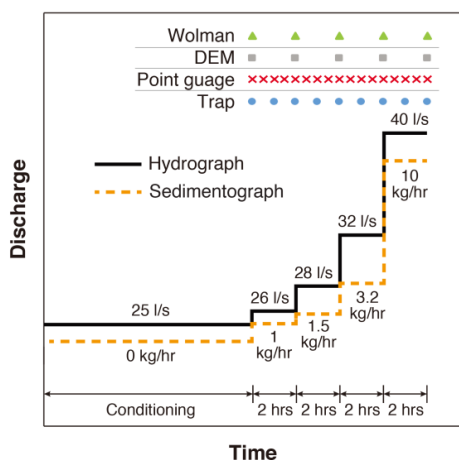


100 a.  $Q_s$ : bedload transport rate,  $\tau_b$ : shear stress,  $D_{s50}$  and  $D_{s90}$ :  $D_{50}$  and  $D_{90}$  of bed surface,  $D_{l50}$  and  $D_{l90}$ :  $D_{50}$  and  $D_{90}$  of bedload,  $\tau_{*s50}^*$ : Shields number for  $D_{s50}$ . Here  
101  $D_{90}$  denotes the grain size such that 90% is finer, and  $D_{50}$  denotes the grain size such that 50% is finer.

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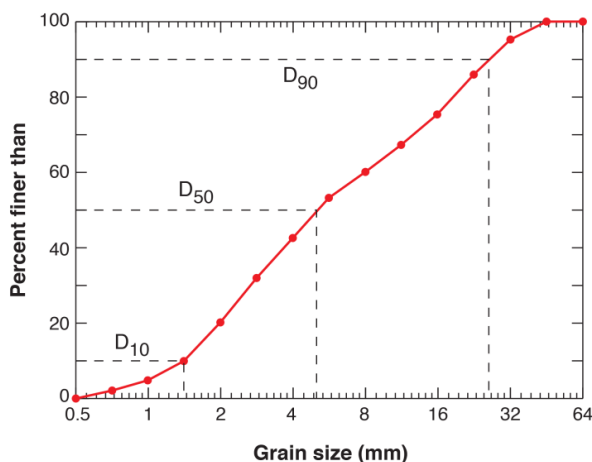


103 Figure 1 shows the water and sediment supply implemented in the experiments. The water discharge was  
104 selected to represent typical flows in East Creek, with the 25 l/s flow during the conditioning period being equivalent  
105 to half the bankfull flow, and the peak flow discharge of 40 l/s during the hydrograph being about 1.1 times the  
106 bankfull flow in East Creek. Because the purpose of this paper is to study the evolution of bed stability, sediment was  
107 not feed during the conditioning flow. For each step of the hydrograph, we chose a feed rate through numerical  
108 simulations following Ferrer-Boix and Hassan (2014) in combination with trial experiments. Sediment was fed into  
109 the flume at the upstream end using a conveyor belt feeder at the calculated transport rate capacity. The feed rate of  
110 the sedimentograph ranged between 1 kg/hour and 10 kg/hour. Both the hydrograph and the sedimentograph consisted  
111 of four steps, with each step lasting for 2 hours.



112 **Figure 1.** Water and sediment supply implemented in the experiments. Markers in top of the figure  
113 denote the time of measurements during the hydrograph phase. Time of measurements during the conditioning phase is not shown in  
114 this figure.  
115

116 Figure 2 shows the GSD of the bulk sediment used in the experiments, with the grain size ranging between  
117 0.5 and 64 mm. The GSD was scaled from East Creek by a ratio of 1:4, except that sediment (after scaling) with a  
118 grain size less than 0.5 mm was excluded. This preserved the entire gravel distribution of East Creek with a maximum  
119 size of 256 mm (scaled to 64 mm in Fig. 2). The model was “generic” rather than specific in that no attempt was made  
120 to reproduce the geometric details of the prototype channel. The bulk sediment was sieved in half  $\phi$  intervals and  
121 painted in different colors for each size class for texture analysis and visual identification. Before the commencement  
122 of each experiment, we hand-mixed and screeded the bulk sediment to make a flat layer of loose material with a depth  
123 of 0.15 m. The sediment was then slowly flooded and then drained to aid settlement. The bulk sediment is also used  
124 for the sediment feed in each experiment.



125  
126

**Figure 2.** Grain size distribution of the bulk sediment used in the experiments.

127           The elevations of the bed surface and water surface were measured along the flume every 0.25 m using a  
128 mechanical point gauge with a precision of  $\pm 0.001$  m. Water depth fluctuations due to wave effects at a point were  
129 about 5% or less. Water surface slope and bed slope are calculated based on a regression of the point gauge data  
130 measured between 0.5 m and 4.75 m upstream of the outlet. The most upstream and downstream sections are excluded  
131 to avoid boundary effects. A green laser scanner mounted on a motorized cart was also used to measure the bed surface  
132 elevation along the flume. Bed laser scans were composed of cross sections spaced 2 mm apart with 1 mm vertical  
133 and horizontal accuracy (for details see Elgueta-Astaburuaga and Hassan, 2017). The standard deviation of bed  
134 elevation was calculated based on the DEM data from scans. Before the calculation of standard deviation, the DEM  
135 was detrended to remove spatial trends with scales larger than the scale of sediment patterns (e.g., bed slope or  
136 undulations). To estimate the particle size distribution of the bed surface we used digital cameras mounted on a  
137 motorized cart along the entire flume. Images were merged together to visualize the bed and perform the particle size  
138 analysis (Chartrand et al., 2018). The particle size distribution of the bed surface was estimated using the grid by  
139 number (point counts) method, by identifying particle size at the intersection of a 5 cm grid superimposed on each  
140 photograph. Individual grains were identified by color. Collected data were used to quantify changes in the bed surface  
141 particle size distribution throughout each experiment.

142           Material evacuated from the flume was trapped in a 0.25 mm mesh screen in the tailbox, and weighted and  
143 sieved at half  $\phi$  intervals to calibrate a light table. The sediment transport rates for various size ranges were measured  
144 at the end of the flume using a light table and automated image analysis at a resolution of 1 second (for details see  
145 Zimmerman et al., 2008; Elgueta-Astaburuaga and Hassan 2017). To avoid random fluctuations in sediment transport,  
146 we report the bedload transport rate at a 5-minute resolution, and characteristic grain sizes of bedload at 15-minute  
147 resolution. A range of methods for the estimation of bed shear stress has been suggested in the literature (reviewed in  
148 Whiting and Dietrich, 1990). In this study, the shear stress is estimated using the depth-slope product corresponding  
149 to normal (steady and uniform) flow. This method is selected because the focus of this work is on overall (mean)  
150 parameters controlling bed evolution; in addition, the water was too shallow to use an ADV. The water surface slope,





151 rather than bed slope, is implemented in the calculation of shear stress, with the consideration that water surface slope  
152 is closer to the friction slope and also has less random fluctuations than bed slope.

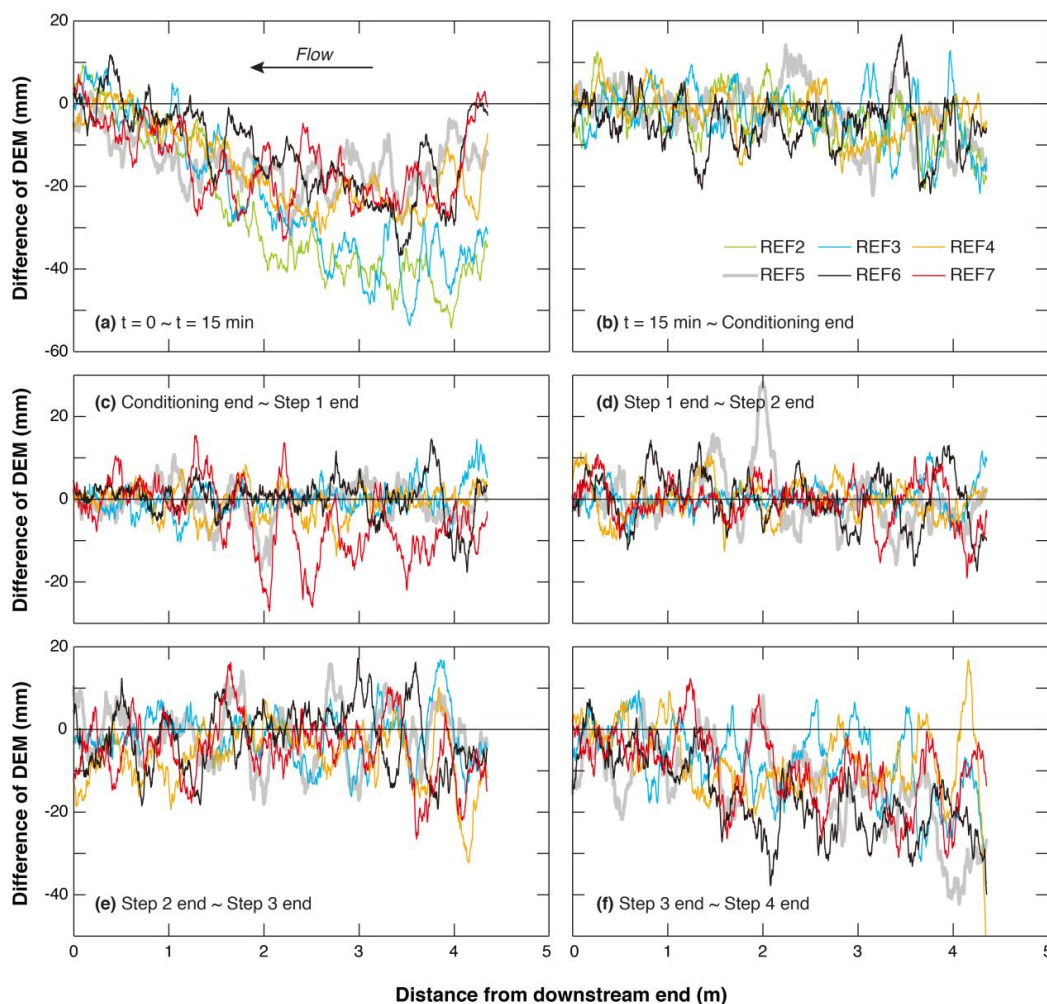
153 The frequency of measurements during the hydrograph phase is also plotted in Fig. 1(a), with the point gauge  
154 measurements conducted every 30 minutes, the trap weighting/sampling conducted every hour, and the DEM/Wolman  
155 measurements by laser scan/photograph conducted every 2 hours (i.e. at the beginning/end of each stage of the  
156 hydrograph). For each measurement of DEM/Wolman, the flow was slowly lowered and then stopped to allow for the  
157 bed to be scanned by a laser and photographed. The frequency of measurement during the conditioning phase was  
158 adjusted in each experiment in accordance with the duration of the conditioning phase, and is therefore not plotted in  
159 Fig. 1(a).

### 160 3 Experimental results

161 Table 1 presents an overall schematization of the experimental results, including water surface slope, flow  
162 depth  $h$ , Froude number  $F_r$  ( $F_r = u / (gh)^{0.5}$ , where  $u$  is depth-averaged flow velocity), bedload transport rate  $Q_s$ , shear  
163 stress  $\tau_b$ ,  $D_{50}$  and  $D_{90}$  of bed surface ( $D_{s50}$  and  $D_{s90}$ ),  $D_{50}$  and  $D_{90}$  of bedload ( $D_{l50}$  and  $D_{l90}$ ), and Shields number  $\tau_{*s50}^*$   
164 for a given  $D_{s50}$ . Here  $D_{90}$  denotes the grain size such that 90% is finer, and  $D_{50}$  denotes the grain size such that 50%  
165 is finer.

#### 166 3.1 Channel adjustment

167 In this section, we present the channel adjustments during each experiment. Figure 3 shows the difference of  
168 longitudinal DEM averaged over the cross section, which can represent the adjustment of channel topography during  
169 different periods of the experiment. From Fig. 3(a) we can see that for each experiment, evident degradation occurs  
170 during the first 15 minutes, especially at the upstream of the flume. This is due to the fact that no sediment supply is  
171 implemented during the conditioning period, and also the initial bed material is relatively loose. From 15 minutes until  
172 the end of the conditioning phase (as shown in Fig. 3(b)), no evident aggradation/degradation is observed for any  
173 experiment, indicating that most of the adjustment of channel topography during the conditioning phase has been  
174 accomplished within the first 15 minutes. For Step 1 of the hydrograph (as shown in Fig. 3(c)), no evident  
175 aggradation/degradation is observed for any of the experiments, except for REF7 (0.25), which has the shortest  
176 conditioning phase. Similarly, the channel keeps relatively stable during Step 2 of the hydrograph for all experiments  
177 (as shown in Fig. 3(d)), with no trend for aggradation/degradation observed. With the increase of flow discharge, some  
178 degradation (with a magnitude of about 10 ~ 20 mm) can be observed in Step 3 for all experiments at the upstream  
179 end of the channel, as shown in Fig. 3(e). Such degradation becomes more evident over the entire channel in Step 4  
180 of the hydrograph, when flow discharge reaches its peak value. Further analysis of the DEM data shows that no  
181 bedform were evident during the experiment.

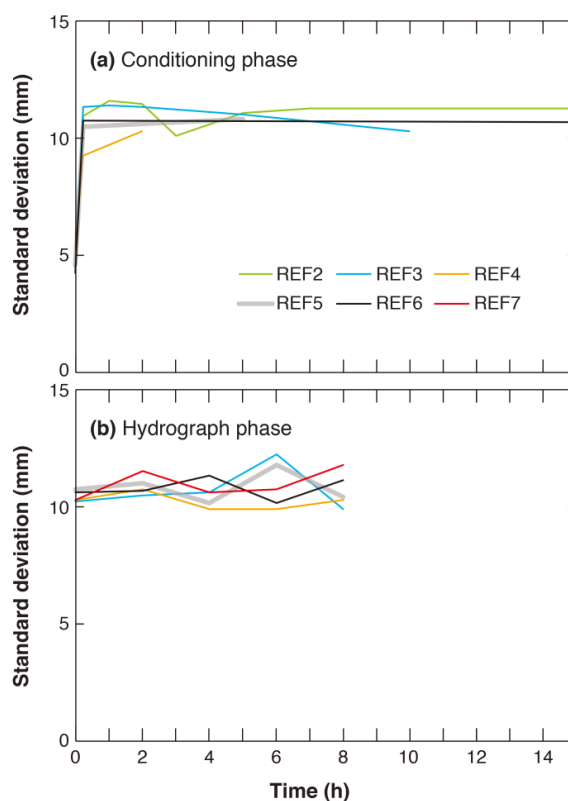


182  
183 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of elevation difference from cross-sectionally averaged longitudinal DEM during the  
184 experiment: (a) from beginning of experiment to  $t = 15$  minutes; (b) from  $t = 15$  minutes to the end of conditioning  
185 phase; (c) from the end of conditioning phase to the end of Step 1 of hydrograph phase; (d) from the end of Step 1 to  
186 the end of Step 2 of the hydrograph phase; (e) from the end of Step 2 to the end of Step 3 of the hydrograph phase; (f)  
187 from the end of Step 3 to the end of Step 4 of the hydrograph phase.

188 Figure 4 shows the temporal variation of the standard deviation of bed elevation over the length of erodible  
189 bed during the experiment. Results show that the standard deviation of bed elevation is relatively small at the beginning  
190 of the experiments (corresponding to a relatively smooth bed depending on the way we prepared the initial bed), but  
191 increases notably within 15 minutes after the start of the conditioning phase. Such an increase of the bed roughness is  
192 accompanied by significant degradation during the first 15 minutes, as shown in Fig. 3(a). The standard deviation of  
193 bed elevation remains almost constant during the remaining conditioning phase, as well as during the hydrograph

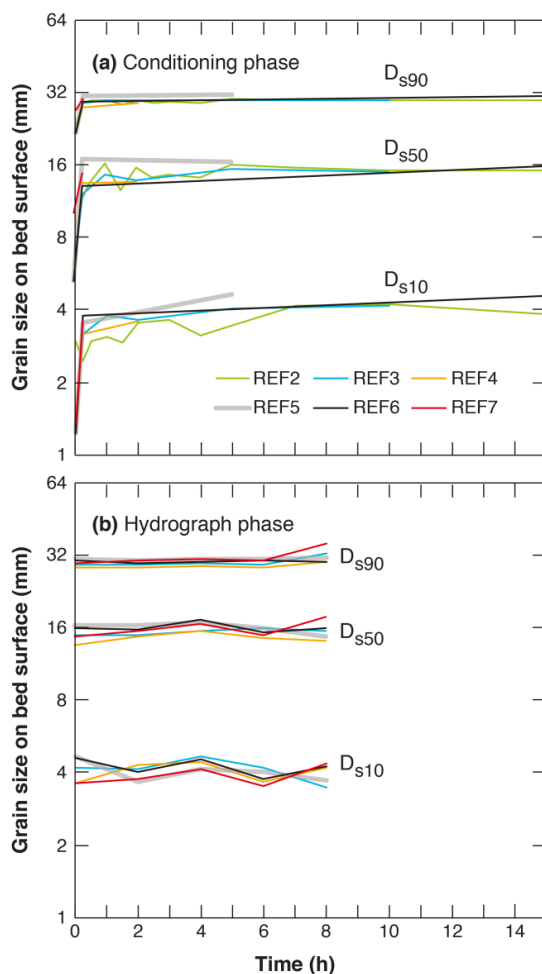


194 phase, despite the fact that degradation is evident as the flow approaches its peak value. Besides, the value of standard  
195 deviation is almost identical for each experiment, indicating the period of conditioning phase exerts little effect on the  
196 standard deviation of bed elevation.



197  
198 **Figure 4.** Temporal adjustments of standard deviation of bed elevation calculated over the whole erodible bed: (a) the  
199 conditioning phase; (b) the hydrograph phase.

200 Figure 5 shows the temporal variation of the characteristic grain size of bed surface material. Three  
201 parameters are presented here;  $D_{s10}$ ,  $D_{s50}$ , and  $D_{s90}$ . The adjustment of bed surface GSD follows similar trends as the  
202 adjustment of standard deviation of bed elevation. For all experiments, the bed surface is fine at the beginning, and  
203 experiences a fast coarsening period during the first 15 minutes (along with the bed degradation in Fig. 3 and the  
204 increase of bed roughness in Fig. 4). The characteristic grain sizes of bed surface remain relatively stable after the first  
205 15 minutes. It is worth noted that the GSD of bed surface keeps relatively constant even during the hydrograph phase,  
206 during which a flood event is introduced in the flume and evident bed degradation is observed. This is in agreement  
207 with the observation of Ferrer-Boix and Hassan (2015) during successive water pulses.



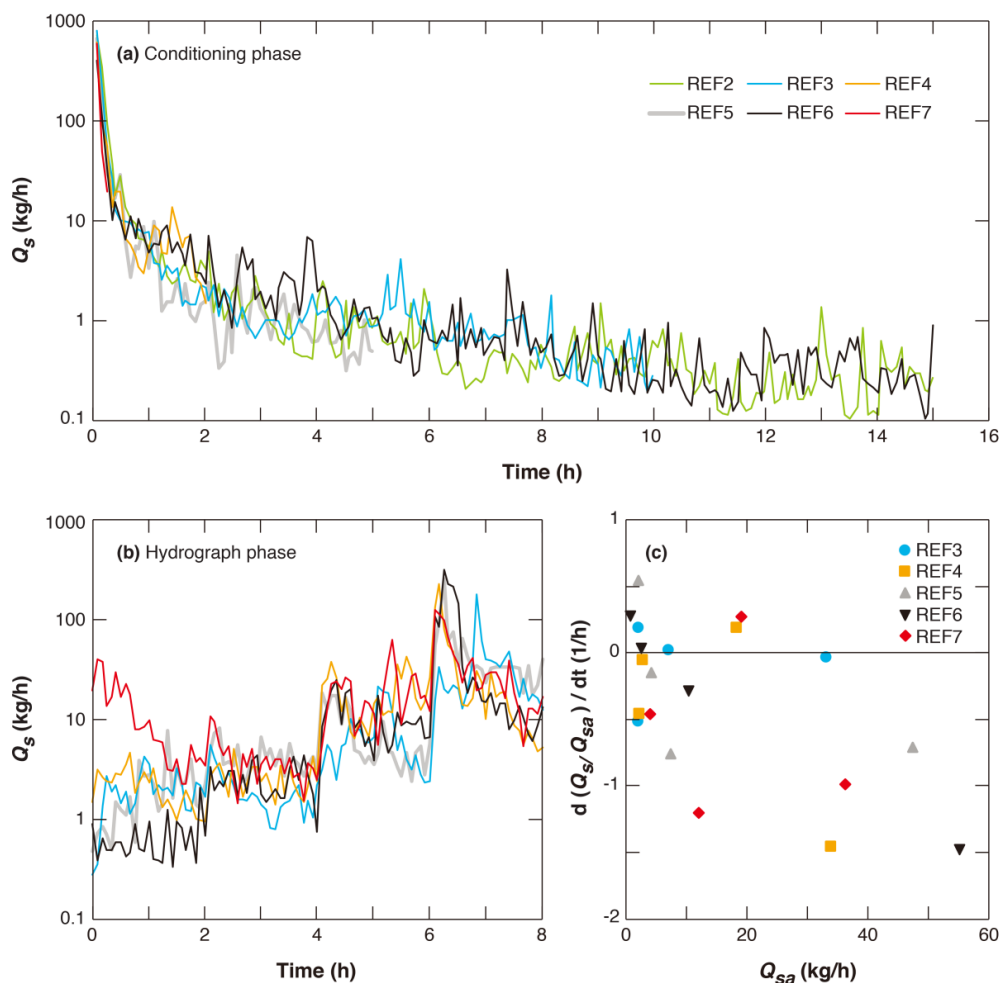
208  
209 **Figure 5.** Temporal adjustments of characteristic grain sizes of bed surface material calculated over the whole erodible  
210 bed: (a) the conditioning phase; (b) the hydrograph phase.

### 211 3.2 Sediment transport

212 In Fig. 6 we exhibit the instantaneous sediment transport rate  $Q_s$  measured by the light table in each  
213 experiment. Sediment transport is reported every 5 minutes, as described in Sect. 2. It can be seen in Fig. 6(a) that the  
214 temporal variation of sediment transport rate during the conditioning phase follows the same trend in all six  
215 experiments. That is, the sediment transport rate decreases significantly during the conditioning phase, with the  
216 decreasing rate being very large at the beginning and then gradually dropping. The sediment transport rate eventually  
217 approaches a small and relatively constant value after about 8 hours of conditioning flow. Nevertheless, there are  
218 random high points in the sediment transport rate even after 8 hours, despite no sediment feed from the inlet. These  
219 spikes imply that partial destruction (or reorganization) of the bed structure occurs even after a long duration of  
220 conditioning.



221 Previous researchers (Haynes and Pender, 2007; Masteller and Finnegan, 2017) have suggested that an  
 222 exponential function can be implemented to describe such a decrease of sediment transport rate under conditioning  
 223 flow. Additional analysis is implemented in the Supporting Information to fit REF2 (15) and REF6 (15) (which have  
 224 the longest duration of conditioning phase) against a two-parameter exponential function. Results show that the  
 225 exponential function can describe the general decreasing trend of sediment transport rate during the conditioning phase,  
 226 except at the beginning of the experiment where the decrease of sediment transport rate is much more significant than  
 227 that predicted by the exponential function. Readers can refer to the Supporting Information for more details.



228  
 229 **Figure 6.** Instantaneous sediment transport rate measured by light table during (a) the conditioning phase; and (b) the  
 230 hydrograph phase. (c) Intra-step temporal change rate of  $Q$ , normalized against  $Q_{sa}$  for each hydrograph step.  $Q_s$  is the  
 231 sediment transport rate, and  $Q_{sa}$  is the averaged sediment transport rate of a given hydrograph step.



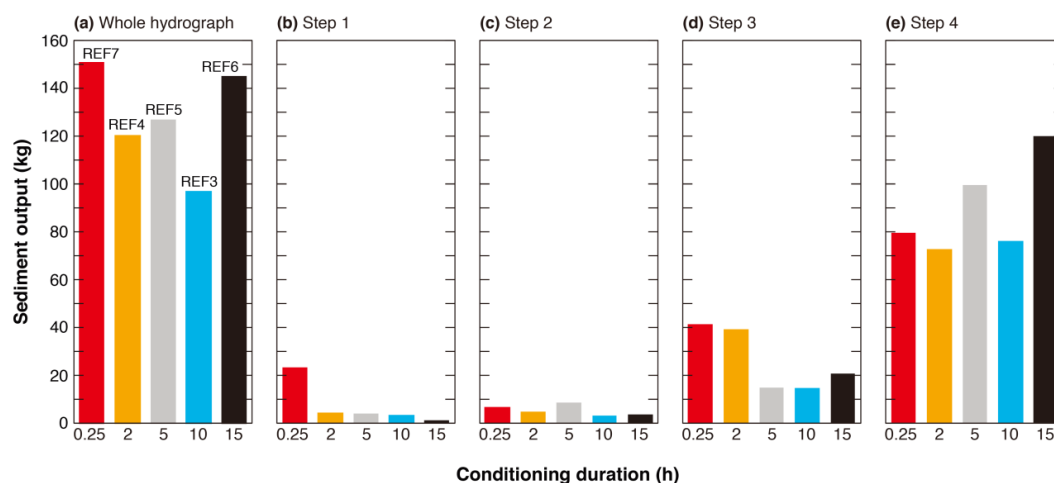
232 Figure 6(b) presents the instantaneous sediment transport rate during the hydrograph phase. Results show  
233 that variation of sediment transport rate among different experiments prevails in the first step of the hydrograph, with  
234 the highest sediment transport rate for the experiment with the shortest conditioning duration (REF7 (0.25)); and the  
235 smallest sediment transport rate for the experiment with the longest conditioning duration (REF6 (15)). Such variation  
236 among experiments, however, diminishes towards the end of Step 1 and is not observed in the following three steps  
237 of the hydrograph, with the line for each experiment collapsing together in the figure. The adjustments of sediment  
238 transport rate agree with the channel deformation shown in Fig. 3, where the pattern of variation in REF7 (0.25)  
239 deviates from other experiments in Step 1 (more degradation in REF7 (0.25)), but collapses with other experiments in  
240 the following three steps.

241 Results in Fig. 6(b) also show large variations of sediment transport rate during each step of the hydrograph.  
242 Such intra-step variations of sediment transport rate are investigated in Fig. 6(c), with the  $x$  axis being the averaged  
243 sediment transport rate of each step  $Q_{sa}$  and the  $y$  axis being  $d(Q_s/Q_{sa})/dt$ , which is estimated by linear regression. Here  
244 the instantaneous sediment transport rate  $Q_s$  is scaled against the average sediment transport rate of the corresponding  
245 step  $Q_{sa}$ , in order to facilitate the comparison among different hydrograph steps.

246 Results in Fig. 6(c) shows that a large fraction of the data (11 out of 20) exhibits a decreasing trend in time  
247 for  $Q_s$  (i.e. a negative value in vertical coordinate). Basically, the larger the averaged sediment transport rate  $Q_{sa}$ , the  
248 larger is the rate of reduction in  $Q_s$ . Ferrer-Boix and Hassan (2015) observed similar declines in sediment transport  
249 during their water pulses experiments. They attributed this to (1) the presence of bed structures, which could have  
250 reduced skin friction up to 20% and (2) streamwise changes in the patterns of bed surface sorting. Out of 20 datasets,  
251 5 exhibit some temporally increasing trend in  $Q_s$  (though not as evident as the decreasing trend mentioned before).  
252 They are REF5 (5), REF3 (10), REF6 (15) during the first step; and REF7 (0.25), REF4 (2) during the third step. This  
253 shows that for the three experiments with long conditioning duration,  $Q_s$  is very low at the end of the conditioning  
254 phase, and the first step of the hydrograph sees a temporally increasing trend in  $Q_s$ . Whereas for the two experiment  
255 with short conditioning phase,  $Q_s$  is still high at the end of the conditioning, so that the sediment transport rate keeps  
256 decreasing during the first step, until in the third step an increasing trend in  $Q_s$  is observed, at which the water and  
257 sediment supply become evidently higher.

258 To better understand the effect of the conditioning duration on sediment transport, we calculate the  
259 cumulative sediment transport during the entire hydrograph phase as well as each step of the hydrograph. Fig. 7(a)  
260 shows that the total sediment output during the entire hydrograph does not show much difference for each experiment,  
261 indicating that the duration of conditioning flow does not pose much influence on the total volume of sediment  
262 transport during the subsequent flood.

263



264  
265 **Figure 7.** Sediment output measured at a trap during (a) the whole hydrograph; (b) Step 1 of the hydrograph; (c) Step  
266 2 of the hydrograph; (d) Step 3 of the hydrograph; (e) Step 4 of the hydrograph.

267 However, if we study the sediment transport during each step of the hydrograph, we can find that in Step 1  
268 REF7 (0.25) has much larger sediment output than the other experiments, as shown in Fig. 7(b). This agrees with the  
269 results for instantaneous sediment transport rate shown in Fig. 6(b), and shows that the duration of conditioning flow  
270 can influence the sediment transport at the beginning of the subsequent flood, with a longer conditioning phase lead  
271 to less sediment transport. When the duration of conditioning flow is over 2 hours, the subsequent sediment transport  
272 rate becomes rather insensitive to further increase of conditioning duration, indicating that the reorganization of the  
273 river bed under conditioning flow is mostly finished within 2 hours. The effects of stress history on subsequent  
274 sediment transport can hardly be observed during Step 2 of the hydrograph (Fig. 7(c)). Sediment output in REF7 (0.25)  
275 reduces significantly to similar magnitude of other experiments, because most of the loose bed material in REF7 (0.25)  
276 has been moved by the end of Step 1. In Step 3 of the hydrograph (Fig. 7(d)), sediment output in REF7 (0.25) and  
277 REF4 (2) is larger than in other 3 experiments which have longer conditioning phases. But this difference of sediment  
278 output among experiments is not as significant as in Step 1. In the last step of the hydrograph, with the flow discharge  
279 and sediment supply approaching their peaks, the five experiments present similar sediment outputs, demonstrating  
280 that little influence of stress history remains.

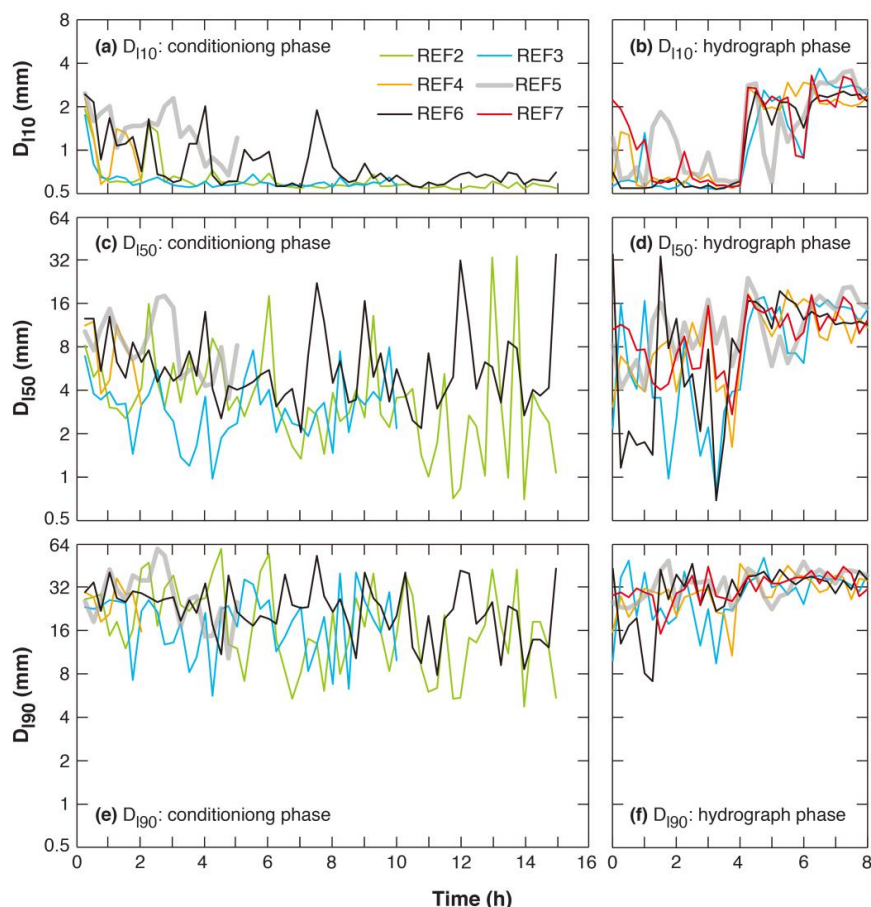
281 Figure 8 shows the temporal variation of the grain size distribution of the bedload. Here  $D_{10}$ ,  $D_{50}$ , and  $D_{90}$   
282 denote grain sizes such that 10%, 50%, and 90% are finer in the bedload, respectively. The value of  $D_{10}$  shows a  
283 decreasing trend during the conditioning phase (Fig. 8 (a)), with a value of more than 2 mm at the beginning to about  
284 0.6 mm after 15 hours, in spite of the large fluctuations before 8 hours. The decrease of  $D_{10}$  reflects an increase in the  
285 fraction of the finest sediment in bedload. In the first two steps of the hydrograph (Fig. 8(b)), the value of  $D_{10}$  is  
286 relatively stable for experiments with long conditioning phases (i.e., REF6 (15) and REF3 (10)), but shows a  
287 decreasing trend along with fluctuations for experiments with short conditioning phases (i.e., REF7 (0.25), REF4 (2),





288 and REF5 (5)). The last two steps of the hydrograph see an evident increase in the value of  $D_{110}$  compared with the  
289 first two steps, due to the increase of flow discharge and sediment supply (Fig. 8(b)).

290 Figures 8(c) and 8(d) show the temporal variation of  $D_{150}$ . Compared with that of  $D_{110}$ , the temporal variation  
291 of  $D_{150}$  shows more significant fluctuations during the conditioning phase, as well as at the beginning of the hydrograph,  
292 and a decreasing or increasing trend for grain size in the conditioning/hydrograph phase is not as evident. As for the  
293 temporal variation of  $D_{190}$  (in Figs. 8(e) and 8(f)), the fluctuations are still significant and there is almost no trend for  
294 either increasing or decreasing grain size during the experiment. This indicates that the transport of the coarsest  
295 sediment is not sensitive to the variation of our experimental conditions. The more significant fluctuations in  $D_{150}$  and  
296  $D_{190}$  might be attributed to the fact that during relatively low flow coarse sediment is more likely to be near the  
297 threshold of motion and move intermittently, e.g. in pulses, as opposed to fine sediment. These fluctuations gradually  
298 diminish with the increase of flow and sediment supply as the static armor on bed surface transits to mobile armor.



299  
300 **Figure 8.** Temporal adjustments of characteristic grain sizes of bedload. (a)  $D_{110}$  during conditioning phase; (b)  $D_{110}$   
301 during hydrograph phase; (c)  $D_{150}$  during conditioning phase; (d)  $D_{150}$  during hydrograph phase; (e)  $D_{190}$  during  
302 conditioning phase; (f)  $D_{190}$  during hydrograph phase.





303 With the fractional sediment transport rate measured by the light table, we also analyze the sediment mobility  
304 of each size range during the experiment. Results show that sediment transport rate is characterized by equal mobility  
305 at the beginning of the conditioning phase, but moves to partial/selective mobility after a relatively long conditioning  
306 phase as well as during the first two steps of the hydrograph. However, with the increase of flow discharge and  
307 sediment supply, the sediment transport regime gradually returns to equal mobility during the last two steps of the  
308 hydrograph. Details of the analysis are presented in the Supporting Information.

## 309 4 Discussion

### 310 4.1 Threshold of sediment motion in experiments

311 The threshold of sediment motion is a key parameter for the prediction of bedload transport. Previous studies  
312 on the stress history effect often start with a conditioning flow that is below the threshold of motion, and then gradually  
313 increase the flow discharge, so that the threshold of motion can be directly estimated in the experiment (e.g., Monteith  
314 and Pender, 2005; Masteller and Finnegan, 2017; Ockelford et al., 2019; etc.). Because our experiments implement a  
315 conditioning flow which can mobilize sediment (sediment transport at the beginning of the conditioning phase is  
316 especially large), the threshold of motion cannot be observed directly in the experiment. Here we estimate the threshold  
317 of sediment motion by adopting the Wong and Parker (2006) sediment transport relation, which is a revision of the  
318 Meyer-Peter and Müller (1948) relation.

319 We use the Wong and Parker (2006) relation, which maintains the exponent 1.5, of Meyer-Peter and Muller  
320 (1948):

$$321 \quad q_s^* = 3.97 (\tau_{s50}^* - \tau_c^*)^{1.5} \quad (1)$$

$$322 \quad q_s^* = \frac{q_s}{\sqrt{RgD_{s50}} D_{s50}} \quad (2)$$

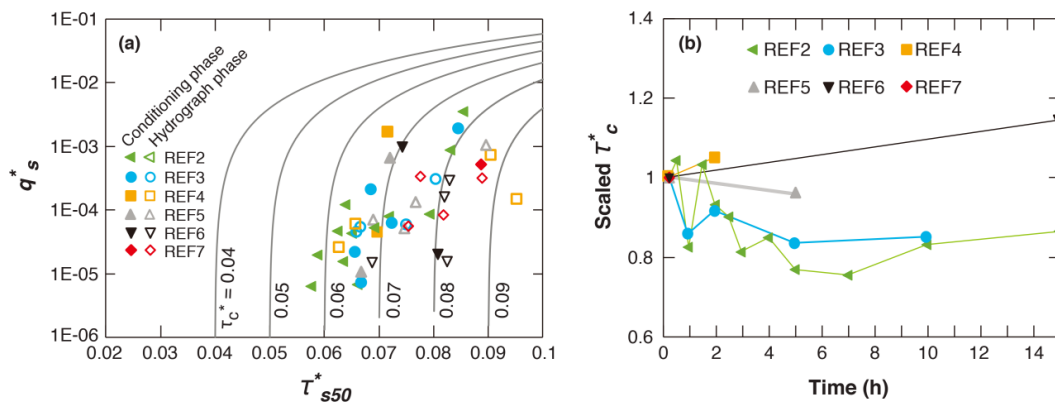
$$323 \quad \tau_{s50}^* = \frac{\tau_b}{\rho g R D_{s50}} \quad (3)$$

$$324 \quad \tau_b = \rho g h S_w \quad (4)$$

325 where  $q_s^*$  is the dimensionless bedload transport rate (Einstein number) defined by Eq. (2),  $\tau_{s50}^*$  is the Shields number  
326 for surface median grain size  $D_{s50}$  defined by Eq. (3),  $\tau_b$  is the flow shear stress calculated using the depth-slope  
327 product (Eq. (4)),  $\tau_c^*$  is the critical Shields number for the threshold of sediment motion,  $q_s$  is the volumetric sediment  
328 transport rate per unit width;  $h$  is water depth,  $S_w$  is water surface slope,  $R = 1.65$  is the submerged specific gravity of  
329 sediment,  $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$  is the gravitational acceleration and  $\rho = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$  is the water density. Wong and Parker  
330 (2006) proposed a value of 0.0495 for  $\tau_c^*$  in Eq. (1). Here we obtain  $q_s^*$  and  $\tau_{s50}^*$  from the measured data of the  
331 experiments, and back calculate the value of  $\tau_c^*$  using Eq. (1).



332 Figure 9(a) shows the values of  $q_s^*$  vs.  $\tau_{s50}^*$  for each experiment, along with the Wong and Parker (2006) type  
 333 relation (Eq. (1)) with various values for  $\tau_c^*$  (from 0.04 to 0.09). It can be seen from the figure that the measured  
 334 sediment transport is relatively low, with most points below the dimensionless value of 0.001. This indicates that the  
 335 Shields number in our experiment is slightly larger than the critical Shields number, a state that is typical for gravel-  
 336 bed rivers (Parker, 1978). The four points with dimensionless transport rate above 0.001 are all at the beginning of the  
 337 conditioning flow ( $t = 15$  minutes). The values of  $q_s^*$  basically show an increasing trend with the increase of  $\tau_{s50}^*$ , but  
 338 with the value of critical Shields number  $\tau_c^*$  covers a rather wide range (from less than 0.06 to larger than 0.09).



339 **Figure 9.** (a) Dimensionless sediment transport rate  $q_s^*$  vs. Shields number  $\tau_{s50}^*$  using surface median grain size for  
 340 measured transport rates (points). Also shown are lines for the Wong and Parker (2006) type equation (Eq. 1) using  
 341 different values for  $\tau_c^*$ . (b) Temporal adjustment of scaled  $\tau_c^*$  ( $\tau_c^*$  over  $\tau_c^*$  at 15 minutes) during the conditioning  
 342 phase. Here  $\tau_c^*$  is back-calculated using Eq. (1) (Wong and Parker (2006) type relation).  
 343

344 Table 2 shows the values of  $\tau_c^*$  back-calculated at the beginning ( $t = 15$  minutes) and the end of the  
 345 conditioning phase in each experiment. The back-calculated values of  $\tau_c^*$  vary in the range 0.066~0.086 for the  
 346 conditioning phase, which is well above the value of 0.0495 as recommended by Wong and Parker (2006). Lamb et  
 347 al. (2008) demonstrated that critical shear stress can become larger for large bed slope, and they proposed a relation  
 348 which considers the effect of bed slope,

$$349 \quad \tau_c^* = 0.15S_b^{0.25} \quad (5)$$

350 where  $S_b$  is bed slope. For comparison, Table 2 also shows the values of  $\tau_c^*$  calculated by Eq. (5). Results shows that  
 351 for the conditioning phase of our experiments,  $\tau_c^*$  calculated by Eq. (5) is above 0.06, which is much higher than the  
 352 recommended value of Wong and Parker (2006) and is closer to the values back-calculated by Eq. (1). Besides, the  
 353  $\tau_c^*$  values predicted by the Lamb et al. (2008) relation show little variability, indicating that only the slope effect  
 354 cannot explain the observed range of  $\tau_c^*$ .

355



356 **Table 2.** Values of  $\tau_c^*$  at the beginning ( $t = 15$  minutes) and the end of conditioning phase in each experiment. Here  
 357  $\tau_c^*$  is back calculated with Eq. (1). Also shown here are values of  $\tau_c^*$  estimated with the equation of Lamb et al. (2008)  
 358 for comparison.

		REF2	REF6	REF3	REF5	REF4	REF7
		(15)	(15)	(10)	(5)	(2)	(0.25)
$t = 15$ minutes	Back calculated by Eq. (1)	0.076	0.070	0.078	0.069	0.066	0.086
	Lamb et al. (2008)	0.063	0.066	0.061	0.065	0.061	0.066
End of conditioning	Back calculated by Eq. (1)	0.066	0.081	0.067	0.066	0.069	0.086
	Lamb et al. (2008)	0.061	0.063	0.060	0.063	0.062	0.066

359  
 360 In Fig. 9(b), we plot the scaled  $\tau_c^*$  during the conditioning phase of our experiments. For each experiment,  
 361 the scaled  $\tau_c^*$  is calculated as the ratio between  $\tau_c^*$  and the corresponding  $\tau_c^*$  at  $t = 15$  minutes.  $\tau_c^*$  implemented here  
 362 is back-calculated with Eq. (1). The scaled  $\tau_c^*$  collapses on a value of unity at  $t = 15$  minutes (i.e., the first point of  
 363 each experiment). It can be seen from the figure that different trends are exhibited for the adjustment of  $\tau_c^*$  from  $t =$   
 364 15 minutes to the end of conditioning phase, with REF2 (15) and REF3 (10) exhibiting a decreasing trend, REF4 (2)  
 365 and REF5 (5) exhibiting very slight changes, and REF6 (15) exhibiting an increasing trend. The decrease of  $\tau_c^*$  in  
 366 REF2 (15) and REF3 (10) is accompanied by a reduction of Shields number  $\tau_{s50}^*$ , mainly due to the increase of surface  
 367 median grain size  $D_{s50}$ . Moreover, the variation of back-calculated  $\tau_c^*$  is mostly within a range of  $\pm 20\%$ , in agreement  
 368 with our observation that variation of bed topography and bed surface texture become insignificant after 15 minutes.  
 369 It should be noted that  $\tau_c^*$  cannot be back-calculated using Eq. (1) within the first 15 minutes of the conditioning phase,  
 370 since the information for flow depth, water surface slope and bed surface GSD is not available. Nevertheless, we  
 371 expect the adjustment of  $\tau_c^*$  could be evident within the first 15 minutes, since the adjustments of both bed topography  
 372 and bed surface are significant during this period (as shown in Sect. 3.1).

#### 373 4.2 Implications and limitations

374 Previous research has shown that antecedent conditioning flow can lead to an increased critical shear stress  
 375 and reduced sediment transport rate during subsequent flood event (Hassan and Church, 2000; Haynes and Pender,  
 376 2007; Ockelford and Haynes, 2013; Masteller and Finnegan, 2017; etc.). Our flume experiments also show a reduced  
 377 sediment transport rate in response to the implementation of conditioning flow. However, our results are different  
 378 from previous research in that the influence of antecedent conditioning flow is found to last for a relatively short time  
 379 at the beginning of the following hydrograph, and then gradually diminish with the increase of flow intensity as well  
 380 as sediment supply. Such results indicate that increasing flow intensity and sediment supply during a flood event can  
 381 lead to the loss of memory of stress history. A similar phenomenon was observed by Mao (2018) in his experiment,  
 382 where sediment transport during a high-magnitude flood event was not much affected by the occurrence of lower-  
 383 magnitude flood event before.



384 Our results have practical implications for mountain gravel bed rivers. The importance of conditioning flow  
385 has long been discussed in the literature, and researchers have suggested that the stress history effect be considered in  
386 the modeling and analysis of gravel bed rivers. For example, previous research states that existing sediment transport  
387 theory for gravel bed rivers (e.g., Meyer-Peter and Müller, 1948; Wilcock and Crowe, 2003; Wong and Parker, 2006;  
388 etc.) might lead to unrealistic prediction if the stress history effect is not taken into account (Masteller and Finnegan,  
389 2017; Mao, 2018; Ockelford et al., 2019). Our results indicate that the stress history effect is important and needs to  
390 be considered for low flow as well as the beginning of the flood event, but becomes insignificant as the flow gradually  
391 approaches high flow discharge. This could have implications in river engineering such as water and sediment  
392 regulation schemes for mountain gravel-bed rivers.

393 To explain the effect of stress history, Ockelford and Haynes (2013) has summarized the following possible  
394 mechanisms. (1) Vertical settling during the conditioning flow consolidates the bed into a tighter packing arrangement  
395 which is more resistant to entrainment. (2) Local reorientation and rearrangement of surface particles provide a greater  
396 degree of imbrication, less resistance to fluid flow, as well as direct sheltering on the bed surface. (3) The infiltration  
397 of fines into low-relief pore spaces can further increase the bed compaction. In the experiment of Masteller and  
398 Finnegan (2017), it was found that the most drastic changes during conditioning flow are manifest in the extreme tail  
399 of the elevation distribution (i.e., the highest protruding grains) and go therefore undetected in most bulk  
400 measurements (e.g. the mean bed elevation or standard deviation of bed topography). They demonstrated that such  
401 reorganization of the highest protruding grains can indeed lead to noticeable differences in the threshold of sediment  
402 transport (Masteller and Finnegan, 2017). This might explain the observation in our experiment that after the first 15  
403 minutes of the conditioning phase, adjustments of the bed topography and the bed surface GSD become insignificant,  
404 but the sediment transport rate as well as its GSD keeps adjusting consistently.

405 In our experiments as well as previous experiments that study the effect conditioning flow (e.g., Monteith  
406 and Pender, 2005; Masteller and Finnegan, 2017; Ockelford et al., 2019; etc.), no sediment supply is implemented  
407 during the conditioning flow, and the flow can reorganize the bed surface to a state that is more resistant to sediment  
408 entrainment. Therefore, it is straightforward to expect that the conclusions based on our flume experiments to apply  
409 for natural rivers where sediment supply is relatively low during low flow conditions. However, some gravel-bed  
410 rivers have quite active hillslopes, and sediment input from hillslopes to river channel can occur regularly (Turowski  
411 et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2019). Since the sediment material from hillslopes is typically loose and easy to transport,  
412 under such circumstances a long inter-event duration (i.e., low-flow duration) might lead to an enhanced sediment  
413 transport rate in the subsequent flood (Turowski et al., 2011).

414 It should also be noted that in previous experiment on the stress history effect, conditioning flow is often set  
415 below the threshold of sediment motion. One exception is the experiment of Haynes and Pender (2007) in which the  
416 conditioning flow is above the threshold of motion for  $D_{50}$ . In this paper we also implement a conditioning flow which  
417 can mobilize sediment, especially at the beginning of the conditioning phase during which evident sediment transport  
418 occurs. Compared with the below-threshold conditioning flow, we consider that the above-threshold conditioning flow  
419 can induce more evident reorganization of bed surface, which might be more lasting during subsequent flood. That  
420 said, we expect the conclusion of this study can still hold if below-threshold conditioning flow is implemented.



421 Nevertheless, flume experiments with various magnitudes of conditioning flow (both above- and below-threshold of  
422 motion) merit future study. Besides, considering that the conditions of existing experiments on stress history effect  
423 are limited, implementation of numerical simulations under a wider range of conditions also merits future study.

## 424 5 Conclusions

425 In this paper, the effect of antecedent conditioning flow (i.e., the effect of stress history) on the  
426 morphodynamics of gravel-bed rivers during subsequent floods is studied via flume experimentation. The experiment  
427 described here is designed based on the conditions of East Creek, Canada. The experiment consists of two phases: a  
428 conditioning phase with constant water discharge and no sediment supply, followed by a hydrograph phase with  
429 hydrograph and sedimentograph. Five runs (REF 3~7) were conducted with identical experimental conditions except  
430 different durations of conditioning phase. Another run (REF 2), which consists of only the conditioning phase, is  
431 conducted in order to test the reproducibility of experimental results during the conditioning flow. Experimental results  
432 show the following.

- 433 ● Adjustments of channel morphology (including channel bed longitudinal profile, standard deviation of bed  
434 elevation, characteristic grain sizes of bed surface material) are evident during the first 15 minutes of the  
435 conditioning phase, but become insignificant during the remainder of the conditioning phase.
- 436 ● The implementation of conditioning flow can indeed lead to a reduction in sediment transport during the  
437 subsequent hydrograph, which agrees with previous research.
- 438 ● However, the effect of stress history on sediment transport rate is limited to a relatively short time at the beginning  
439 of the hydrograph, and gradually diminishes with the increase of flow discharge and sediment supply, indicating  
440 a loss of memory of stress history under high flow discharge. Also, the effect of stress history on the GSD of  
441 bedload is not evident.
- 442 ● The threshold of sediment motion is estimated with the form of the Wong and Parker (2006) relation. The  
443 estimated critical Shields number varies in the range 0.066~0.086 during the conditioning phase (excluding the  
444 first 15 minutes), and is higher than the value recommended by Wong and Parker (2006).

445 Our study has implications in regard to a wide range of issues for mountain gravel-bed rivers, including  
446 sediment budget analysis, river morphodynamic modeling, water and sediment regulation, flood management, and  
447 ecological restoration schemes.

## 448 Notation

449  $D_{150}$ : grain size such that 50 percent in sediment load is finer (similarly  $D_{10}$  is such that 10 percent in sediment load  
450 is finer and  $D_{90}$  is such that 90 percent in sediment load is finer).

451  $D_{s50}$ : grain size such that 50 percent on bed surface is finer (similarly  $D_{s10}$  is such that 10 percent on bed surface is  
452 finer and  $D_{s90}$  is such that 90 percent on bed surface is finer).

453  $F_r$ : Froude number.

454  $g$ : gravitational acceleration.



- 455  $h$ : water depth.  
456  $Q_s$ : sediment transport rate.  
457  $q_s$ : volumetric sediment transport rate per unit width.  
458  $q_s^*$ : the dimensionless bedload transport rate (Einstein number).  
459  $R$ : submerged specific gravity of sediment.  
460  $S_b$ : bed slope.  
461  $S_w$ : water surface slope.  
462  $\rho$ : water density.  
463  $\tau_b$ : bed shear stress.  
464  $\tau_c^*$ : critical Shields number for the threshold of sediment motion.  
465  $\tau_{s50}^*$ : dimensionless shear stress (Shields number) of the  $D_{s50}$ .

#### 466 **Data availability**

467 Data used for the analysis can be found at doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.12758414 (An, 2020).

#### 468 **Author contribution**

469 Marwan A. Hassan and Xudong Fu designed the research. Carles Ferrer-Boix performed the experiments. Chenge An  
470 processed and analyzed the experimental data. Chenge An prepared the manuscript with contributions from all  
471 coauthors.

#### 472 **Competing interests**

473 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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