1 Impacts of Three Gorges Dam's operation on spatial-temporal

2 patterns of tide-river dynamics in the Yangtze River estuary, China

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19	Key points

- 20 1. Impacts of TGD operation on tide-river dynamics are quantified using an analytical
- 21 model.
- 22 2. The strongest impacts occurred during autumn and winter due to the seasonal
- 23 freshwater regulation by TGD.
- 24 3. The alteration of tide-river dynamics may exert considerable impacts on sustainable
- 25 water resource management in dam-controlled estuaries.
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30 Abstract

The Three Gorges Dam (TGD), located in the mainstream of the Yangtze River, is the 31 32 world's largest hydroelectric station in terms of installed power capacity. It was demonstrated that the TGD had caused considerable modifications in the downstream 33 freshwater discharge due to its seasonal operation mode of multiple utilisation for flood 34 control, irrigation, and power generation. To understand the impacts of the freshwater 35 regulation of TGD, an analytical model is adopted to explore how the operation of TGD 36 may affect the spatial-temporal patterns of tide-river dynamics in the Yangtze River 37 38 estuary. We evaluated the effect of TGD by comparing the changes in major tide-river dynamics in the post-TGD period (2003-2014) with those in the pre-TGD period 39 (1979–1984). The results indicate that the strongest impacts occurred during the autumn 40 41 and winter, corresponding to a substantial reduction in freshwater discharge during the wet-to-dry transition period and slightly increased discharge during the dry season. The 42 underlying mechanism leading to changes in the tide-river dynamics lies in the 43 44 alteration of freshwater discharge, while the impact of geometric change is minimal. Overall, the results suggest that the spatial-temporal pattern of tide-river dynamics is 45 sensible to the freshwater regulation of the TGD, so that the ecosystem function of the 46 estuary may undergo profound disturbances. The results obtained from this study can 47 be used to set scientific guidelines for water resource management (e.g. navigation, 48 flood control, salt intrusion) in dam-controlled estuarine systems. 49

50 Key words: seasonal freshwater regulation, Three Gorges Dam, analytical model, tide-

51 river dynamics, Yangtze River estuary

52 **1. Introduction**

Estuaries are transition zones where river meets ocean (Savenije, 2012). Tide-river 53 interactions, a result of both hydrologic drivers and geomorphic constraints, are highly 54 dynamic in estuaries (Buschman et al., 2009; Sassi and Hoitink, 2013; Guo et al., 2015; 55 Cai et al., 2016; Hoitink and Jay, 2016; Hoitink et al., 2017; Du et al., 2018). In natural 56 conditions, they usually experience a wide range of temporal variations, in timescale 57 ranging from a fortnight to season (e.g. Zhang et al., 2018). Human intervention, such 58 as dam construction in the upstream parts of a river and the growing number of water 59 60 conservancy projects built along large rivers (such as freshwater withdrawal), have caused seasonal changes in downstream freshwater discharge delivery, leading to 61 adjustments in the function of fluvial and estuarine hydrology (e.g. Lu et al., 2011; Mei 62 63 et al., 2015; Dai et al., 2017). Consequently, it is important to understand the impacts of large-scale human intervention, such as flood control, navigation, salt intrusion, and 64 freshwater withdrawal, which are relevant not only to tide-river dynamics and riparian 65 66 ecology but also to sustainable water resource management in general.

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River discharge generally fluctuates following a wet-dry cycle due to the seasonal variation of precipitation in the upstream river basin. For instance, the Yangtze River, the largest river in China in terms of mean discharge, which flows into the East China Sea, has a maximum river discharge during summer in July and a low value during winter in January, with a maximum discharge difference of approximately 38,000 m³/s (Cai et al., 2016). Similar seasonal variations are also identified in other large rivers in

eastern and southern Asia, such as the Mekong River in Vietnam, Ganges River in India, 74 and Pearl River in China, under the influence of a monsoon climate. However, most 75 76 large rivers have been significantly dammed at the central and upper reaches in recent decades, dramatically modifying stream hydrology and sediment delivery, resulting in 77 78 changes in hydraulics and river delta development trend at the lower reaches (e.g. Räsänen et al, 2017; Rahman et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018). Due to the fact that the 79 response of tide-river interactions to the impacts of dams are diverse and non-uniform 80 and that many more dams are to be built in the future, the impacts of the hydrodynamic 81 82 interactions between tidal waves and seasonal river flows from natural variations and anthropogenic activities have become a common focus in international hydraulic 83 research, especially in large tidal rivers. 84

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The Yangtze River estuary, located near the coastal area of East China Sea, is one of the 86 largest estuaries in Asia. In the mouth of the Yangtze River estuary, bifurcation occurs 87 88 and the characteristics of tides have been broadly investigated in previous studies (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2015; Alebregtse and Swart, 2016). However, in these 89 studies, river influences are usually neglected. In recent years, the processes of 90 nonlinear interactions between tidal wave and river flow in the Yangtze River estuary 91 have received increasing attention (e.g. Guo et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015a, b; Cai et 92 al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). However, recent studies on tidal 93 94 properties, such as asymmetry, changes near the mouth area, and seasonal variations in tidal wave propagation and fluvial effects over the entire 600 km of the tidal river, up 95

to the tidal limit of the Datong hydrological station, have been limited. In addition, the 96 operation of the Three Gorges Dam (TGD), the largest dam in the world, has 97 98 substantially affected the downstream river hydrology and sediment delivery. There is a variety of debate regarding the potential impacts of TGD on the downstream river 99 morphology, hydrology, and ecology, since the underlying mechanism of the impact of 100 101 the TGD is not fully understood. Specifically, the TGD operation has altered the downstream fluvial discharge and water levels on the seasonal scale, directly following 102 the reservoir seasonal impounding and release of water volume (e.g. Chen et al., 2016; 103 104 Guo et al., 2018). However, the impacts of seasonal freshwater regulation by the TGD on the spatial-temporal tide-river dynamics in the downstream estuarine area have not 105 been systematically investigated. For example, during the dry season TGD operation 106 107 increased the multi-year monthly averaged river discharge at Datong station from 9520 $m^3 \cdot s^{-1}$ to 12896 $m^3 \cdot s^{-1}$ in January, while during wet season the regulation reduced the 108 river discharge from 49900 m³·s⁻¹ to 44367 m³·s⁻¹ in July during the pre- and post- TGD 109 110 period.

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In this study, for the first time, the spatial-temporal variations in the hydrodynamic processes due to the interactions of tidal flow and fluvial discharge in the Yangtze River estuary caused by natural forcing and human intervention were studied, with specific focus on the effect of TGD seasonal regulation. Here, we adopted a well-developed analytical model proposed by Cai et al. (2014a, 2016) to investigate the spatial-temporal patterns of tide-river dynamics in the entire Yangtze River estuary and quantify the

impacts of the TGD operation. In the following sections, we introduce the study site of 118 the Yangtze River estuary. This is followed by a description of the available data and 119 analytical model of tide-river dynamics in Section 3. Subsequently, we applied the 120 model to the Yangtze River estuary, where the TGD has operated since 2003 (Section 121 122 4). In particular, we explored the alteration of the tide-river dynamics after the TGD closure and summarise the impacts of the TGD on the spatial-temporal patterns of tide-123 river dynamics. The impacts of channel geometry and river discharge alterations on 124 tide-river dynamics as well as the implications for sustainable water resource 125 management were then discussed in Section 5. Finally, some key findings were 126 addressed in Section 6. 127

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129 **2.** Overview of the Yangtze River estuary

The Yangtze River, flowing from west to east in central China, is one of the world's 130 most important rivers due to its great economic and social relevance. It has a length of 131 about 6300 km and a basin area of about 190,000 km² (Figure 1a). The Yangtze River 132 basin is geographically divided into three parts, the upper, central, and lower sub-basins, 133 and contains an estuary area with partitions at Yichang, Jiujiang, and Datong (DT), 134 respectively (Figure 1a). Of concern in this study are the impacts of the Three Gorges 135 Dam (TGD), the world's largest dam, on the spatial-temporal patterns of tide-river 136 dynamics in the estuarine area. It is located about 45 km upstream of Yichang (Figure 137 1a). The TGD project began in 2003; by 2009, when full operations began, the total 138 water storage capacity rose up to $\sim 40 \text{ km}^3$, equivalent to 5% of the Yangtze's annual 139

140	discharge. Downstream the DT station, where the tidal limit is located, the Yangtze
141	River estuary extends ~630 km to the seaward end of the South Branch. Wuhu (WH),
142	Maanshan (MAS), Nanjing (NJ), Zhenjiang (ZJ), Jiangyin (JY), and Tianshenggang
143	(TSG) are the major gauging stations along the mainstream in the seaward direction
144	(Figure 1b). Under the control of the Asian monsoon climate, river discharges show
145	distinct seasonal patterns. In 1979–2012, more than 70% of freshwater was discharged
146	at DT occurred during summer (May-October).

Apart from river flows, tidal waves are also recognised as the major sources of energy for hydrodynamics in the Yangtze River estuary, which is characterised by a meso-tide with a tidal range of up to 4.6 m and a mean tidal range of ~2.7 m near the estuary mouth. According to the observation in the Gaoqiaoju tidal gauging station (1950– 2012), the averaged ebb tide duration (7.5 h) is a bit longer than the averaged flood tide duration (5 h), indicating an irregular semidiurnal character (Zhang et al., 2012).



Figure 1. Maps of the Yangtze River basin (a) and Yangtze River estuary (b) with the
 location of tidal gauging and hydrological stations shown with black solid circles and
 red solid rectangles.

159 **3. Data and Methodology**

160 **3.1 Source of Data**

To quantitatively investigate the relationship between freshwater discharge regulation caused by the TGD operation and the tide-river dynamics, monthly averaged hydrological data for both pre-TGD (1979–1984) and post-TGD (2003–2014) periods of tidal range and water level from the above-mentioned six tidal gauging stations along the Yangtze River estuary were collected. They were published by the Yangtze Hydrology Bureau of the People's Republic of China. The monthly averaged tidal
amplitude is determined by averaging the daily difference between high and low water
levels and dividing by two. To correctly quantify the residual water level along the
Yangtze estuary, locally measured water level at different gauging stations are corrected
to the national mean sea level of Huanghai 1985.

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172 **3.2 Analytical model for tide-river dynamics**

173 **3.2.1 Basic equations**

In tidal rivers, the tidally averaged water level (i.e. residual water level) depicts a steady gradient, which usually increases with freshwater discharge (e.g. Sassi and Hoitink, 2013). The key to deriving the dynamics of the residual water level lies in the onedimensional momentum equation, which can be expressed as (e.g. Savenije, 2005, 2012):

179
$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + g \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} + \frac{gh}{2\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + g \frac{U |U|}{K^2 h^{4/3}} = 0,$$

(1)

180 where *U* is the cross-sectional averaged velocity, *Z* is the free surface elevation, *h* is the 181 water depth, *g* is the acceleration due to gravity, *t* is the time, ρ is the water density, *x* is 182 the longitudinal coordinate directed landward, and *K* is the Manning-Strickler friction 183 coefficient. It was demonstrated that in the subtidal momentum balance, the residual 184 water level slope is primarily balanced by the residual friction term (Vignoli et al., 2003; 185 Buschman et al., 2009; Cai et al., 2014a, for a detailed derivation, readers can refer to 186 the Appendix A):

187
$$\frac{\overline{\partial Z}}{\partial x} = -\frac{\overline{U | U |}}{K^2 h^{4/3}}$$
(2)

189 where the overbars indicate the tidal average. For a single channel with the residual 190 water level set to 0 at the estuary mouth (i.e. $\overline{Z} = 0$ at x = 0), the integration of 191 Equation (2) leads to an analytical expression for the residual water level

192
$$\overline{Z}(x) = -\int_{0}^{x} \frac{\overline{\partial Z}}{\partial x} = -\int_{0}^{x} \frac{\overline{U | U |}}{K^{2} h^{4/3}} \quad .$$
(3)

To derive the analytical solutions for tide-river dynamics, we assume that the longitudinal variation of cross-sectional area \overline{A} and width \overline{B} can be described by the following exponential functions (see also Toffolon et al., 2006; Cai et al., 2014a):

196
$$\overline{A} = \overline{A_r} + \left(\overline{A_0} - \overline{A_r}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{x}{a}\right), \tag{4}$$

197
$$\overline{B} = \overline{B_r} + \left(\overline{B_0} - \overline{B_r}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{x}{b}\right), \tag{5}$$

where $\overline{A_0}$ and $\overline{B_0}$ represent the tidally averaged cross-sectional area and width at the 198 estuary mouth, respectively, $\overline{A_r}$ and $\overline{B_r}$ represent the asymptotic riverine cross-199 sectional area and width, respectively, and a and b are the convergence lengths of the 200 cross-sectional area and width, respectively. The advantage of these equations for 201 approximating the shape of the estuary is that they account not only for the exponential 202 shape in the lower part of the tidal river but also for the approximately prismatic channel 203 in the upstream part of the tidal river. We further assume a nearly rectangular cross-204 section, considering a large width to depth ratio; hence, the tidally averaged depth is 205 given by $\bar{h} = \bar{A}/\bar{B}$ and the cross-sectional area variability can be primarily attributed 206 to the change in depth. 207

208 **3.2.2** Analytical solution for tidal hydrodynamics

209	It was shown by Cai et al. (2014a, b, 2016) that the tide-river dynamics is dominantly
210	controlled by four dimensionless parameters (see their definitions in Table 1). They
211	include: the dimensionless tidal amplitude ζ (representing the boundary condition in the
212	seaward side), the estuary shape number γ (representing the cross-sectional area
213	convergence), the friction number χ (representing the bottom frictional effect), and the
214	dimensionless river discharge φ (representing the impact of freshwater discharge). The
215	definitions of these four variables are defined in Table 1, where η is the tidal amplitude,
216	v is the velocity amplitude, U_r is the river flow velocity, ω is the tidal frequency, $r_s =$
217	B_S/\bar{B} is the storage width ratio between the storage width B_S and the stream width \bar{B}
218	that accounts for the effect of storage area (i.e., tidal flats or salt marshes), and c_0 is the
219	classical wave celerity defined as $c_0 = \sqrt{g\bar{h}/r_s}$.

Table 1. Definitions of dimensionless parameters used in the analytical model

riables
number
dx)
nber
$/(r_s\eta c_0)$
nber
7
$-\phi_U$)

In this study, we used the analytical solutions proposed by Cai et al. (2014a, b, 2016), 222 in which the solutions of the major tide-river dynamics are derived by solving a set of 223 224 four implicit equations for the tidal damping, the velocity amplitude, the wave celerity, and the phase lag (see details in Appendix B). The major dependent parameters can be 225 226 described by the following four variables (see also Table 1): δ represents the damping/amplification number describing the increase ($\delta > 0$), or decrease ($\delta < 0$) of 227 the tidal wave amplitude along the estuary axis, μ represents the velocity number 228 indicating the ratio of actual velocity amplitude to the frictionless value in a prismatic 229 230 channel, λ represents the celerity number representing the classical wave celerity c_0 scaled by the actual wave celerity c, and ε represents the phase lag between the high 231 water (HW) and high water slack (HWS) or between the low water (LW) and low water 232 233 slack (LWS). It is important to note that the phase lag (ranging between 0 and $\pi/2$) is a key parameter in classifying the estuary, where $\varepsilon = 0$ suggests the tidal wave is featured 234 by a standing wave, while $\varepsilon = \pi/2$ indicates a progressive wave. For a simple harmonic 235 wave, the phase lag is defined as $\varepsilon = \pi / 2 - (\phi_z - \phi_U)$, where ϕ_z and ϕ_u are the phases 236 of elevation and current, respectively (Savenije, et al., 2008). 237

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239 **3.2.3 Analytical solution for the entire channel**

It is worth noting that the analytically computed tide-river dynamics μ , δ , λ , and ε only represent local hydrodynamics since they depend on local (fixed position) values of the dimensionless parameters, i.e. the tidal amplitude ζ , the estuary shape number γ , the friction number χ , and the river discharge φ (see Table 1). To correctly reproduce the tide-river dynamics for the entire channel, a multi-reach technique is adopted by subdividing the entire estuary into multiple reaches to account for the longitudinal variations of the estuarine sections (e.g. bed elevation, bottom friction). For a given tidal damping/amplification number δ and tidal amplitude η at the seaward boundary, it is possible to determine the tidal amplitude at a distance Δx (e.g. 1 km) upstream by simple explicit integration. Hence, the analytical solution for the entire channel can be obtained by step-wise integration in this way.

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252 **4. Results**

4.1 Observational analysis on the alteration of tide-river dynamics after TGD closure

255 To quantify the impacts of TGD operation on the downstream tide-river dynamics, we divided the time series into two periods, including a pre-TGD period (1979-1984, 256 representing the condition before the operation of the TGD) and a post-TGD period 257 258 (2003–2014, after the closure of the TGD with an operating TGD). Figure 2 shows the changes in the observed tidal range ΔH and residual water level $\Delta \overline{Z}$ before and after 259 the closure of the TGD at the six gauging stations, together with the change in 260 freshwater discharge ΔQ observed at the DT hydrological station. Figure 2 and Table 2 261 clearly show that the monthly averaged river discharge in January, February, and March 262 substantially increased by 35.5%, 30.5%, and 16.4%, respectively, due to the 263 considerable release of freshwater from the TGD. On the other hand, we observe a 264 significant decrease in freshwater discharge in September, October, and November, 265

266	decreasing by 20.1%, 33.2%, and 20.8%, respectively. The reason can be primarily
267	attributed to the impounding water of the TGD during these months, especially in
268	October. During the other months, the impacts of TGD on the change in the freshwater
269	discharge are relatively small, mimicking the natural condition before the operation of
270	the TGD.

In Figure 2a we observe an increasing trend in tidal range for the post-TGD period at 272 the six gauging stations, except for the marked decrease at the ZJ station in the first half 273 274 of the year (i.e. January–June). On average, the maximum increase (0.20 m) in tidal range occurs in October, which is mainly due to the substantial reduction of river 275 discharge caused by the TGD operation. This indicates a consistent enhancement of 276 277 tidal dynamics along the Yangtze estuary, except the reach near the ZJ station. The exceptional case in ZJ station is likely due to the fact that ZJ station is located near the 278 position of the tidal current limit during the dry season (Guo et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 279 280 2018). The shallow and narrow geometry around ZJ station impedes the tidal wave propagation when river discharge increases due to the TGD operation during the dry 281 season (Chen et al., 2012), leading to a remarkably decreasing tidal range in the first 282 half of the year. For the residual water level, Figure 2b clearly shows that the change in 283 the residual water level directly follows that of the river discharge due to the stable 284 relationship between these two parameters. In particular, we see that the residual water 285 levels increased by 0.26 m, 0.30 m, and 0.16 m, respectively, in January, February, and 286 March, while they significantly decreased by 0.72 m, 1.17 m, and 0.70 m, respectively, 287

in September, October, and November. In addition, the decrease trend in residual water
level is more significant at upstream stations when compared with those in the
downstream areas.



Figure 2. Changes in monthly averaged (a) tidal range ΔH and (b) residual water level $\Delta \overline{Z}$ together with the freshwater discharge ΔQ along the Yangtze River estuary.

Table 2. Comparison of multi-year monthly averaged river discharge Q (m³·s⁻¹)

Month	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Pre-TGD	9520	10527	16298	25050	30867	38283	49900	47276	45317	38467	23633	14810
Post-TGD	12896	13733	18974	22165	30971	39180	44367	40590	36187	25682	18714	14203
Change	3376	3206	2675	-2885	105	896	-5533	-6687	-9130	-12784	-4919	-607

302 between the pre-TGD and the post-TGD periods

Since the TGD operation affects tide-river dynamics primarily through the alteration of the freshwater discharge, it is worth exploring the patterns of trends in the relationship between the freshwater discharge and gradients of the main tidal parameters with respect to distance (i.e. the tidal damping rate and the residual water level slope). Here, we estimated the tidal damping rate δ_H and the residual water level slope *S* for a reach of Δx by using the following expressions:

$$\delta_{H} = \frac{1}{(H_{1} + H_{2})/2} \frac{H_{2} - H_{1}}{\Delta x},$$
(6)

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$$S = \frac{\overline{Z_2} - \overline{Z_1}}{\Delta x},\tag{7}$$

where H_l and $\overline{Z_1}$ are the tidal amplitude and residual water level on the seaward side, 311 respectively, whereas H_2 and $\overline{Z_2}$ are the corresponding values Δx upstream, 312 313 respectively. Figure 3 presents the computed tidal damping rates for different reaches along the Yangtze estuary based on the observed tidal ranges at the six gauging stations. 314 It is remarkable that the tidal damping rates at the ZJ-NJ and MAS-WH reaches have 315 316 significantly increased during the post-TGD period, which suggests an enhancement of tidal dynamics under the current freshwater discharge conditions. On the contrary, a 317 noticeable decrease in δ_H was observed at the JY-ZJ reach, which corresponds to a 318

decrease in tidal range at the ZJ station for the low river discharge conditions (from January to May, see Figure 2a). At TGS-JY and NJ-MAS, no significant change in δ_H is observed. In Figure 4, a consistent decrease in the residual water level slope *S* is observed along the Yangtze estuary, except for the JY-ZJ reach. This means that the residual friction effect becomes weaker in the post-TGD period since the residual water level slope is primarily balanced by the residual friction term (Cai et al., 2014a, b, 2016).



Figure 3. Changes in tidal damping rate δ_H before and after the TGD closure for different reaches along the Yangtze estuary: (a) TGS-JY, (b) JY-ZJ, (c) ZJ-NJ, (d) NJ-MAS, (e) MAS-WH.



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Figure 4. Changes in residual water level slope *S* before and after the TGD closure for
different reaches along the Yangtze estuary: (a) TGS-JY, (b) JY-ZJ, (c) ZJ-NJ, (d) NJMAS, (e) MAS-WH.

4.2 Performance of the analytical model reproducing the tide-river dynamics

The analytical model presented in Section 3.2 was subsequently applied to the Yangtze River estuary, with the seaward boundary using the tidal amplitude imposed at the TSG station and the landward boundary using the river discharge imposed at the DT station. The computation length of the estuary is 470 km, covering the entire estuary from TSG to DT. The adopted geometric characteristics (including the tidally averaged crosssectional area, width, and depth) are the same for both pre- and post-TGD periods, which were extracted from a digital elevation model (DEM) using Yangtze River

estuary navigation charts surveyed in 2007. The geometric characteristics, calibrated 342 by fitting the observed values using Equations (4) and (5), are presented in Table 3, 343 344 where a relatively large cross-sectional area convergence length (a = 151 km) is evident, with a relatively small width (b = 44 km), indicating a fast transition from a funnel-345 shaped reach to a prismatic reach in terms of width. It is worth noting that the Yangtze 346 River estuary is characterised by a typical semidiurnal character; thus, a typical M₂ tidal 347 period (i.e. 12.42 h) was adopted in the analytical model. For the sake of simplification, 348 we assume that the storage width ratio $r_s = 1$. Hence, the only calibrated parameter is 349 the Manning-Strickler friction coefficient K. Here, we used two values for K: K = 80350 $m^{1/3} \cdot s^{-1}$ in the tide-dominated region (x = 0-32 km), and a smaller value of K = 55 351 $m^{1/3} \cdot s^{-1}$ in the river-dominated region (x = 52-450 km). In addition, to avoid sharp jump 352 353 in the analytically computed parameters due to the adoption of different friction coefficients, we adopted a friction coefficient of $K=80-55 \text{ m}^{1/3}\text{s}^{-1}$ (indicating a linear 354 reduction of the friction coefficient) over the transitional reach (x=32-52 km). The 355 356 analytically computed results were compared with the observed tidal amplitudes and the residual water levels at five gauging stations along the Yangtze estuary (Figure 5). 357 It can be seen that the overall correspondence between analytical results and 358 observations is good, with high coefficients of determination ($R^2 > 0.95$), which 359 suggests the usefulness of the present analytical model for reproducing the tide-river 360 dynamics, given the gross features of flow characteristics and estuarine geometry. 361

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Table 3. Characteristics of geometric parameters in the Yangtze River estuary

Characteristics	River	Mouth	Convergence length a/b (km)			
Cross-sectional area \bar{A} (m ²)	12,135	51,776	151			
Width \overline{B} (m)	2005	6735	44			



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Figure 5. Comparison of monthly averaged values for (a, b) analytically computed tidal amplitude η and (c, d) residual water level \overline{Z} against the observations in the Yangtze River estuary for the pre-TGD period (1979–1984) and post-TGD period (2003–2014).

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4.3 Impacts of TGD operation on spatial-temporal patterns of tide-river dynamics With the significant seasonal discharge variations resulting from the TGD regulation, an understanding of the seasonal impacts on tide-river dynamics along the estuary has

become increasingly important. In Figures 6 and 7, we see how the TGD operation 374 impacts the longitudinal variation of the main tidal dynamics in terms of the four 375 376 dependent parameters δ , λ , μ , and ε for different seasons. The most considerable changes in the major tide-river dynamics occurred in both autumn and winter seasons, which 377 378 correspond to the substantial reduction in freshwater discharge in the wet-to-dry transition period (i.e. autumn) and slightly increased freshwater discharge in the dry 379 season (i.e. winter) due to the TGD operation since 2003 (see Table 2). On the other 380 hand, the impacts of the TGD operation on the tide-river dynamics during the spring 381 382 and summer are relatively minor due to the negligible change in the freshwater discharge. However, we do notice that the TGD had exerted slight influence on tide-383 river dynamics in the downstream reaches (x < 250 km) during the summer, with the 384 385 maximum freshwater discharge occurring within a year. In addition, it appears that there exists a critical position corresponding to the maximum tidal damping (or minimum 386 value of δ) upstream in which the tidal damping becomes weak. This phenomenon 387 388 occurs particularly in the spring, summer, and autumn. The underlying mechanism is elaborated in the discussion section. 389

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Figures 6a, c, e, g show the comparison of the analytically computed tidal damping number δ before and after the closure of the TGD, in which we clearly observe that the longitudinal tidal damping effect was considerably weakened in autumn, while it was slightly enhanced in winter after the TGD closure. This was expected since freshwater discharges tend to dampen the tidal wave primarily through the enhancement of the

friction term (Horrevoets et al., 2004; Cai et al., 2014a, b, 2016). Figures 6b, d, g, i 396 show a similar picture for the wave celerity number λ , which is positively correlated to 397 398 the tidal damping number δ , according to the celerity equation (11) in Appendix B. Figure 7 shows the longitudinal computation of the velocity number μ and the phase 399 lag ε for both periods. The impacts of the TGD operation on the velocity scale and phase 400 lag are similar to the tidal damping, i.e. the larger the freshwater discharge, the smaller 401 the velocity number and the phase lag. In Figures 6 and 7, there exist switches of the 402 analytically computed parameters at both ends of the transitional reach (x=32-52 km) 403 404 owing to the change in friction coefficient adopted in the analytical model.

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Overall, in the seaward reach of the estuary, the effect of freshwater discharge alteration 406 407 by the TGD operation on the major tide-river dynamics (i.e. δ , λ , μ , and ε) was less significant because of the small ratio of freshwater discharge to tidal discharge. On the 408 other hand, in the upstream reach of the estuary, the changes in the four dependent 409 410 parameters are also small due to the substantial tidal attenuation as a result of the longdistance propagation from the estuary mouth. Therefore, the pattern of seasonal 411 variation due to the TGD operation is relatively small at both ends of the estuary, 412 whereas the largest variation usually occurs in the middle reach of the estuary. This 413 finding was supported by the results of harmonic analysis using the numerical results 414 (Zhang et al., 2018). Similar phenomena have also been identified in other large fluvial 415 416 meso-tide estuaries, such as the Mekong River estuary and Amazon River estuary, where dam operation altered the seasonal patterns of tide-river dynamics (Kosuth et al., 417



420 Figure 6. Longitudinal variability of simulated tidal damping number δ (a, c, e, g) and 421 celerity number λ (b, d, g, i) along the Yangtze estuary in different seasons (spring: a, 422 b; summer: c, d; autumn: e, g; winter: g, i) for both the pre-TGD and the post-TGD 423 periods.





Figure 7. Longitudinal variability of simulated velocity number μ (a, c, e, g) and phase lag ε (b, d, g, i) along the Yangtze estuary in different seasons (spring: a, b; summer: c, d; autumn: e, g; winter: g, i) for both the pre-TGD and the post-TGD periods.

429 **5. Discussion**

430 **5.1 The impact of channel geometry alteration on tide-river dynamics**

431 Dam operations, which dramatically modified downstream flow and sediment regimes,

- are becoming an increasingly important factor controlling the morphological evolution.
- 433 Previous studies show that, as a result of the trapping of sediments by the TGD,
- 434 considerable erosion occurred in the first several hundred km downstream of the TGD,
- 435 considerably coarsening the bedload (Yang et al., 2014). In particular, the river bed

immediately downstream was eroded at a rate of 65 Mt/yr in 2001-2002 (Yang et al., 436 2014). It was shown by Lyu et al. (2018) that due to a dramatic reduction in the sediment 437 438 discharge following the construction of the TGD, a significant change in size, geometry, and spatial distribution of pool-riffles occurred downstream; however, this adjustment 439 was limited to the reaches close to the TGD. It should be noted that the bathymetry 440 adopted in the analytical model is restricted to the estuarine area in 2007, which is only 441 4 years after the TGD closure in 2003, and it is before the full operation of the TGD 442 began in 2009. In addition, the TGD is around 1600 km away from the estuary mouth, 443 444 and its influence on the estuarine morphology normally has a lag effect of at least 4-5 years, as discussed by Wang et al. (2008). Hence, the adopted geometry has been only 445 partly altered after the TGD closure. The morphological change of Yangtze Estuary can 446 447 be even more profound in recent years due to the continuous and accumulated impact from the TGD. Further adjustment of morphological change due to the sedimentation 448 in the TGD could exert a considerable impact on the tide-river dynamics in the estuarine 449 450 region (e.g., Du et al., 2018; Shaikh et al., 2018). Further study on the impact of morphological adjustment on the tide-river dynamics is required in the future. 451

452

453 **5.2** The impact of freshwater discharge alteration on tide-river dynamics

The water conservancy of the TGD has multiple purposes, in which the seasonal discharge regulation and their impact on the ecosystem are well documented (e.g. Mei et al., 2015a, b; Chen et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2018). However, the actual influence of discharge regulation on the river-tide dynamics in the estuarine area is not fully

understood. With the analytical reproduction of tide-river dynamics for pre- and post-458 TGD periods, it is possible to quantify the extent of the changes in the major tidal 459 dynamics, including the estuary shape number γ and friction number γ (Figure 8), and 460 the residual water level slope S and water depth h (Figure 9) along the Yangtze River 461 estuary. In general, during the transition from the wet season (summer-autumn) to the 462 dry season (winter-spring), the water level and corresponding fluvial discharge 463 downstream from the TGD is first raised by the impounding water and then reduced by 464 the release of water, which would substantially change the tide-river dynamics in the 465 downstream estuarine area, with the maximum variation occurring in autumn and the 466 minimum variation occurring in spring. 467

468



470 Figure 8. Longitudinal variability of simulated estuary shape number γ (a, c, e, g) and 471 friction number χ (b, d, g, i) along the Yangtze estuary in different seasons (spring: a, b; 472 summer: c, d; autumn: e, g; winter: g, i) for both the pre-TGD and the post-TGD periods.



473

Figure 9. Longitudinal variability of simulated residual water level slope S (a, c, e, g) and water depth h (b, d, g, i) along the Yangtze estuary in different seasons (spring: a, b; summer: c, d; autumn: e, g; winter: g, i) for both the pre-TGD and the post-TGD periods.

478

Figures 8 and 9 show that during the wet season (summer-autumn), the estuary shape number γ and friction number χ experience a general increase, while a decrease in the residual water level slope *S* and water depth \bar{h} can be identified in the post-TGD

period due to the reduction in freshwater discharge. However, the changes in these 482 major dynamics vary significantly along the channel. Near the estuary mouth, where 483 tidal influence overwhelms the influence from freshwater discharge, the difference is 484 relatively small, as the magnitude of the freshwater discharge is small when compared 485 with that of the tidal discharge. Meanwhile at the upstream reach of the estuary, where 486 the riverine influence dominates that of the tide, the difference is also small due to the 487 attenuation of the tidal wave propagation over a long distance. Consequently, the most 488 significant changes in major tide-river dynamics occurred in the middle reach of the 489 490 Yangtze River estuary due to the discharge regulation of the TGD during the wet season. By contrast, during the dry season (winter-spring), especially in winter, the opposite 491 trend was observed, indicating a slight increase in γ and χ , and a slight decrease in S 492 493 and \bar{h} due to the additional release of discharge from the TGD. In addition, we also observed that the changes in tide-river dynamics caused by the TGD operation were 494 much stronger upstream than in the lower stream. 495

496

497 **5.3 Implications for water resource management**

498 The construction of the TGD is the largest hydro-development project ever performed 499 in the world, having multiple influences on downstream water resource management, 500 including navigation, flood control, tidal limit variation, and salt intrusion.

501

502 5.3.1 Implications for navigation

503 The navigation condition is mainly controlled by both high water and low water levels.

Figure 10 shows the estimation of the cumulative distribution function (cdf) for both 504 the high-water level (Figure 10a) and the low-water level (Figure 10b) at the six 505 gauging stations along the Yangtze River estuary for both the pre- and post-TGD 506 periods. The results indicate that navigation conditions during the non-flood season are 507 508 generally improved, because both percentages of high-water and low-water levels are increased due to the additional freshwater discharge released from the TGD. On the 509 other hand, during the flood season, the reduction in the freshwater discharge by TGD 510 impounding tends to exert a negative impact on navigation. However, the reduced 511 512 freshwater discharges in the late summer and autumn are not of sufficient magnitude to cause any navigation problems. This is due to the fact that the mean water levels during 513 the flood season are relatively high; hence, the regulating flow quantity and regulating 514 capacity are relatively small (e.g. Chen et al., 2016). In general, due to the staggered 515 regulation in freshwater discharge, seasonally, the actual navigation condition is 516 improved due to the significant increase in the percentage of low water levels. 517



518

Figure 10. Cumulative distribution function (cdf) estimated by using the kernel smoothing function (a) for high water level and (b) low water level at six gauging stations along the Yangtze estuary. The solid lines represent the pre-TGD period, while the dashed lines represent the post-TGD period.

524 5.3.2 Implications for flood control

Flood control is one of the most important functions of building dams and reservoirs in large rivers. Before the construction of the TGD, the Yangtze River basin suffered from frequent and disastrous flood threats. For instance, the floods of 1998 in the Yangtze River were reported to have killed 3656 people, destroyed 5.7 million homes, and damaged seven million more. Many studies have examined the flood control capacity of the TGD over the past two decades (Zhao et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014). In particular, the capability of the TGD flood control is influenced by multiple factors (e.g. Huang et

al., 2018), particularly in the estuarine area, which is strongly influenced by tides from 532 the ocean. During the flood season, the reduced freshwater discharge by TGD 533 534 impounding benefits the flood control by reducing the peak flood discharge. However, as the tidal influence is enhanced, both the percentages of high water and low water 535 levels for the post-TGD period are considerably increased, as shown in Figure 10, 536 indicating a decreased flood control capability. For instance, at the WH gauging station 537 538 located in the upstream part of the Yangtze River estuary, the 8-m high-water level increased by approximately 10% after the TGD closure during the wet season. The 539 540 corresponding flood prevention standard, therefore, is reduced due to the increased high-water level (see also Nakayama and Shankman, 2013). 541

542

543 **5.3.3 Implications for tidal limit**

It is important to detect the position of the tidal limit (corresponding with the position 544 where the tidal amplitude to depth ratio is less than a certain threshold, e.g. $\frac{\eta}{h} < 0.02$), 545 which is the farthest point upstream where a river is affected by tidal fluctuations, since 546 it is essential for surveying, navigation, and fisheries management, in general (e.g. Shi 547 548 et al., 2018). Subsequently, we are able to define the tide-influenced length as the distance upstream from the estuary mouth to the tidal limit. Generally, the tidal limit 549 fluctuates with the changes in the seasonal freshwater discharges. Field measurements 550 551 have demonstrated that tidal limit can reach as far as the NJ station and further upstream during the dry season, while during the wet season, it is pushed down to the ZJ station 552 and may be pushed further downward to the JY station under spate conditions. Figure 553 11 shows the analytically computed tidal limit position for both the pre- and post-TGD 554

555 periods. It can be observed that the tidal limit moved downstream by about 45 km and 39 km in January and February under the impact of the additional release of discharge 556 from TGD during the dry season. During the transition from dry to wet seasons 557 (January-May), the total freshwater discharge from TGD increases, and we identify 558 further downstream movement of the tidal limit, although to a smaller extent. The 559 reverse of the post-TGD tidal limit in April is due to the decrease in the freshwater 560 discharge compared with the pre-TGD tidal limit (see Table 2). The TGD storage period 561 begins in June, and the tidal limit moved upstream by a large amount compared with 562 the pre-TGD period. The largest change occurred during October when the tidal limit 563 moved from 175 km pre-TGD to 250 km post-TGD due to the substantial increase in 564 freshwater discharge (see Table 2). 565



Figure 11. Temporal variation of the position of the tidal limit relative to the TSG station for both the pre-TGD and the post-TGD periods. The vertical error bar at each data point indicates the standard deviation of the analytically computed time series.

571

572 **5.3.4 Implications for salt intrusion**

573 The operation of the TGD changed the location of tidal limit, which, in turn, directly influences the intensity of saltwater intrusion, especially during the dry season, when 574 the freshwater discharge is low and saltwater intrusion is important (e.g. Cai et al., 575 576 2015). The analysis of tide-river dynamics shows that the tidal dynamics are considerably enhanced during the autumn due to the substantial decline in freshwater 577 discharged into the estuary, which may lead to enhanced saltwater intrusion. However, 578 579 with supplemented discharge after the TGD during the winter, saltwater intrusion tends to be significantly suppressed, and the isohalines are pushed seaward by additional river 580 discharges (e.g. An et al., 2009; Qiu and Zhu, 2013). In contrast, during the wet season, 581 582 the TGD operation slightly extended the timing of saltwater intrusion and increased its intensity by impounding freshwater. Since the total river discharge rate during the wet 583 season is the largest during the year, the influence of saltwater on freshwater reservoirs 584 along the coastal area is limited. Therefore, the operation of TGD is overall favourable 585 for reducing the burden of freshwater supplement in the tidally influenced estuarine 586 areas. However, to quantify the potential impacts of TGD's operation on salt intrusion 587 and related aquatic ecosystem health in general, it is required to couple the 588 hydrodynamic model to the ecological or salt intrusion model (e.g., Qiu and Zhu, 2013; 589

590 Cai et al., 2015).

591

592 6. Conclusions

An analytical approach was used to examine the potential impacts of TGD operation 593 on the spatial-temporal patterns of tide-river dynamics along the Yangtze River estuary. 594 It was shown that the freshwater regulation caused by the TGD, on a seasonal scale, 595 exerts significant impacts on the tide-river dynamics, with the maximum influence 596 occurring in autumn and winter. This generally corresponds to a dramatic decrease in 597 598 freshwater discharge during the wet-to-dry transition period and a slight increase in discharge during the dry season. The analytical results indicate that the discharge 599 regulation by the TGD drives the alterations in the tide-river dynamics instead of the 600 601 geometric change. In particular, the change in the freshwater discharge changes the estuary shape number (representing the geometric effect), the residual water level slope 602 (representing the effective frictional effect) and, hence, the tide-river dynamics. This 603 604 study, using the Yangtze River estuary as an example, provides an effective yet simple method to quantify the seasonal regulation in freshwater discharge by large reservoirs 605 or dams on hydrodynamics in estuaries. The results obtained from this study will, 606 hopefully, shed new light on aspects of water resource management, such as navigation, 607 608 flood control, and salt intrusion.

609

610 **Data availability.** Data and results are available from the authors upon request.

611 Author contributions. All authors contributed to the design and development of the

work. The experiments were originally carried out by Huayang Cai. Xianyi Zhang and
Leicheng Guo carried out the data analysis. Min Zhang built the model and wrote the
paper. Feng Liu and Qingshu Yang reviewed the paper.

615 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

616 Acknowledgments. We acknowledge the financial support from the National Key

617 R&D of China (Grant No. 2016YFC0402600), from the Open Research Fund of State

618 Key Laboratory of Estuarine and Coastal Research (Grant No. SKLEC-KF201809),

from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 51709287 and

- 620 41701001), and from the Guangdong Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China
- 621 (Grant No. 2017A030310321).
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- 772

Appendix A. Simplified momentum balance for the residual water level slope 773

Assuming a periodic variation of flow velocity, the integration of Equation (1) over a 774 tidal cycle leads to an expression for the residual water level slope (e.g. Cai et al., 2014a, 775 2016): 776

777
$$\frac{\partial \overline{Z}}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{K^2} \left(\frac{U|U|}{h^{4/3}} \right) - \frac{1}{2g} \frac{\partial \overline{U^2}}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2\rho_0} \overline{h} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x}$$
(8)

where the overbars and the subscript 0 indicate the tidal average and value at the 778 seaward boundary, respectively. The residual water level slope is induced by three 779 780 contributions: residual frictional, advective acceleration, and density effects, which correspond to the three terms on the right-hand side of Equation (8). Note that the 781 contribution from advective acceleration to the residual water level slope: 782

783
$$\frac{\partial \overline{Z}_{adv}}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{2g} \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial x},$$
 (9)

can be easily integrated to: 784

785
$$\overline{Z}_{adv} = -\frac{1}{2g} \left(\overline{U^2} - \overline{U_0^2} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \overline{Fr_0} \left(\frac{U^2}{\overline{U_0^2}} - 1 \right) \overline{h_0}$$
(10)

where the Froude number is introduced, $\overline{Fr^2} = \overline{U^2}/(g\overline{h})$, which is computed with the 786 42

averaged variables. In this case, the correction is local (not cumulative) and 787 proportional to the flow depth through a coefficient that is negligible as long as the 788 789 velocity does not change significantly, and Fr is small, as is common in most tidal flows. It was shown by Savenije (2005, 2012) that the density term in equation (1) always 790 exercises a pressure in the landward direction, which is counteracted by a residual water 791 level slope, amounting to 1.25% of the estuary depth over the salt intrusion length. The 792 value for the residual water level slope, induced by the density effect, is usually small 793 compared with the gradient of the free surface elevation; thus, in this paper, we neglect 794 795 the influence of the density difference on the dynamics of the residual water level.

796

797 Appendix B. Governing equations for tide-river dynamics in estuaries

The analytical solutions for the dependent parameters μ , δ , λ , and ε are obtained by solving the following four dimensionless equations (see details in Cai et al., 2014a): the tidal damping/amplification equation, describing the tidal amplification or damping as a result of the balance between channel convergence (gq) and bottom friction

802 (*cm*/G):

803
$$\delta = \frac{\mu^2 \left(\gamma \theta - \chi \mu \lambda \Gamma \right)}{1 + \mu^2 \beta}, \tag{11}$$

804 the scaling equation, describing how the ratio of velocity amplitude to tidal amplitude 805 depends on phase lag and wave celerity:

806 $\mu = \frac{\sin(\varepsilon)}{\lambda} = \frac{\cos(\varepsilon)}{\gamma - \delta},$ (12)

the celerity equation, describing how the wave celerity depends on the balance between
convergence and tidal damping/amplification:

 $\lambda^2 = 1 - \delta(\gamma - \delta), \tag{13}$

and the phase lag equation, describing how the phase lag between HW and HWS
depends on wave celerity, convergence, and damping:

811 depends on wave celerity, convergence, and damping:

812
$$\tan\left(\varepsilon\right) = \frac{\lambda}{\gamma - \delta},\tag{14}$$

813 where q, b, and G account for the effect of river discharge and where:

814
$$\beta = \theta - r_s \zeta \varphi / (\mu \lambda), \quad \theta = 1 - \left(\sqrt{1 + \zeta} - 1\right) \varphi / (\mu \lambda), \quad \Gamma = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[p_1 - 2p_2 \varphi + p_3 \varphi^2 \left(3 + \mu^2 \lambda^2 / \varphi^2\right) \right].$$
815 (15)

816 Note that Γ is a friction factor obtained by using Chebyshev polynomials (Dronkers,

1964) to represent the non-linear friction term in the momentum equation:

818
$$F = \frac{U | U |}{K^2 \bar{h}^{4/3}} \approx \frac{1}{K^2 \bar{h}^{4/3} \pi} \left(p_0 \upsilon^2 + p_1 \upsilon U + p_2 U^2 + p_3 U^3 / \upsilon \right)$$
(16)

in which U is the cross-sectional averaged velocity consisting of a steady component U_r , generated by the fresh water discharge, and a time-dependent component U_t , introduced by the tide:

$$W = U_t - U_r = v \sin(\omega t) - Q / \overline{A}$$
(17)

where *Q* is the fresh water discharge (treated as a constant during the tidal wave propagation), and p_i (*i*= 0, 1, 2, 3) are the Chebyschev coefficients (see Dronkers, 1964, p. 301), which are functions of the dimensionless river discharge φ through $\alpha = \arccos(\varphi$):

827
$$p_0 = -\frac{7}{120}\sin(2\alpha) + \frac{1}{24}\sin(6\alpha) - \frac{1}{60}\sin(8\alpha), \qquad (18)$$

828
$$p_1 = \frac{7}{6}\sin(\alpha) - \frac{7}{30}\sin(3\alpha) - \frac{7}{30}\sin(5\alpha) + \frac{1}{10}\sin(7\alpha),$$
(19)

829
$$p_2 = \pi - 2\alpha + \frac{1}{3}\sin(2\alpha) + \frac{19}{30}\sin(4\alpha) - \frac{1}{5}\sin(6\alpha), \qquad (20)$$

830
$$p_3 = \frac{4}{3}\sin(\alpha) - \frac{2}{3}\sin(3\alpha) + \frac{2}{15}\sin(5\alpha).$$
(21)

831 The coefficients p_1 , p_2 , and p_3 determine the magnitudes of the linear, quadratic, and

832 cubic frictional interaction, respectively.