
and x is the downstream direction), which reduces the river's ability to transport the coarser fraction of the sediment load, resulting in deposition. Selective deposition can occur through loss of competency (i.e., the river's inability to mobilize certain particles because they are too large) [Meyer, 1992a] or loss of capacity (i.e., the river's inability to transport the supplied sediment load) [Meyer, 1991; Meyer, 1994]. Modeling the loss of capacity while coupling bed load, suspended load, and wash load is not straightforward [Meyer, 2014], and wash load in particular depends on the sediment supply, which is difficult to constrain. Although it is likely an oversimplification, here we model downstream fining by loss of competency because fining can be predicted as a simple function of bed shear stress and transport thresholds. Following Meyer [1992a], we assume that downstream fining occurs due to deposition of the coarsest fraction of the sediment load where bed shear stresses fall below the threshold of motion for that size class.

The threshold for sediment motion is typically formulated as a critical Shields number (τ^*) that is a function of particle Reynolds number (Re_p) [Shields, 1936],

$$\tau^* = \frac{\tau}{\rho g d} \quad (1)$$

$$Re_p = \frac{u_* d}{\nu} \quad (2)$$

in which $u_* = \sqrt{\tau / \rho}$ is bed shear velocity, ρ is fluid density,

[1990], and $d_{90}/d_{50} = 3$, which is typical of gravel-bedded rivers and consistent with our data compilation in section 3.

Finally, given that most riverbed grain-size distributions can be fit with a lognormal distribution, we calculate d_{50} as the geometric mean of the two predicted bounds on the bed-material grain-size distribution (i.e., d_{90} and d_{10}). We make no assumption about the transport stage of d_{50} at bankfull, except that implicitly it must be above the threshold of motion (since that is set for d_{90}) and below the threshold of wash load (which is set for d_{10}). Importantly, we set all parameters such as α and γ to be constants for all sediment sizes such that we make no explicit distinctions in bed forms, form drag, or sorting between sand and gravel, or any other size classes that could influence the emergence of a grain size gap. Model sensitivity to these parameters is discussed in section 5.

3. Data Compilation

We use the compiled bed grain-size distributions and bankfull measurements of formative bed shear velocity as τ_{bf} for a worldwide compilation of rivers [Murray et al., 2014] (Figure 1b). We also compare the model against several rivers in Western Canada that cross the grain size gap (Figure 1a). In the Fraser River, B.C., we use observations of bed shear stress reported in Murray et al. [2014] for bankfull flow in the gravel and sand bed reaches, which have been shown to entrain the gravel bed surface and move sand as wash load in the gravel reach [Murray et al., 1999]. For the Alberta rivers, we require a continuous downstream profile of total boundary shear stress to estimate the shear velocity at the bed-material sampling sites (Figure 1a). Murray et al. [1972] reported shear stress for 2 year and 5 year return interval flood flows ($T = 36$) at discharge gauging stations in each river system shown in Figure 1a, and less frequently for the 10 year and bankfull flood flows. In these formerly glaciated drainage basins, reported bankfull flows have return periods of 2.5 (1 site), ~10 (5 sites), ~25 (2 sites) and ~100 (7 sites) years. We elected to use exponential fits to 5 year return interval shear stress and downstream distance to provide continuous downstream profiles of shear stress, which could be matched to bed-material samples.

4. Results

β as large as 8. A smaller hiding coefficient, γ

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