

Dominant updriftward sediment transport on the updrift-side of a modern deflected delta, Ishikari coast, Hokkaido, Japan

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1 (ARTICLE) 2 3 Dominant updriftward sediment transport on the updrift-side of a 4 modern deflected delta, Ishikari coast, Hokkaido, Japan 5 6 Gentaro Kawakami^{a, *}, Kenji Nishina^a and Emmanuel Poizot^b 7 8 ^aGeological Survey of Hokkaido, Kita 19 Nishi 12, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-0819, Japan 9 10 ^bCnam/Intechmer-LUSAC, Digue de Collignon, 50110 Tourlaville, Cherbourg-en-11 Cotentin, France 12 13 *Corresponding Author 14 15 *E-mail address:* <u>kawakami-gentaro@hro.or.jp</u> (G. Kawakami) 16 17

18 19 **ABSTRACT**

The Ishikari coast of Hokkaido, Japan is a wave-dominated semi-enclosed coast, the 20 21 sediments of which are primarily sourced from a single river (the Ishikari River), forming a northeast deflected delta. Asymmetric and deflected deltas are generally 22 considered to be formed under net longshore sediment transport downdriftward; 23 however, through sedimentological and grain-size trend analysis (GSTA) of seafloor 24 sediments, along with some other observational data, we recognized dominant 25 updriftward sediment transport on the updrift-side of the deflected delta system. GSTA 26 27 showed that the most important trend in the coast is coarser, better-sorted, and more positively skewed (CB+). CB+ trends around the river mouth converge from the lower 28 29 shoreface zone to the river mouth spit on the updrift side. The trends reflect the combined effects of shore-normal wave action and river sediment discharge. Wave-30 driven surface currents crossing over the delta lobe converge at the southwestern side of 31 the river mouth. In the deeper zone (lower shoreface), southwest (updriftward) oriented 32 CB+ trends prevail. These trends reflect successive re-deposition of delta front sands, 33 with progressive mud winnowing, driven by the strong south-westerly bottom currents 34 observed in the bay during winter storms. Although GSTA did not show any apparent 35 trend field in the nearshore zone, gradual fining of sand fractions to the southwest, 36 along with the chronological transition of the coastline after the construction of a large 37 port, suggest a dominant longshore sediment transport updriftward on the updrift-side of 38 the delta. Because the growth of deflected deltas depends on dominant sediment 39 accretion on the updrift-side, these results can be rationalised in the case of internally 40 41 sourced deflected deltas. Uncertainties remain regarding the net alongshore sediment transport of the entire Ishikari coast; however, the deflected planform is controlled by 42 deflected mouth bars and river mouth jets due to the waves approaching the river mouth 43 at slightly oblique angle in winter, and is likely independent on the direction of 44 dominant sediment transport. 45

- 46 Keywords deflected delta, grain-size trend analysis, Ishikari Coast, sediment pathway,
 47 wave-influenced delta

48 1. Introduction

49 Coastal regions are often the site of large cities and concentrated human activities, 50 especially delta plains have been highly developed for land use. However, recent global 51 environmental changes due to human impact are significantly affecting delta 52 morphology (Anthony, 2015; Nienhuis et al., 2020). Therefore, it is important to gain a 53 detailed understanding of sedimentary processes of delta systems to support predictive 54 environmental planning, sustainable development, and hazard mitigation (e.g., Kairytė 55 and Stevens, 2015; Nienhuis et al., 2020).

Recent advances in our understanding of wave-influenced delta systems have helped 56 improve their classification based on their planforms and facies architectures: 57 symmetric, asymmetric, or deflected (Bhattacharya and Giosan, 2003; Bhattacharya, 58 2006; 2010). Asymmetric and deflected deltas are thought to grow via sustained 59 downdriftward longshore currents generated by an oblique wave approach to the 60 coastline (Dominguez, 1996; Reading and Collinson, 1996; Bhattacharya and Giosan, 61 2003; Bhattacharya, 2006; 2010). In case of these deltas, predominant sediment 62 accretions on the updrift side are needed, and it is generally explained by a trapping of 63 externally sourced sediments in the updrift side by the groin effect of river mouth 64 (Reading and Collinson, 1996; Rodriguez et al., 2000; Bhattacharya and Giosan, 2003). 65 However, the asymmetric and deflected delta models are still conceptual, and the 66 hydrodynamic processes and resulting sediment distributions of real systems exhibit 67 much more complex variations (see Anthony, 2015 and references therein). For 68 example, the modern asymmetric Mitchell River Delta, Gulf of Carpentaria, Australia, 69 has a northward-deflected planform, whereas the mouth bar sediments show southward-70 dipping cross-stratification opposite the expected direction (Ainsworth et al., 2016). 71 Difficulties in determining the sources, pathways, and final emplacement of sediments 72 in deflected deltas have hindered our understanding of the detailed growth mechanisms 73 of such systems (Anthony, 2015; Korus et al., 2015). In addition, it should be noted that 74

the definition of the updrift and downdrift sides of deflected deltas often depends only
on geomorphic features, not the actual direction of net sediment transport. In this study,
the adjective terms "updrift" and "downdrift" are also used in this way (i.e., geomorphic
direction).

The coast along the eastern margin of the Japan Sea is characterised by a low tidal 79 range and high wave energy and hosts several strand plains and delta systems. Among 80 these, the Ishikari coast of Hokkaido, northern Japan, consists of a highly deflected 81 delta at the mouth of the Ishikari River (Fig. 1). The delta has been developing under the 82 late Holocene high-stand condition after the Mid-Holocene sea-level maximum 83 (Ohshima et al., 1978; Matsushita, 1979). The coast is situated within a bay bordered by 84 rocky projecting land masses, and most of the sediment inputs originate solely from the 85 Ishikari River (e.g., Ohshima and Yokota, 1978). This single source condition enables to 86 interpret sediment pathways more certainly as no other inputs can scramble the 87 dominated transport signal. 88

The Ishikari Bay bottom sediments are mainly under the action of wind-driven currents 89 during winter storms; hence, its analysis should highlight the seasonal storm impact on 90 the granulometric sorting. In the present work, we conducted a grain size trend analysis 91 (GSTA) following the method of Poizot and Méar (2010), which has been shown to 92 successfully visualise sediment pathways (Maillet et al., 2011; Kairytė and Stevens, 93 2015). Though STA® (McLaren, 1981) and GSTA approaches have had successive 94 modifications on some of their aspects, only a small number of studies have scrutinised 95 the validity of McLaren's initial theory and trend cases definitions. Gao et al. (1994), 96 Asselman (1999), Carriquiry and Sanchez (1999), Carriquiry et al. (2001), Rios et al. 97 (2002), Poizot et al. (2013) found different trend cases than the initial McLaren's ones 98 under particular conditions. Poizot and Méar (2010) provided a software tool to perform 99 a GSTA approach in which no prior choice of trend case was made, thus enabling an 100 exploratory approach in choosing a single or combined trend case. 101

The backgrounds of studied area are introduced in Section 2. The Section 3 gives details of the laboratory analysis, numerical treatments of the data set, and GSTA. Finally, results (Section 4) and discussions (Section 5) explain our understanding of the sediment transport processes in the Ishikari bay, before the conclusion in Section 6.

106

107 2. Regional Setting

The Ishikari delta, Hokkaido, northern Japan, is located in the inner area of Ishikari 108 Bay (Fig. 1). The 30 km-long sandy coastline, oriented northeast-southwest, curves 109 gently landward, and slightly protuberates seaward at the mouth of the Ishikari River as 110 a northeast deflected planform. Rocky projecting land masses border the coast on both 111 the southwestern and northeastern sides. The coast faces the microtidal and wave-112 dominated shore of Japan Sea (Ohshima and Yokota 1978). The tidal range is less than 113 0.6 m (Hydrographic and Oceanographic Department, Japan Coast Guard, 2004), the 114 mean significant wave height is 0.92 m (based on 2013 data), and the maximum 115 significant wave height is 7.32 m (based on 2004–2007 data) (Kawaguchi et al., 2015). 116 Strong westerly-northwesterly winds prevail, especially in winter (i.e., winter 117 monsoon), which approach orthogonally to the coast (Fig. 1). Figure 2 shows the 118 maximum and significant wave heights and the wave orientations observed in the bay 119 during the survey years. High waves were dominant in winter corresponding to the 120 strong wind, and their up-current orientations concentrated to northwest perpendicular 121 to the coastline (Fig. 2). 122

Highly deflected wave-influenced deltas should be considered as strand plains especially when the major sediment input is externally (Bhattacharya and Giosan, 2003; Bhattacharya, 2006). However, large volumes of the sediments along the Ishikari coast are sourced internally (i.e., from the Ishikari River), and the coastline slightly protrudes toward the river mouth. The low planform aspect ratio of deltas is probably controlled by wave-angle climates (Ashton and Giosan, 2011) and a fluvial dominance ratio (Nienhuis et al., 2015), which is defined as river sediment input with respect to the potential maximum alongshore sediment transport away from the river mouth. According to these theoretical studies, the Ishikari coast has dominant high-angle waves and low fluvial dominance ratio. We therefore treat the Ishikari coast as a deflected delta, which is an end member of wave-influenced delta geomorphology (e.g., Nienhuis et al., 2020).

The shore-normal wind-driven surface currents generate not only longshore currents, 135 but also shore-parallel southwest oriented bottom currents in the Ishikari Bay because of 136 Coriolis and Ekman effects. In addition, winds are stronger along the northeastern 137 region of the coast than the southwestern region, and the resultant pressure gradient 138 forces within the coastal water mass generate southwest oriented currents in the bay 139 (Mizutani and Nakajima, 1997; Yamashita et al., 1999). The bottom currents were 140 recorded in the zone of 15-30 m water depth by acoustic Doppler current profiler 141 (Yamashita et al., 1998; 1999) (Fig. 3). Southwest directed strong bottom currents 142 exceeding 0.4 m/s were widely observed in winter, while weak bottom currents directed 143 northeast were dominant in summer. 144

The seafloor topography of the Ishikari coast is simple (Figs. 1 and 5). The 145 bathymetric contours are parallel to the shoreline. The upper zone of the shoreface (≈ 4 146 m) dips at 1°, with slightly steeper gradients in local. The seafloor at water depths of 4– 147 16 m dips at 0.3–0.4°, and the deeper areas have gradients lower than 0.1°. Longshore 148 bars and troughs are formed at water depths of 2-6 m. A lobate mound is recognised at 149 the front of the Ishikari River mouth, which is considered a modern subaqueous delta 150 lobe (Ohshima et al., 1978). The plan-view morphology of the lobe slightly extends 151 northward (Fig. 1). The modern sediments cover seafloor at water depths shallower than 152 40 m, whereas relict sediments are distributed at a depth deeper than 40 m (Ohshima 153 and Yokota, 1978). According to Ohshima and Yokota (1978), the relict sediments 154 consist of medium to coarse-grained clean sand (medians are 1-2 phi, and mud contents 155

156 are less than 5 wt%), that are significantly coarser than the modern lower shoreface 157 sands (medians are > 3 phi).

The Ishikari River has a length of 268 km (364 km before artificial linearisation of the 158 river course) and a drainage area of about 14×10^3 km². The average water discharge 159 based on the past 50 years is 15 km³/year and the estimated sediment discharge is 2×10^{6} 160 t/year (Yamazaki and Yamashita, 2004). The Ishikari River is the only major river 161 entering Ishikari Bay. A large proportion of the coastal sediments is supplied from this 162 river (Ohshima and Yokota 1978; Suga and Hamada 2001), and about 80 % of the 163 annually discharged sediments are supplied in snowmelt season (Shimizu et al., 1998). 164 Suspended muddy sediments extend up to 50 km northward along the eastern margin of 165 the bay during the spring (Geological Survey of Hokkaido, 2003). Under fair weather 166 conditions in summer, a surface of the delta lobe is covered by muddy sediments at the 167 water depth deeper than 10 m (Suga and Hamada, 2001) (Fig. 1). 168

At the lower reaches, the Ishikari River has a single meandering channel that deflects 169 NE-ward parallel to the shoreline (Fig. 1). The channel is separated from the open ocean 170 by a river mouth spit with 10-m-high aeolian sand dunes (the Ishikari Sand Dune). The 171 location of the Ishikari River mouth had been migrating NE-ward with growth of the 172 spit and erosion of the downdrift (northeast) margin of the river mouth (Yamazaki and 173 Yamashita, 2004) (Fig. 4A). The growth rate of the spit during 1913–1976 was 17.8 174 m/year, as estimated by topographic maps and aerial photos (Arai, 1981). However, the 175 growth of the spit has been disrupted, and the river mouth stabilised since 1976 due to 176 revetment work at the downdrift margin of the river mouth (Yamazaki and Yamashita, 177 2004). Although the growth direction of the spit suggests net longshore sediment 178 transport NE-ward, several studies have suggested that foreshore sands are transported 179 both SW-ward (updriftward) and NE-ward (downdriftward) or predominantly SW-180 ward. This is because drifted sands are predominantly trapped at the eastern side of the 181 artificial groin system (Ishikari Bay New Port: IBNP) (Fig. 4B, C) (Arai, 1981; 182

183 Yamashita et al., 2000; Suga and Hamada, 2001). The chronological change in the184 coastline is further discussed in Section 4.3.

185

186 3. Materials and Methods

187 3.1. Sampling and grain-size measurement

Along the Ishikari coast, a total 249 samples of seafloor sediments were collected 188 mainly along 28 transects, oriented perpendicular to the coastline, spaced mainly 500 m 189 or 1000 m apart (Fig. 5). Sampling surveys were performed in summer, June 1996, 190 September 1997, September 2004, August 2014, and August 2016. Most of the samples 191 on the updrift side of the Ishikari coast were collected in 1996–1997 by K. Suga and S. 192 Hamada (Suga and Hamada, 2001). The samples were collected in 2004 by K. Nishina 193 to complement the data obtained around the river mouth. We performed new sampling 194 surveys in 2014 and 2016 to collect offshore sediments from the downdrift area, from 195 the foreshore to the uppermost shoreface sands throughout the entire coast. 196 Oceanographic conditions (maximum and significant wave heights and wave 197 orientations) in the Ishikari coast during the sampling survey years 2014 and 2016 were 198 shown in Figure 2. There was an extremely limited number of significant storm events 199 before these surveys in the summer season. Even if samples were collected at different 200 dates, they are all representative of a summer period. This mix of dates has the 201 advantage to "filter" any short-term event which could have impact sediment 202 characteristics. Only long-term sediment behaviour (over 10 years) will be highlighted, 203 which is the aim of the present work. 204

Surface sediment samples (up to 2 cm depth) of the seafloor at water depths of 2–23 m were collected using a Smith McIntyre grab sampler (1/20 m², Rigo Co., Ltd, Japan). Along the coastline, sand samples in the foreshore and shallow water depth zone (\approx 1 m) were collected at 100–500 m interval. The former was collected directly using a scoop at up to 2 cm depth, while the latter was collected using PVC pipes up to 5-10 cm depth. The seafloor sands around the mouth of the Ishikari River were collected at closer

intervals. The collected samples were prepared by chemical dissolution of organic 211 matter and CaCO₃ using a 6% hydrogen peroxide solution and 20 vol.% acetic acid. 212 Grain-size analysis was performed with a laser microgranulometer (Coulter counter 213 LS230, Coulter Co., USA, 117 classes in size range 0.4 µm to 2 mm). Granules 214 exceeding the measurement range were removed via sieving through -0.5 phi (1.41 mm) 215 mesh before analysis. Few samples contained granules of ≈ 5 % weight. Statistical 216 parameters, mean, sorting (standard deviation (σ)), and skewness, were calculated by 217 the logarithmic method of moments using the GRADISTAT programme (Blott and Pye, 218 2001). 219

220 3.2. Grain-size trend analysis

The STA© (McLaren, 1981) was first introduced to interpret sediment transport 221 directions along survey lines (i.e., one-dimensional approach). It is based on the 222 comparison of three statistical parameters (mean, sorting and skewness) of grain-size 223 distributions of sediment samples and their relative changes. As summarized in Kairytė 224 and Stevens (2015), the main factors influencing grain-size composition of sediments 225 are the: (i) winnowing; (ii) selective deposition of a portion of the grain-size distribution 226 in transport; and (iii) total deposition. McLaren's model assumes that: (i) sediment in 227 transport must be finer, better sorted and more negatively skewed than its source 228 229 sediment (case: FB-); (ii) a lag must become coarser, better sorted and more positively skewed (case: CB+); and (iii) successive deposits may become finer or coarser, but the 230 sorting must become better and skewness more negative or more positive with finer or 231 coarser deposits, respectively (McLaren and Bowles, 1985; Kairytė and Stevens, 2015). 232 Namely, the method assumes that the trends of FB- and CB+ have a higher frequency of 233 occurrence in the direction of transport between two points. 234

Gao and Collins (1991) modified McLaren's method and provided a procedure for two-dimensional data treatment, in which each sample is compared with its nearest neighbours in any direction. Through this refinement, a two dimensional grain-size trend analysis (GSTA) is used as a qualifying method which defines trend vectors (directions and patterns) based on the analysis of particular spatial relationships (trends) between the mean size, sorting and skewness of sediment samples (Poizot and Méar, 2010). Poizot et al. (2008) reviewed the Gao and Collins' approach and proposed a workflow to enhance the definition of trend pathways through the GSTA approach. One of the main proposals was the introduction of geostatistical tools to perform some pre-treatments allowing for a better choice of GSTA parameters. Most of the proposals were integrated in a GIS based software GiSedTrend (Poizot and Méar, 2010).

Before the analysis by GiSedTrend, the variographic analysis of the data set allows the 246 characteristic distance (D_g) to be defined using GSTA computation and, the spatial 247 variation model of the statistical parameters (mean, sorting and skewness) to be defined. 248 The spatial models are then used to produce interpolation maps (Fig. 6) from which a 249 regular grid is extracted for each parameter. In the present study, a 200 m grid spacing 250 was defined. These grids were then at the inlet of the GSTA approach. The variographic 251 analysis and interpolation operations were performed under R Statistical language (R 252 Core Team, 2020) using the geostatistical package R Geostats (Renard et al., 2020). The 253 CircStats R package (Lund and Agostinelli, 2018) provided the circular statistics used to 254 compare trend case directions. 255

Following the above, three different GSTA analysis were performed using 256 GiSedTrend: a) the classical combined cases CB+ and FB-; b) FB- case alone; and c) 257 CB+ case alone. Results of the two latter trend cases were used to compare their relative 258 impacts to the combined trend case of CB+ and FB-. Some barriers (linear objects) 259 created to represent the coast and seawalls were considered during the GSTA 260 computation. The semi-variogram analysis (Matheron, 1973) of the interpolated dataset 261 showed that the distance where the model first flattened out (i.e., the range) ranged from 262 3200 m to 4000 m. These distances represent the spatial scale at which samples are 263 considered as neighbors (correlated). Therefore, characteristic distance (D_g) was defined 264 at 4000 m in the analysis, which is the highest distance between all the parameters. 265

267 4. Results

268 4.1. General grain-size characteristics

The modern seafloor sands in the Ishikari coast mainly consisted of medium- to very 269 fine-grained sands of poorly- to very poorly sorted and very fine-skewed grain-size 270 characteristics (Fig. 7). The maximum mud content of the samples was 70% (Figs. 5 271 and 7); these sands showed a simple fining trend as water depth increased (Fig. 7), a 272 typical sediments behaviour in wave-dominated coasts (Reading and Collinson, 1996). 273 Muddy sediments exhibited a focused distribution at relatively shallow depths in front 274 of the Ishikari River mouth during spring and summer, which were covering the delta 275 lobe (blue circles in Fig. 5). The samples of mode phi>4 were excluded from the 276 analysis, since sand movements are considered to be expressed under no cohesive 277 conditions, whereas muddier sediments are considered to move under cohesive 278 conditions. 279

Based on the grain-size parameters, four depth zones were defined: foreshore zone, 280 uppermost shoreface zone (water depth: ≈ 2 m), upper shoreface zone (water depth: 2–8 281 m), and lower shoreface zone (water depth: 8-23 m) (Fig. 7). The foreshore sands 282 showed coarser mode grain-sizes of 0.5-2.0 phi (mean phi: 0.5-2.3) and were classified 283 as poorly sorted sands (1.0 $<\sigma<2.0$), although they were better sorted than the shoreface 284 sands (Fig. 7B, C, D). The uppermost shoreface sands were also coarse (mode phi: 0.5– 285 2.0) but showed a wider range of mean grain sizes (0.5-3.3 phi) than foreshore sands 286 and were classified as poorly sorted to very poorly sorted ($0.7 < \sigma < 3.4$). The mode grain 287 size of the upper and lower shoreface sands generally ranged 1.6–3.6 phi (mean phi: 288 0.6-5.6). The upper shoreface sands showed a clear fining trend to deeper waters, but 289 the sand in the lower shoreface had a small range grain size variation (Fig. 7B, C, D). 290

291 Skewness of the foreshore and the uppermost shoreface sands showed greater 292 variabilities, from symmetrical to very fine skewed (-0.4-8.0), whereas the sands of the 293 upper and lower shoreface were very fine skewed (1.0-4.0) (Fig. 7E). In terms of kurtosis, most of the analysed sands were classified as leptokurtic to very leptokurtic (Fig. 7F). On the scatter plot of mean vs. skewness, most of the samples negatively correlated, however, 12 samples from foreshore and uppermost shoreface deviated from this trend (Fig. 8 and supplement table). These sediment samples were excluded from the GSTA analysis.

299 Interpolation maps of these grain-size parameters (mean, sorting and skewness) 300 suggest there are interrelationships among these parameters (Fig. 6).

301 4.2. Spatial variation of grain-size parameters and grain-size trends

The spatial variation of the grain-size parameters suggested several trends, both 302 perpendicular and parallel to the coastline (Figs. 6 and 9). The foreshore-upper 303 shoreface sands had the coarsest grain size neighbour at the Ishikari River mouth. With 304 increasing distance from the river mouth, the grain size of the nearshore sands became 305 finer both along-shore and cross-shore, exhibiting the highest gradients around the river 306 mouth (Figs. 6 and 9). Along the offshore dike of Ishikari Bay New Port (IBNP), the 307 shore-parallel gradient became unclear. In the western side of IBNP, westward fining 308 then coarsening trend appeared with a lesser intensity than the eastern side of IBNP 309 (Figs. 6 and 9). 310

The results of GSTA (Fig. 10) showed that systematic trend fields of CB+ existed 311 within a wide area with the high degree of confidence (i.e., long vectors). The vector 312 fields of the FB- trend case appeared very locally (Fig. 10). The combined CB+ & FB-313 case exhibited the same main direction characteristics as the single CB+ trend case. The 314 directions shown in the wind roses, Figure 10 (right column), demonstrate that there 315 was little difference between the CB+ and CB+ & FB- trend cases. This indicates that 316 the CB+ trend provides the most significant information in the CB+ & FB- combined 317 trend case. Namely, the CB+ is the dominant trend case in the Ishikari coast. The vector 318 field CB+ was widely distributed, except in the nearshore zones (i.e., foreshore and 319 uppermost shoreface zones). The wind rose of the CB+ trend (Fig. 10, top right) shows 320

a globally southward vector direction (159.3° of mean direction). Two directions sustain
a higher number of vectors around the mean direction: SW-ward and SE-ward.

Despite the general trends highlighted in Figure 10 by analysis of the statistical 323 parameters, the CB+ trend vector field showed a more complex behaviour. According to 324 the vector field, three different sectors can be recognised each corresponding to one-325 third of the studied area (Fig. 11). In the eastern sector centred on the river mouth 326 (sector A on Fig. 11), the trajectory of CB+ vectors draw a clockwise rotation in the 327 downdrift area, and an anti-clockwise rotation in the updrift area. These vectors 328 converge to the head of the spit at approximately 2000 m southwest (updrift side) of the 329 river mouth (Fig. 11). A small area in the sector, containing some FB- trend vectors (~30 330 vectors) oriented mainly SW-ward, is highlighted offshore (Fig. 10). The second sector 331 is centred on the IBNP (sector B on Fig. 11). CB+ trend vectors separate in two 332 directions at the tip of the outermost dike. Vectors located northeast of sector B turn 333 southward to concentrate 1 km north of IBNP. The other vectors turn gently from SW-334 ward to southward near the dike. FB- trend vectors are present at two locations in this 335 sector, offshore with an eastward direction, and at the southern part of the sector with a 336 NE-ward direction (Fig. 10). The last sector starts, in the north, approximately 1 km 337 south of IBNP and ends at the southwestern side of the studied area (sector C on Fig. 338 11). In this sector, CB+ vectors show divergent paths start radially from the centre to the 339 E, ESE, S, SW, and W. North of this sector, CB+ trend vectors highlight a SE to East-340 ward direction pointing to IBNP south inlet. In the south part of sector C, general vector 341 direction oriented southward in the offshore zone, which turned SW-ward as they 342 approached the coast. Some westward directed FB- trend vectors are present near the 343 coast at the Shinkawa river mouth (Fig. 10). 344

345 4.3. Interpretation of sediment pathway

The CB+ vector fields appeared globally in the lower shoreface zone. In sector A and the northeastern part of sector B, the onshore directed CB+ trends predominant in the shallower part of the lower shoreface reflect a spatial gradient in the degree of

winnowing of fine fractions controlled by water depth. The trend oriented perpendicular 349 to the bathymetric contour lines corresponds directly with the shoring storm waves 350 and/or the wind-driven surface currents. Bathymetric lines from -20 m to -3 m are 351 parallel to the coast and have a concave shape toward offshore. Because of refraction on 352 the seafloor, storm waves align progressively to the general bottom morphology. In 353 sector A, the onshore directed CB+ vectors converging to the head of the river mouth 354 spit (at the point approximately 2000 m southwest from the mouth) reflects combined 355 effects of the river sediment discharge and storm waves concentrated at the river mouth 356 due to bottom refraction on the delta lobe. 357

In the deeper zone of the lower shoreface, the CB+ trend wind rose graphic (Fig. 10, 358 top right) shows a globally SW-ward vector direction. The trend vectors correspond 359 with the decrease in mud content rather than the composition of sand fractions (Figs. 9 360 and 12). This SW-ward trend is parallel to the bathymetric contour lines and well 361 concordant with the orientation of strong bottom currents observed in the Ishikari Bay 362 (Mizutani and Nakajima, 1997; Yamashita et al., 1998; 1999). Thus, it is considered that 363 the lower shoreface sands have been re-deposited successively with progressive mud 364 winnowing by the bottom currents. Such behaviour is reinforced in sector B with the 365 presence of IBNP. At this location, the offshore dike divides the bottom currents 366 transport trend in two directions, SE-ward and SW-ward (Fig. 11, sector B). The 367 deflection of the bottom currents on the offshore side of the dike deviates sediment 368 transport to a westward direction. The meeting of the deflected currents on the dike with 369 the offshore currents causes a decrease in current particle transport. Very small size CB+ 370 trend vectors at this location show that the trend has less confidence. 371

In sector C, an eastward CB+ trend appeared in the lower to upper shoreface zone at its NE part. The trend is disharmonic with the global trend in the bay, and the origin of the trend is uncertain. The trend reflects a decrease in mud content (Fig. 9). The finer sediments are distributed at the front of the Shinkawa river (canal) mouth, and the trend 376 could have been affected by mud deposition discharged from the river during snowmelt377 season.

Also, the FB- trend is shown in the wind rose (Fig. 10, bottom right). The trend shows that two main opposite directions are present and are globally parallel to the coastline. This behaviour is related to the alternative tide currents in the bay. The statistical confidence for the vectors (the length) is not high, meaning the tide currents have a small data set footprint that is, they do not provide enough energy to clearly impact the sediment characteristics.

Due to the greater variability in skewness, GSTA revealed no apparent trend field in 384 the nearshore zone. This indicates that the grain-size composition of nearshore sands is 385 affected by numerous forces in the nearshore zone. However, the gradual fining of sand 386 fractions along the coastline, and the chronologic transition of the coastlines suggest 387 that longshore current is the dominant force. The symmetric fining trend of the 388 nearshore sands away from the Ishikari River mouth (sector A and northeastern part of 389 sector B), mostly reflect the sand-size fraction composition rather than the mud content 390 (Figs. 9 and 12). Such trends have also been recognised in the previous studies 391 conducted before the construction of IBNP (Taishi, 1977; Arai, 1981). This trend 392 indicates both a longer updriftward and downdriftward transport of finer-grained sand 393 fractions away from the river mouth by longshore currents, whereas coarser-grained 394 fractions remain along the head of spit, as lag deposits. Field experiment carried out in 395 1969 supports this interpretation. In the experiment, fluorescent colouring sands were 396 added to the water at depth of 0 m (beach), 3m, and 5m at the centre of the coast (7 km 397 southwest of the river mouth). These sands were transported south-westward (updrift) 398 during summer, but migrated both southwest- and northeast-ward in winter, resulting in 399 net nearshore sand transport directed south-westward (updrift) (Kougami et al., 1971). 400

401 The transition of the coastline between 1947-1971 (before IBNP construction, i.e.,402 under natural conditions) suggests accreted sand was distributed almost evenly to both

the updrift and downdrift sides, with a slight preference toward the downdrift-side 403 (updrift:downdrift=44:56) (Fig. 4). Yamashita et al. (2000) evaluated the volume of 404 accreted coastal sands on the updrift-side from a depth of -12 m underwater to 4 m 405 above mean sea level during 1947–1976, and estimated that approximately 20×10^4 m³ 406 sands was accreted annually. This volume was two-thirds of the annually discharged 407 sands (approximately 30×10^4 m³/y) from the Ishikari River. After the construction of 408 IBNP, the sand transported updriftward was trapped by the eastern side of IBNP (Fig. 409 4B, 4C). Fukuda et al. (2016) estimated the volume of sands trapped annually was $23 \times$ 410 10⁴ m³/y from 2011–2015, and concluded that most of the sand fractions transported 411 updriftward were accreted there. In contrast, the coastline has regressed at average rate 412 of 0.44 m/y on the western side of IBNP (Fig. 4C). This suggests that sand starvation on 413 the western side of IBNP is due to the interception of sand transport along the shoreline. 414 These results also imply that sediment input from onshore-ward sediment transport by 415 waves is insufficient to sustain or grow the coastline in this area. 416

The remaining sand sourced from the river was deposited around the tip of the spit on the downdrift side of the delta, and in the offshore area. However, the growth of the spit has been restrained in recent decades due to a revetment that was constructed simultaneously with IBNP. On the downdrift side of the delta, the groin protruding from the revetment has disrupted the downdriftward sediment transport from the river mouth, therefore, leading to a significant reduction in sand accretion on the downdrift side.

423

424 **5. Discussion**

In delta system, driving forces of sediment distribution, such as waves, tide, and river inflows, are generally complex. In addition, conditions often drastically change with the season (Davis, 1985; Reading and Collinson, 1996). Although the GSTA approach highlights that the resultant grain-size trend is generated by the most influential trend case or by combined effect of other factors. It underlines the strengths of studying trend

cases separately, as it enables better identification of environmental processes 430 responsible for spatial and quantitative sediment distribution. In this study, the dataset 431 used in the GSTA was composed of sediment samples obtained at different dates over 432 the years but always in the same season (summer). This acts as a time averaging filter, 433 avoiding "noise" which can be induced by non-recurrent or erratic events that may not 434 be recognized as "noise" from a single dataset. This allows for the general mean 435 436 processes acting on sediment sorting to be identified. In the same manner, working at the scale of the Ishikari Bay, general spatial processes are apparent in the dataset. 437 Although it is possible that natural or human activity may change the sediment 438 439 dynamics (e.g. Anthony, 2015; Nienhuis et al., 2020) and resultant grain size parameters of the seafloor sediments over many years, the variograms show that the granulometric 440 parameters of seafloor sediments collected in different years have a good spatial 441 autocorrelation and can be considered for trend analysis. In detail, the geostatistical 442 analysis performed prior to the GSTA provided variograms of the three statistical 443 parameters showing sills. This is an indication of the presence of autocorrelations over 444 the parameters (Journel and Huijbregts, 1976; Wackernagel, 1988), that is, the action of 445 one or multiple processes is highlighted. Consequently, the characteristic distance 446 447 defined during the variographic analysis is linked to the main processes and the GSTA results show their spatial organisation. 448

449 As the CB+ trend is recognised as the dominant trend on the Ishikari coast, it can be concluded that this trend is mainly related to energetic transport processes of winter 450 451 storm waves. In sector A, onshore CB+ vectors converging from the lower shoreface zone to the head of river mouth spit reflects the combined effects of the river sediment 452 discharge and the winnowing of fine fractions controlled by water depth. Although a 453 similar trend was observed in the Rhône Delta, France using the GSTA approach 454 (Maillet et al., 2011), such behaviour was interpreted as a consequence of the swell 455 456 action which keeps most of fine fractions out of river mouth. Meanwhile, swells do not 457 develop in the Japan Sea (Sugimoto and Chikasawa, 2008), and therefore, the 458 winnowing of the nearshore sediments are mainly driven by storm waves in the case of 459 Ishikari coast.

In the offshore zone, the seafloor sediments have been successively re-deposited to the 460 southwest by the bottom currents, with progressive mud winnowing. In other words, the 461 subaqueous delta front deposits coarsen to the updrift side corresponding with the true 462 463 downcurrent direction. The southwest-ward bottom currents in the bay are generated by strong north westerly winds during winter storms. The wind-driven, on-shore directed, 464 surface currents deviate southwest-ward above the seafloor of the lower shoreface by 465 466 Coriolis and Ekman spiral effects (Fig. 3). These processes have been confirmed by a 467 numerical study (Le et al., 2006). The footprint of the winter bottom currents persists until summer, as the transport processes in the summer season, driven by calm waves, 468 cannot sufficiently modify the winter inherited sediment organization. 469

470 Although the net longshore sediment transport direction of the entire system remains uncertain, nearshore sands are transported updriftward on the updrift-side of the delta, 471 especially during summer. It is generally considered that the growth of an asymmetric 472 and deflected delta requires dominant sediment accretion in the updrift side under a 473 474 downdriftward net longshore sediment transport condition. To explain this, external sediment sources are often identified as the contributors to the enhanced updrift area 475 (Reading and Collinson, 1996; Bhattacharya and Giosan, 2003; Bhattacharya, 2006; 476 2010; Anthony, 2015). However, there are no major rivers nor sea-cliffs in the west of 477 Ishikari coast which can provide significant volume of sands. Therefore, it is considered 478 that the updriftward net longshore transport of the internally sourced sediments has been 479 sustaining the growth of the updrift side of the Ishikari delta (Fig. 13). Sediment 480 delivery patterns in the offshore zone are thought to have less influence on the planform 481 of deltas (Bhattacharya and Giosan, 2003; Ayranci and Dashtgard, 2016). Therefore, the 482 predominant updriftward sediment transport in the lower shoreface zone is not 483

484 surprising. However, sands covering the lower shoreface may enhance the progradation485 of the delta-front on the updrift-side.

486 The cause of the northeast advance of the river mouth spit under the updriftward sediment transport condition along the shoreline is still uncertain; however, it can most 487 488 likely be explained by the slightly oblique angle at which the waves approach the river mouth. Such waves typically form swash bars and subaqueous levees on the updrift side 489 490 (Wright, 1977; Giosan, 2007), and can directly deflect river mouth jets (Nardin and Fagherazzi, 2012; Nienhuis et al., 2016). Such processes occur in winter at the Ishikari 491 River mouth, since the river discharge is significantly smaller during winter. Once a 492 493 river course is deflected, the processes are enhanced and long-lasting, until spit 494 breaching occurs due to river currents that favour spit elongation/accretion on the updrift side and erosion on the coast downdriftward from the river mouth. To further 495 understand the correlation between delta growth and sediment dynamics and validate 496 the conclusions of the present study, detailed modelling of the growth of the deflected 497 498 delta under with an internal sediment source will be required.

499

500 **6. Conclusion**

501 Sedimentological analysis and grain-size trend analysis (GSTA) of seafloor sediments 502 along with other observational data, revealed dominant updriftward sediment transport 503 on the updrift-side of a deflected delta system:

504 (1) Coarser, better-sorted, and more positively skewed (CB+) trends are dominant on 505 the Ishikari coast, this is mainly due to energetic sediment transport processes driven by 506 winter storm waves.

507 (2) The updriftward CB+ trends of the lower shoreface sands are caused by strong 508 bottom currents in the coast during winter storms, showing successive re-deposition of 509 seafloor sands with progressive mud winnowing.

510 (3) Gradual fining of foreshore sands, and the chronological transition of the coastline511 after the construction of large a port suggest that longshore sediment transport also

512 directs updriftward on the updrift side of the Ishikari delta.

513 (4) The growth of deflected deltas depends on dominant sediment accretion on the
514 updrift-side. Thus, the dominant updriftward sediment transport condition on the updrift
515 side can be rationalised in the case of internally-sourced deflected deltas.

516 (5) The deflection of the Ishikari delta planform can most likely be explained by 517 deflected mouth bars and river mouth jets due to the slightly oblique angle at which 518 waves approach the river mouth. Consequently, the deflection of the Ishikari delta is 519 probably independent of the direction of dominant sediment transport.

520

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692 Fig. 1 Geographical map of the Ishikari Delta and the distribution of seafloor sediments in 693 Ishikari Bay. Radar charts show wind speed and direction of daily maximum wind from 1990 694 to 2017 in Ishikari Meteorological Observatory (Japan Meteorological Agency). The delta 695 plain consists mainly of beach ridge sands. The present Ishikari River mouth is located 696 near the northeastern margin of the coastline, showing a highly deflected planform. The 697 left bank of the lower reaches of the Ishikari River is barriered by a river mouth spit. The 698 digital elevation model is provided by the Geospatial Information Authority of Japan. The 699 bathymetric contour lines are based on the "Digital Topography of Ocean Floor M7000 700 Series" published by the Japan Hydraulic Association.



Fig. 2 Maximum and significant wave heights and wave orientations (up-current) in the Ishikari
coast during the survey years 2014 and 2016. The data are based on the 2 hours interval
observation data of Nationwide Ocean Wave Information Network for Ports and Harbours
(NOWPHAS) system provided by the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism
in Japan (data are available online at https://www.mlit.go.jp/kowan/nowphas/index eng.html).



Fig. 3 Directions and velocities of wind-driven currents in the Ishikari Bay measured using
acoustic Doppler current profiler (after Yamashita et al., 1998; 1999). The wind condition
at St.A is also shown. The current velocities at St. A were measured at 40 seconds interval,
at St. 1 and St. 3 were at 10 minutes interval, and at the St. 4 were at 0.5 second interval
for 20 minutes of every hour. These figures are reprinted with permission from the Japan
Society of Civil Engineers. See Figure 1 for observation locations.



Fig. 4 (A) Growth history of the river mouth spit based on the aerial photos (modified from
Yamazaki and Yamashita, 2004). (B) Prograding coastline at the artificial groin (IBNP)
(modified from Arai, 1981). (C) Chronological transition of the entire Ishikari sandy
coastline before and after the construction of IBNP, showing the distributed ratio of
accreted sediments during 1947–1971. The black triangle shows the location of the Ishikari
river mouth. The aerial photo and the digital elevation model are provided by the
Geospatial Information Authority of Japan.



- Sampling sites of modern seafloor sand in 1996–1997 (Suga & Hamada, 2001)
- Sampling sites of modern foreshore sand in 1996–1997 (Suga & Hamada, 2001)
- Sampling sites of modern seafloor sand in 2004 (Geological Survey of Hokkaido, 2004)
- Sampling sites of modern foreshore and uppermost shoreface sand in 2014 & 2016
- Sampling sites of modern seafloor sand in 2016
- *Sampling sites of modern seafloor mud in 1996-1997 (Suga & Hamada, 2001), 2004 (Geological Survey of Hokkaido, 2004), & 2016 *excluded from GSTA
- Fig. 5 Location and survey year of the collected samples in Ishikari coast. Suffix beside the
 circles shows sample code in the source. The colour gradients show the spatial variation of
 the mud content in the seafloor sandy sediments, as estimated by Kriging interpolation
 (400-m grid).
- 731



Fig. 6 Interpolations of the three statistical parameters (left column) and the variance of the interpolation error (right column), of respectively mean, sorting and skewness.



Fig. 7 Grain-size composition of seafloor sediments analysed via logarithmic method of
moments: values of mud content (A), and statistical grain-size parameters (mode (B);
mean (C); sorting (D); skewness (E); and kurtosis (F)) versus water depth. The key to
colour is same as the Fig. 8.



Fig. 8 Relationships between the value of mean and skewness of analysed seafloor sediments.
The key to colour is same as the Figure 8. The samples circled by dotted line were not used for the interpolation and the GSTA analysis.



Fig. 9 Alongshore spatial variation of mud content (A) and statistical grain-size parameters
(mode (B); mean (C); sorting (D); and skewness (E)) of seafloor sediments. The distance
is from the western end of the sandy coast (mouth of the Zenibako-gawa River, see Fig. 1
for location).



Fig. 10 Results of GSTA using GiSedTrend. Vector fields (left column) and windrose diagrams
(right column), for respectively CB+, CB+ & FB- and FB- trend cases.



760 Fig. 11 Three different areas recognized on the CB+ trend case vector field, respectively A, B

and C. Red arrows correspond to main transport directions.



Fig. 12 Representative histograms of analysed sediment samples on a logarithmic scale (phi).
The enlarged circles on the inset map show the sampling sites. The dashed line at the
centre of the river mouth extending seaward represents approximate boundary line
between the updrift and downdrift sides. The colour gradient represents the spatial
distribution of the mud content.

Internally sourced deflected deltas



Externally sourced deflected deltas (typical model)



Fig. 13 Comparison of sediment dynamics of internally sourced and externally sourced
deflected delta systems. Externally sourced deflected deltas (lower) grow under
net-downdriftward sediment transport, whereas the growth of internally sourced
deflected deltas (upper) depends on dominant updriftward sediment transport on
the updrift-side.

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