

1 **Turbidity hysteresis in an estuary and tidal river following an extreme discharge event**

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9 **Key points**

- 10 - Turbidity-discharge relationships are found in long-term observations ( $\geq 12$  years) at multiple  
11 locations along the tidal Hudson River  
12 - In the tidal freshwater, turbidity for a given discharge increased for 2 years following major  
13 discharge events and sediment input in 2011  
14 - In the saline estuary turbidity hysteresis was less apparent, consistent with greater background  
15 sediment concentrations and availability

16 **Abstract**

17 Non-linear turbidity-discharge relationships are explored in the context of sediment sourcing and event-  
18 driven hysteresis using long-term ( $\geq 12$  year) turbidity observations from the tidal freshwater and saline  
19 estuary of the Hudson River. At four locations spanning 175 km, turbidity generally increased with  
20 discharge but did not follow a constant log-log dependence, in part due to event-driven adjustments in  
21 sediment availability. Following major sediment inputs from extreme precipitation and discharge events  
22 in 2011, turbidity in the tidal river increased by 20-50% for a given discharge. The coherent shifts in the  
23 turbidity-discharge relationship along the tidal river over the subsequent 2 years suggest that the 2011  
24 events increased sediment availability for resuspension. In the saline estuary, changes in the sediment-  
25 discharge relationship were less apparent after the events, indicating that greater background turbidity due  
26 to sediment remobilization from internal sources make inputs from high discharge events less important at  
27 interannual time scales.

28 **Plain language summary**

29 Turbidity is a widely accepted proxy for suspended sediment concentration and an important factor for  
30 contaminant transport and water quality. Here we show that turbidity depends on river discharge in long-  
31 term observations at multiple locations in an estuary. Such relationships are often used in rivers, but have  
32 not been commonly used in estuaries and tidal rivers where tides and salinity also contribute to  
33 variability. Turbidity in the freshwater tidal region was more sensitive to discharge than in the saline  
34 estuary. Massive inputs of sediment due to extreme precipitation and flooding in 2011 resulted in  
35 increased sediment availability in the tidal river over multiple years. Turbidity throughout the tidal river  
36 was elevated for 2 years following the events, but changes were not apparent in the saline estuary. The  
37 observations provide guidance on recovery time scales for estuaries and tidal rivers to event-driven  
38 sediment inputs, which affects the delivery of material from the watershed to the coastal ocean as well as  
39 other impacts relating to changes in turbidity.

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Due to the challenges in continuously monitoring suspended sediment concentration (SSC), SSC and  
42 sediment discharge in rivers are often empirically related to volumetric freshwater discharge (Helsel and  
43 Hirsch 2002). Volumetric discharge varies by orders of magnitude at event and seasonal time scales, and  
44 it is the dominant factor controlling variability in sediment discharge. Sediment discharge increases  
45 nonlinearly with volumetric discharge, commonly increasing to approximately the cube of river discharge  
46 at high flow (Nash 1994; Syvitski et al. 2000). Consequently, large, relatively infrequent events  
47 disproportionately contribute to the total sediment discharge.

48 Sediment-discharge rating curves are often treated as static, and yet variability in precipitation patterns,  
49 vegetation, land use, and tectonic activity can all affect sediment delivery and the sediment-discharge  
50 relationship (Walling 1977; Morehead et al. 2003; Warrick and Rubin 2007; Yellen et al. 2016).  
51 Disturbance from extreme floods can increase sediment concentrations for months to years as rivers  
52 adjust to bed incision and landslide scarps revegetate (Warrick et al. 2013; Dethier et al. 2016; Ahn et al.  
53 2017; Gray 2018). The duration and timing of low-discharge conditions can also affect in-stream storage  
54 and SSC during subsequent higher discharge periods (Walling et al. 1998; Gray et al. 2014).

55 Rivers supply sediment to coastal regions, where sediment transport also depends on processes like tides,  
56 waves, and density-driven circulation. In estuaries, salinity gradients drive landward near-bottom  
57 circulation that leads to sediment trapping and regions of higher sediment concentration, or estuarine  
58 turbidity maximums (ETMs) (Postma 1961; Burchard et al. 2018). River discharge alters sediment input  
59 from the watershed but also affects the salinity distribution, and thus the sediment trapping at seasonal  
60 and event time scales. Tidal currents also contribute to variability in SSC, directly through sediment  
61 resuspension and indirectly by affecting the salinity distribution. In the tidal freshwater part of an estuary,  
62 tidal resuspension and sediment supply from the river are the key factors in SSC variability (Dalrymple  
63 and Choi 2007; Ralston and Geyer 2017). Tidal freshwater regions provide crucial links in the movement  
64 of material to the coastal ocean, and yet they have received less study than fluvial or estuarine  
65 environments (Hoitink and Jay 2016).

66 This study uses long-term ( $\geq 12$ -year) observations to characterize turbidity-discharge relationships in a  
67 tidal river and estuary, including the response following sediment inputs from major discharge events.  
68 Because it is easier to measure, turbidity is often used as a proxy for SSC (Yellen et al., 2014; Ahn et al.,  
69 2017), and turbidity has been shown to correlate well with SSC in the tidal river (Ralston and Geyer  
70 2017) and within the watershed (McHale and Siemion 2014). In late summer 2011, tropical cyclones  
71 Irene and Lee delivered intense precipitation over much of the U.S. Northeast, increasing discharge and  
72 sediment delivery. In the Delaware estuary, sediment input of 1.4 Mt over about two weeks was similar to  
73 the long-term annual average, and SSC in the ETM remained elevated for several months (Sommerfield et  
74 al. 2017). In the Connecticut River estuary, input from Irene of 1.2 Mt was twice the annual average, and  
75 the sediment-discharge relationship in the tidal river was elevated for the following 2 years compared to  
76 before the storm (Yellen et al. 2014). In the Hudson River estuary, sediment input from Irene and Lee was  
77 about 2.7 Mt, more than twice the annual average (Wall et al. 2008; Ralston et al. 2013). The events  
78 increased turbidity in the months following the events, but the response to this sediment input has not  
79 been examined at longer time scales. In this study we use long-term monitoring data to assess the  
80 turbidity-discharge relationships at multiple locations along the tidal Hudson River and quantify the time  
81 scales over which the discharge events altered turbidity in the system.

## 82 **2. Methods**

### 83 ***2.1 Site description***

84 The Hudson River estuary extends about 265 km from the Atlantic Ocean to tidal limit at Troy (NY).  
85 Along-estuary distances in the Hudson are typically reported with respect to The Battery in New York  
86 Harbor as 0 river km (rkm), but The Battery is located about 25 km landward of the natural mouth  
87 between Sandy Hook and Rockaway Peninsula. The tidal range averages about 1.5 m at the mouth,  
88 decreasing to 1 m mid-estuary and increasing to 1.5 m at the head of tides (Ralston et al. 2019). The  
89 salinity intrusion varies from about 40 rkm during high river discharge to 120 rkm during low discharge  
90 (Bowen and Geyer 2003; Ralston et al. 2008).

91 The primary ETM in the Hudson is located near 20 rkm, formed by bottom salinity fronts associated with  
92 a constriction (Geyer et al. 2001; Traykovski et al. 2004). During moderate and low discharge, a  
93 secondary ETM forms near 55 rkm (Nitsche et al. 2010; Ralston et al. 2012). In the primary ETM, near-  
94 bottom sediment concentrations can exceed  $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , and concentrations are greater than 100 mg/L in much  
95 of the saline estuary. In the tidal river, sediment concentrations are generally less than  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  
96 vary with river discharge and tidal forcing (Wall et al. 2008; Ralston and Geyer 2017). Sediment inputs  
97 come from the two largest tributaries, the Mohawk and Upper Hudson Rivers, which converge just above  
98 the tidal limit. Numerous smaller tributaries also discharge into the tidal Hudson, cumulatively increasing  
99 the sediment load by 30-70% (Wall et al. 2008).

## 100 **2.2 Observations**

101 Turbidity data were collected from monitoring stations located along the estuary. Data were accessed  
102 through the Hudson River Environmental Conditions Observing System ([www.hrecos.org](http://www.hrecos.org)), which  
103 organizes monitoring data from multiple partner organizations, and the Centralized Data Management  
104 Office ([cdmo.baruch.sc.edu](http://cdmo.baruch.sc.edu)). Monitoring stations were at Schodack Island (located at 212 rkm, available  
105 2008-2019, partner organization Cary Institute of Ecosystem Studies), Tivoli North Bay (156 rkm, 2000-  
106 2019, Hudson River National Estuarine Research Reserve, HRNERR), Norrie Point (132 rkm, 2008-  
107 2019, HRNERR), and Piermont (37 rkm, 2008-2019, Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory) (Fig. 1). Under  
108 most forcing conditions, Piermont is in the saline estuary and the other three stations are in the tidal  
109 freshwater (Hoitink and Jay 2016). For convenience we refer to the estuary spanning the tidal freshwater  
110 and saline regions.

111 All stations recorded near-surface turbidity. Time series were processed for quality control based on  
112 visual inspection to remove spurious outliers or anomalous trends indicative of instrument fouling. The  
113 quality control removed 0.3% to 2.8% of the measurements, depending on the station. The Tivoli North  
114 Bay sensor is located in a small channel connecting to a side embayment, so we only used measurements  
115 during flood tides. Daily median turbidity values were used to minimize the influence of individual bad  
116 measurements on longer term variability. At Tivoli, water samples were collected, filtered, dried, and  
117 weighed to measure suspended solids concentration for comparison with turbidity. The regression slope  
118 for total suspended solids ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) was 1.2 times the turbidity (NTU,  $r^2 = 0.52$ ,  $n = 219$ ). Turbidity  
119 sensors at the other stations were not calibrated to SSC, but previous studies have also found calibrations  
120 with slopes of around 1 (Ralston et al. 2013; Ralston and Geyer 2017).

121 Volumetric discharge ( $Q_r$ ) and sediment discharge ( $Q_s$ ) measurements were collected from USGS gauging  
122 stations on the Mohawk and Upper Hudson. The Mohawk (at Cohoes, #01357500) has volumetric  
123 discharge 1917-2019 and sediment discharge for 1954-1959, 1976-1979, and 2002-2019. The Upper  
124 Hudson (Waterford, 01335770) has volumetric discharge 1887-1956 and 1976-2019, and sediment  
125 discharge 1976-2014. Mean daily mean SSC were calculated with  $SSC = Q_s/Q_r$ .

126 Turbidity was related to  $Q_r$  by locally weighted scattered smoothing, or LOWESS (Cleveland 1979;  
127 Helsel and Hirsch 2002). The LOWESS approach has been used for sediment discharge rating curves in

128 rivers, including in trend analyses following discharge events (Warrick et al. 2013; Gray 2018). LOWESS  
129 regressions were calculated for log-transformed discharge and turbidity with a smoothing factor of 0.25.  
130 A bias correction factor was included to calculate turbidity from discharge using the regression (Ferguson  
131 1986; Cohn 1995), with the form  $C = 10^{(C_{out} + \sigma^2/2)}$ , where  $C_{out}$  is the output from the LOWESS  
132 regression to  $\log_{10}(Q_r)$  and  $\sigma^2$  is the variance in the residual. The variance in the residual was calculated in  
133 fractional subsets of  $Q_r$ , similar to the LOWESS smoothing factor to account for variability in the  
134 regression fit.

### 135 3. Results

136 Over the observation period (2008-2019), Irene and Lee accounted for the highest river discharge and  
137 observed turbidity (Fig. 1). The turbidity during and immediately following the 2011 events was greatest  
138 in the upper tidal river at Schodack Island, with 1000 NTU during Irene and 500 NTU during Lee. At the  
139 other stations in the tidal river, Tivoli North Bay and Norrie Point, turbidity was 200-300 NTU during the  
140 events. Increased turbidity was recorded during other high discharge periods, including spring freshets in  
141 2013, 2014, and 2016, but those maxima were less than half the levels during Irene. In the saline estuary,  
142 the Piermont station was not operational during the 2011 events. During other years, the maximum  
143 turbidity at Piermont was typically around 100 NTU, with generally higher turbidity during the winter  
144 and spring and lower in the summer.

145 Turbidity from the four stations is plotted against discharge, and all the locations have positive slopes  
146 (Fig. 2). At Schodack Island, the turbidity dependence on discharge has a form similar to many rivers  
147 (Nash 1994), with a greater slope at higher discharge ( $Q_r > 400 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and weaker dependence at lower  
148  $Q_r$ . Schodack is in a shallow and sandy part of the tidal river (Nitsche et al. 2007; Collins and Miller  
149 2012), so resuspension of fine sediment is limited and turbidity varies strongly with river inputs. The  
150 slightly negative slope at low discharge may be an artifact of limited data, or may be due to increased  
151 organic particles during summer low discharge (Ralston and Geyer 2017). Turbidities at the Tivoli and  
152 Norrie Point stations that are farther seaward increase more gradually with discharge (Fig. 2b,c).  
153 Discharge varies annually by about an order of magnitude, and turbidity in the tidal river varies by more  
154 than an order of magnitude. The turbidity variability in the tidal freshwater is greater than that in the  
155 saline estuary, where the annual range typically spans a factor of 2-3 (Bokuniewicz and Arnold 1984;  
156 Ralston et al. 2012; Ralston and Geyer 2017). Correspondingly, the turbidity-discharge regression at  
157 Piermont has a narrower range than the tidal river stations, and the discharge dependence is weaker (Fig. 2d).

158 Scatter in the turbidity-discharge relationships is due to the many processes that affect turbidity in  
159 addition to discharge. Sediment resuspension and trapping can vary with tidal amplitude, salinity, wind,  
160 and bed sediment properties. Lags in sediment transport can be weeks to months (Ralston and Geyer  
161 2009; Ralston and Geyer 2017), distorting the correspondence between the daily discharge and turbidity  
162 along the estuary. Antecedent discharge conditions affect sediment availability in the estuary, with fine  
163 sediment accumulating during higher discharge and increasing tidal resuspension, potentially changing  
164 the relationship with daily discharge (Wall et al. 2008).

165 To evaluate whether inputs from Irene and Lee affected sediment availability in the estuary and thus  
166 turbidity over longer time scales, the turbidity vs. discharge relationship is considered on a yearly basis.  
167 Turbidity time series are segmented by water year (October 1-September 30) to reflect the seasonality of  
168 higher discharge in the late fall, winter, and spring and typically lower discharge summer. As an example,  
169 multiple years are shown for Tivoli North Bay (Fig. 3). Clustering of median daily observations above or  
170 below the LOWESS fit of the full 12-year record represents a shift in the turbidity-discharge relationship.  
171 Increased sediment availability following Irene and Lee corresponds to higher than average turbidity (for

172 a given discharge) in 2012 and 2013, as well as a few anomalously high turbidity observations during  
173 water year 2011 (Fig. 3d,e). In contrast, turbidity tends to be less than the long-term regression for most  
174 discharge conditions in 2015 (Fig. 3g).

175 Over the turbidity observation period, the combined annual average discharge from Upper Hudson and  
176 Mohawk Rivers varied by almost a factor of 2, from  $350 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $650 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and the maximum combined  
177 daily discharge varied by about a factor of 3, from  $1460 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $4460 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 4a). Annual sediment  
178 inputs from the rivers were calculated based on observed discharge and regressions to long-term sediment  
179 discharge observations (Ralston et al. 2020), since the direct measurements of sediment discharge did not  
180 span the full period (Fig. 4b). The most notable variability in sediment inputs over this period was the  
181 large increase from the Mohawk with the storm events in 2011.

182 Annual averages of turbidity in the tidal freshwater and saline estuary varied by about a factor of 2 over  
183 the same period (Fig. 4c). The interannual variability in average turbidity is in part due to variation in  
184 river discharge, with higher turbidity during years with greater average discharge. However, the goal here  
185 is to assess whether hysteresis in the turbidity-discharge relationship may also contribute. To quantify  
186 this, we calculate the annual average of the ratio of the measured turbidity to that predicted by the  
187 turbidity-discharge regressions shown in Fig. 2. This turbidity ratio represents the factor by which the  
188 turbidity differed from the long-term regression, accounting for interannual variations in discharge (Fig.  
189 4d). Discretization at periods shorter than a year were also examined, with similar (but noisier) results.

190 The interannual variation in the turbidity relative to the long-term regression was coherent among the  
191 three tidal freshwater stations (i.e. Schodack, Tivoli, and Norrie Point), despite separation of about 80 km  
192 and differences in local bed sediment. In 2012 and 2013, turbidity at all 3 locations was greater than  
193 expected based on the long-term regression, by factors of about 1.4 at Schodack, 1.3 at Tivoli, and 1.5 at  
194 Norrie. In 2010 and prior years, the turbidity factors were close to or less than 1 at all three stations. After  
195 2013, the turbidity ratio returned to values similar to 1, representing a return to long-term average  
196 conditions, with values less than 1 before and after 2011-2014 potentially explained by the long-term  
197 regression including the elevated turbidity from Irene and Lee. Average turbidity in the tidal river thus  
198 depended both on  $Q_r$  that year and on hysteresis in the turbidity-discharge relationship. For example, the  
199 mean  $Q_r$  in 2012 ( $390 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was less than average ( $460 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and yet the average turbidity that year  
200 was the second highest overall (Fig. 4c). In 2013 the turbidity increased in part because the discharge  
201 increased, but also because of the above-average turbidity-discharge relationship (Fig. 4d).

202 Another approach to characterizing the temporal variability in the turbidity-discharge relationship is to  
203 calculate the slope of the cumulative residual between the observed and predicted turbidity (Gray 2018).  
204 Periods when observed turbidity was greater than expected have a positive slope for the cumulative  
205 residual, and periods with turbidity less than expected have a negative slope. Results using the cumulative  
206 residual slopes are consistent with the turbidity ratios, with positive slopes during years with turbidity  
207 ratio greater than 1 and negative residuals for turbidity ratios less than 1 (Suppl. Fig. 1). Similarly, the  
208 cumulative residual slopes at the tidal river stations are maximum in 2012 and 2013, after Irene and Lee,  
209 and decrease to zero or negative values in 2014 or 2015.

210 The temporal variability in the turbidity-discharge relationship was coherent among the freshwater tidal  
211 stations, but observations in the saline estuary did not exhibit the same interannual response (Fig. 4c). For  
212 example, the turbidity ratio at Tivoli was strongly correlated with that at Norrie Point ( $r^2 = 0.93$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  
213  $n=11$ ) and had a weaker correlation with Schodack Island ( $r^2 = 0.63$ ,  $p=0.028$ ,  $n=12$ ), but the correlation  
214 with Piermont in the saline estuary was not significant ( $r^2 = 0.33$ ,  $p=0.35$ ,  $n=10$ ). The Piermont station

215 exhibited only a modest increase in the turbidity ratio in 2012 after Irene and Lee (with a data gap in  
216 2013), and in general has less variability in the turbidity-discharge relationship.

217 The turbidity ratios in the estuary were not significantly correlated with the year-to-year variability in the  
218 sediment mass inputs from the Mohawk and Upper Hudson (Fig. 4b). We also calculated the residual of  
219 the LOWESS regressions of  $\log_{10}(SSC)$  vs.  $\log_{10}(Q_r)$  for the tributaries on an annual basis. Precipitation  
220 from Irene and Lee was much greater in the Mohawk watershed than the Upper Hudson (Lumia et al.  
221 2014), so increased sediment availability following the events may be expected to alter the sediment-  
222 discharge relationship of the Mohawk. In water years 2012-2014 following the events, the average SSC in  
223 the Mohawk did increase by a factor of about 1.2 above the regression values, but the Mohawk turbidity  
224 ratio was not significantly correlated with the turbidity ratios in the estuary. As expected from  
225 precipitation patterns during Irene-Lee, the turbidity-discharge ratio for the Upper Hudson did not change  
226 post-flood.

#### 227 **4. Summary and discussion**

228 Long-term monitoring data allow for characterization of turbidity-discharge relationships in the estuary  
229 that might be obscured by variability at tidal to seasonal time scales. In the tidal freshwater, turbidity  
230 depended strongly on discharge (Fig. 2). Average residuals between observed turbidity and that predicted  
231 from the discharge regressions were coherent among stations in the tidal river, with increased turbidity in  
232 the 2 years following tropical storms Irene and Lee (Fig. 4). Variations in the turbidity residuals in the  
233 estuary were not directly tied to the interannual sediment inputs from tributaries, which suggests that  
234 increased sediment availability for resuspension after the events led to hysteresis in the sediment-  
235 discharge relationship. The coherence among stations separated by 80 km suggests that the signal is also  
236 not predominantly due to local inputs from a particular tributary.

237 Increased turbidity suggests an increase in SSC, particularly for a fixed particle size distribution.  
238 Alternatively, temporal decreases in the dominant particle size could increase turbidity and change the  
239 relationship to SSC (Downing 2006). Seasonal variation in the slope between turbidity and SSC of about  
240 a factor of 2 has been noted in the tidal Hudson, likely due to changes in particle size with discharge  
241 (Ralston and Geyer 2017). Thus the shift toward higher turbidity ratios may reflect a combination of  
242 greater availability and finer grain size following discharge events (Yellen et al. 2016).

243 The turbidity responses differed between the tidal river and saline estuary, where changes in the turbidity-  
244 discharge relationship were less apparent following the discharge events. In the tidal river, SSC tends to  
245 be lower and the bed less muddy than in the saline estuary (Nitsche et al. 2007). The sediment available  
246 for resuspension at event to seasonal time scales has been termed the mobile sediment pool (Wellershaus  
247 1981; Schoellhamer 2011; Geyer and Ralston 2018). While the size of the mobile pool is difficult to  
248 quantify, the persistent increase in turbidity in the tidal river following Irene and Lee suggests that the  
249 sediment input represented a major increase in the size of the mobile pool. About 2/3 of the sediment  
250 input by the events remained in the tidal river several months after the events (Ralston et al. 2013), and  
251 the 2-year period of increased turbidity may be indicative of the time scale for the tidal river to adjust  
252 back to pre-storm conditions.

253 In the saline estuary, turbidity on average is greater, the bed is muddier, and the mobile pool is larger than  
254 in the tidal river. Previous studies have highlighted the seasonal to annual variation in SSC and deposition  
255 (Geyer et al. 2001; Woodruff et al. 2001). Observations in the lower ETM found that the freshets in 1998  
256 and 1999 each deposited about 0.3 Mt of new sediment, despite large differences in the watershed  
257 sediment inputs in those years (Woodruff et al. 2001). This decoupling between deposition in the ETM  
258 and the watershed inputs is consistent with the limited variability in the turbidity-discharge residual at

259 Piermont. If the mobile pool in the saline estuary is many times the annual average input, then the  
260 fractional increase from Irene and Lee may be minor. Similarly, in San Francisco Bay a decrease in  
261 sediment supply associated with dam construction did not affect sediment concentrations until decades  
262 later, first in the tidal freshwater Delta and subsequently in the saline estuary (Schoellhamer 2011; Hestir  
263 et al. 2013; Schoellhamer et al. 2013). In the Penobscot estuary, the mobile sediment pool was estimated  
264 to be 6-8 times the annual average input based on recovery time scales following a contaminant release  
265 (Geyer and Ralston 2018).

266 Differences between the tidal river and saline estuary in the hysteresis of the turbidity-discharge  
267 relationships reflect the relative coupling between sediment supply and river discharge. In the saline  
268 estuary, the mobile pool is large compared to the annual supply, such that a major discharge event does  
269 not drastically increase sediment availability. In contrast, fine grained bed sediment in the tidal river is  
270 more limited, so event inputs represent a fractionally bigger change, and turbidity is increased for a  
271 couple of years as the added sediment gradually moves seaward and deposits in lower energy shoals and  
272 wetlands (Ralston and Geyer 2017; Yellen et al. 2020). For comparison, the hysteresis in turbidity-  
273 discharge relationship in the tidal river is shorter in duration than observed in rivers along the U.S. West  
274 Coast, where sediment concentrations remained elevated for 5 years or longer after events (Warrick et al.  
275 2013; Gray 2018). Long-term measurements at stream gauging stations allow for assessment of the  
276 variability in turbidity/sediment-discharge relationships in the watershed, but such long-term  
277 measurements are far less common in estuaries. These results point to the utility of such measurements  
278 for assessing the multiple time scales of sediment variability in other estuaries.

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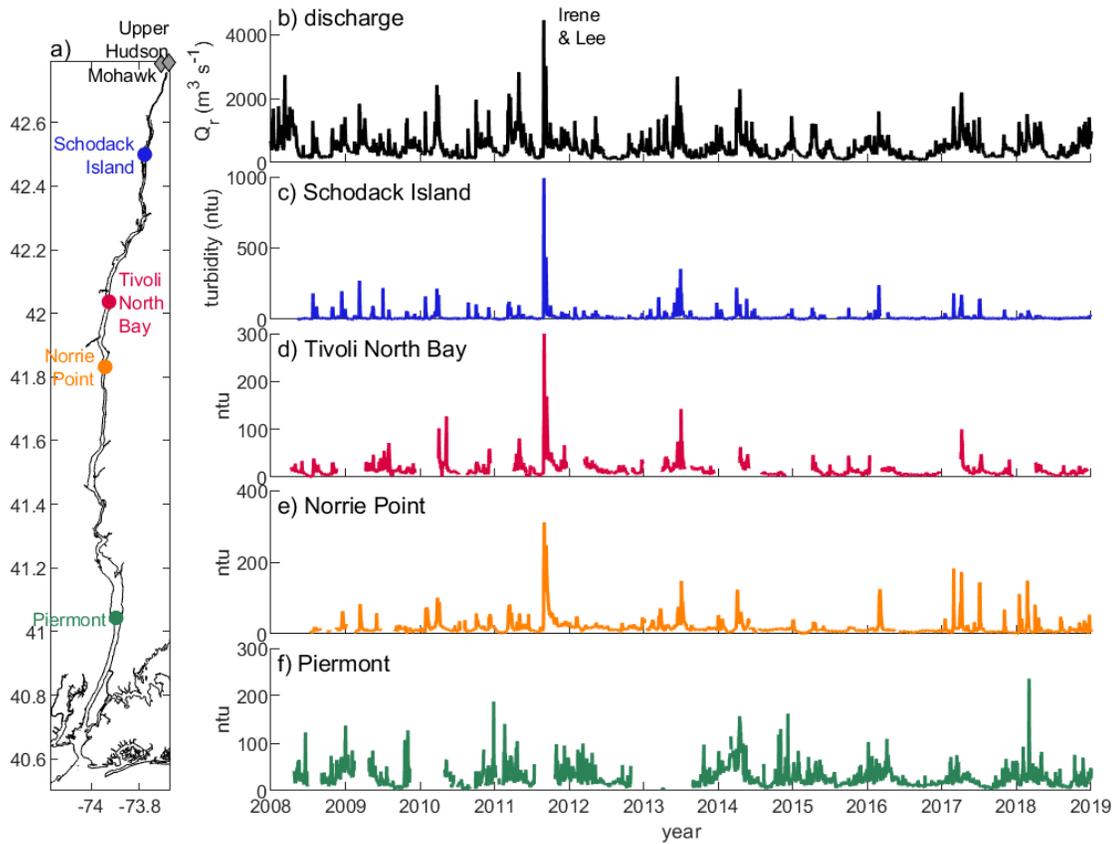
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410

411 **Figures**

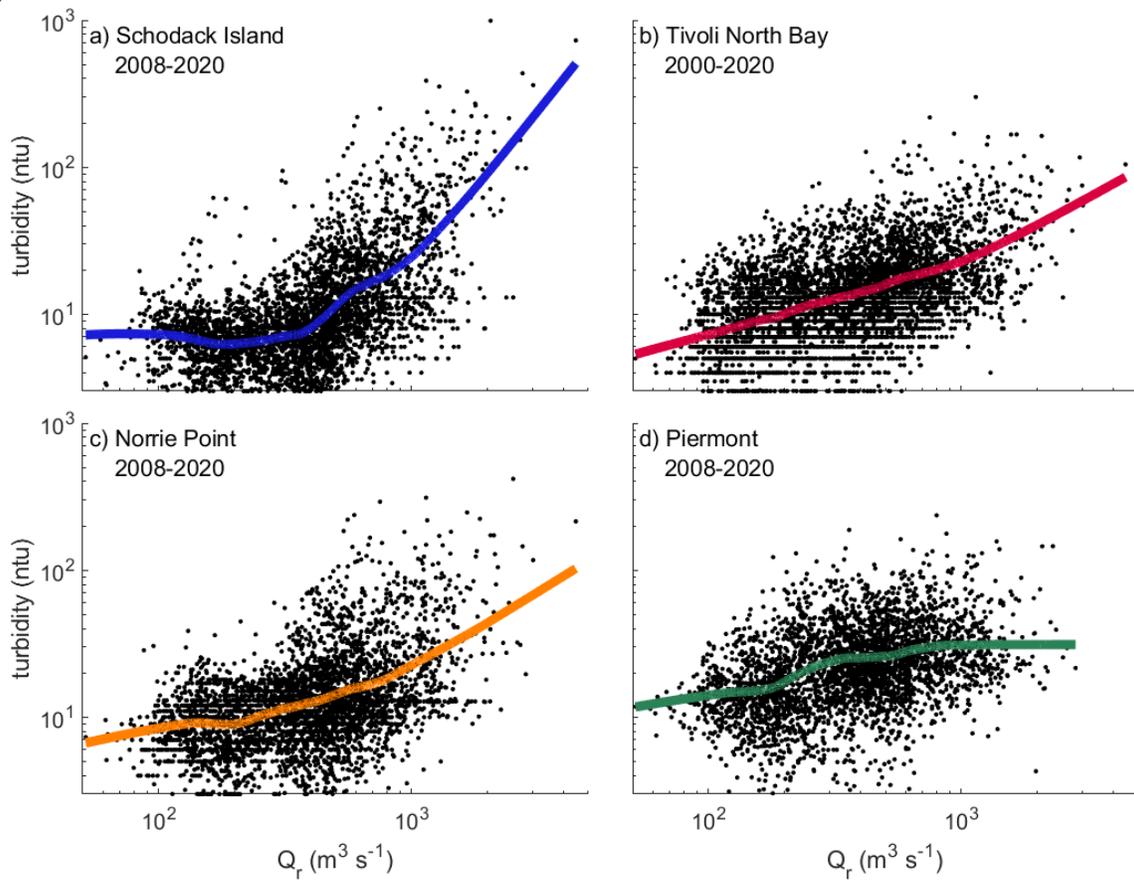
Figure 1



412

413 **Figure 1.** Turbidity at monitoring stations along the estuary. a) Station locations, b) daily average  
414 discharge from the Upper Hudson and Mohawk, noting Tropical Storms Irene and Lee in 2011, c-f) daily  
415 median turbidity from Schodack Island, Tivoli North Bay, Norrie Point, and Piermont.

Figure 2



416

417 **Figure 2.** Turbidity vs. river discharge a) at Schodack Island, b) Tivoli North Bay, c) Norrie Point, and d)  
418 Piermont. Daily turbidity data are in black and LOWESS regressions are colored.

Figure 3



419

420 **Figure 3.** Turbidity vs. river discharge at Tivoli North Bay by water year from 2009 to 2016. The full  
421 record is in black, and data for each year are colored. The LOWESS fit to the full record is gray.

422

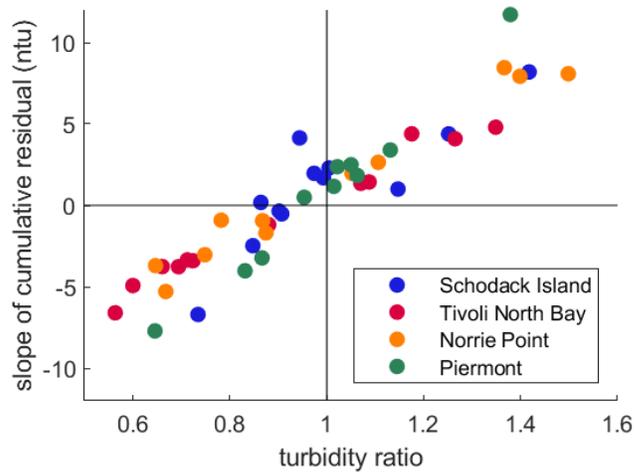
423

424

425 **Figure 4.** Discharge and turbidity by water year. a) Mean and maximum discharge of the Upper Hudson  
426 and Mohawk rivers, b) annual sediment input from the Mohawk and Upper Hudson, c) annual average  
427 turbidity in the tidal river and estuary, d) annual average of the ratio of measured turbidity to that  
428 predicted by the long-term  $Q_r$  regressions (Fig. 2).

429

S1



430

431 **Figure S1.** Annual averages of the slope of the cumulative residual vs. turbidity ratio. Turbidity ratio  
432 same as in Fig. 4d. Positive slopes and turbidity ratios greater than 1 correspond with years when the  
433 turbidity vs. discharge relationship was greater than the long-term regression.

Figure 1.

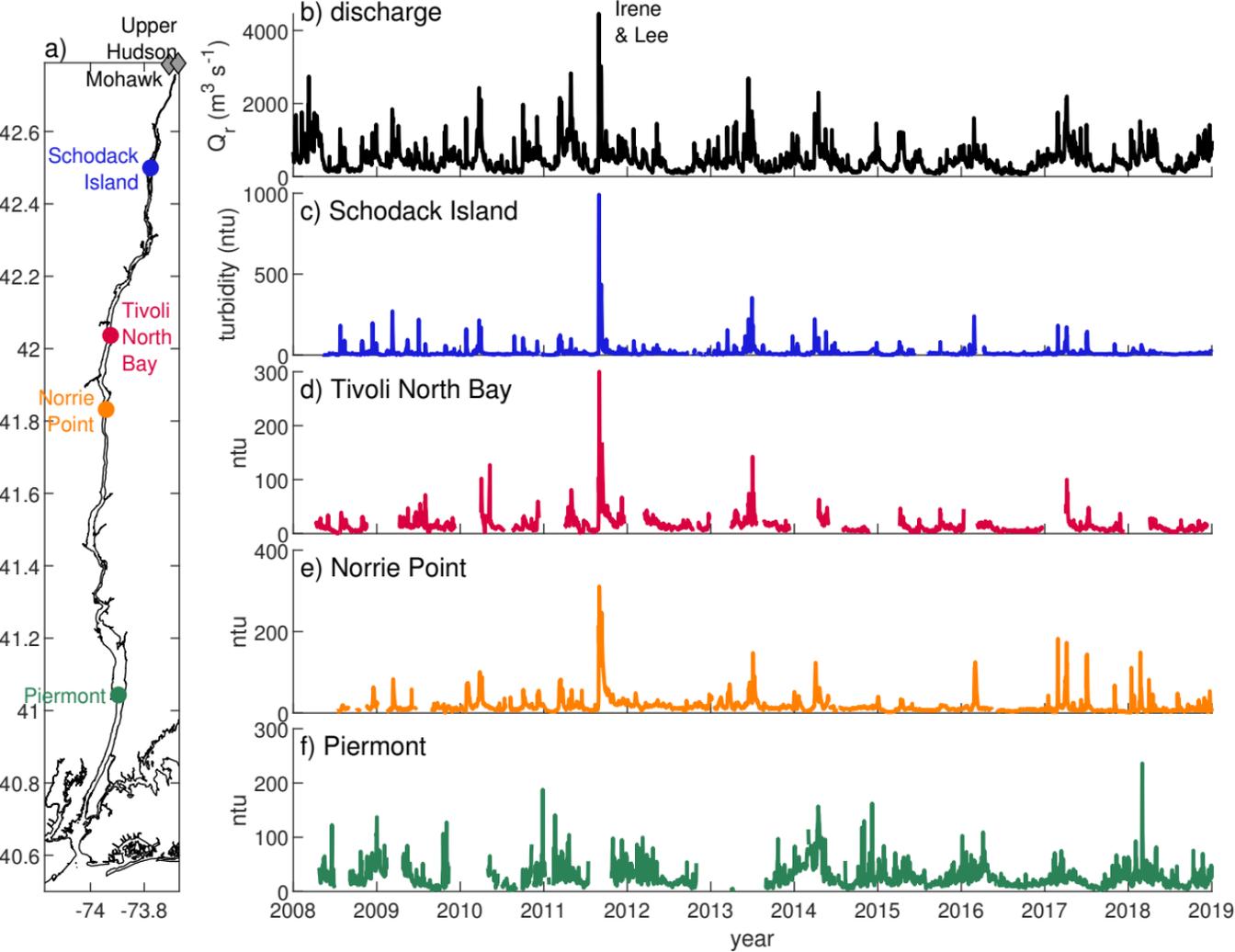


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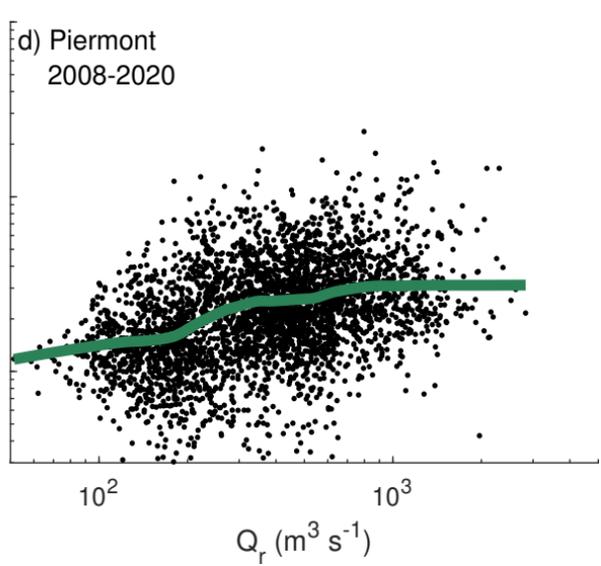
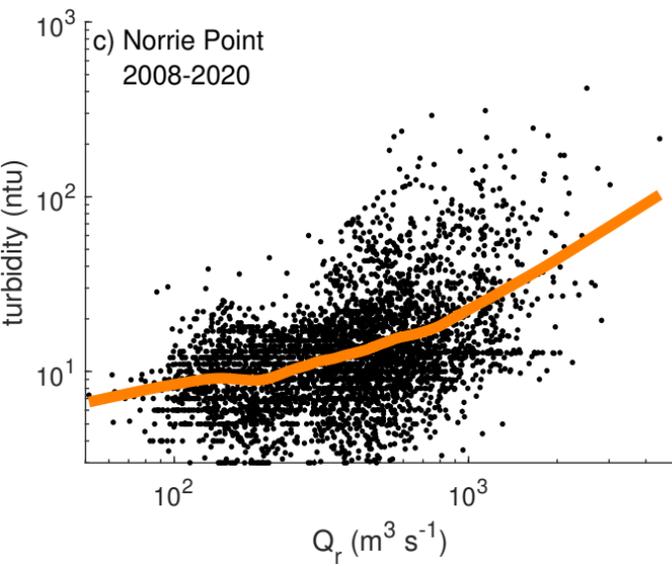
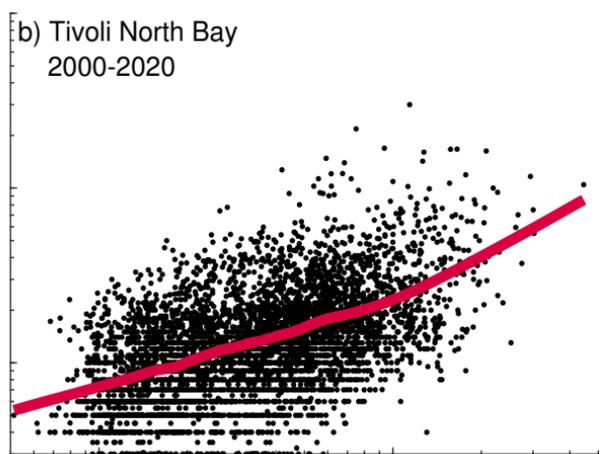
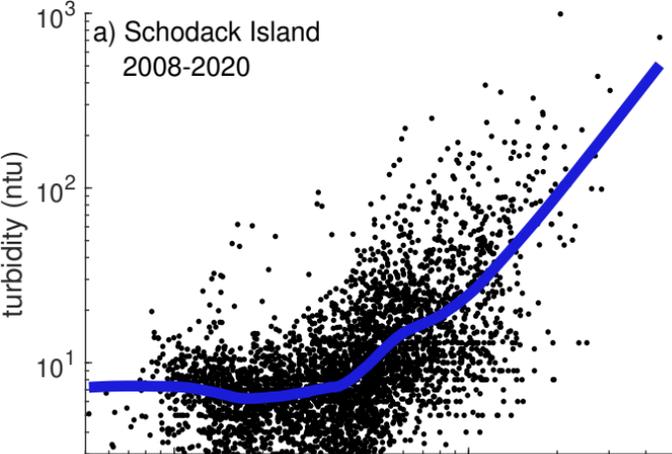


Figure 3.

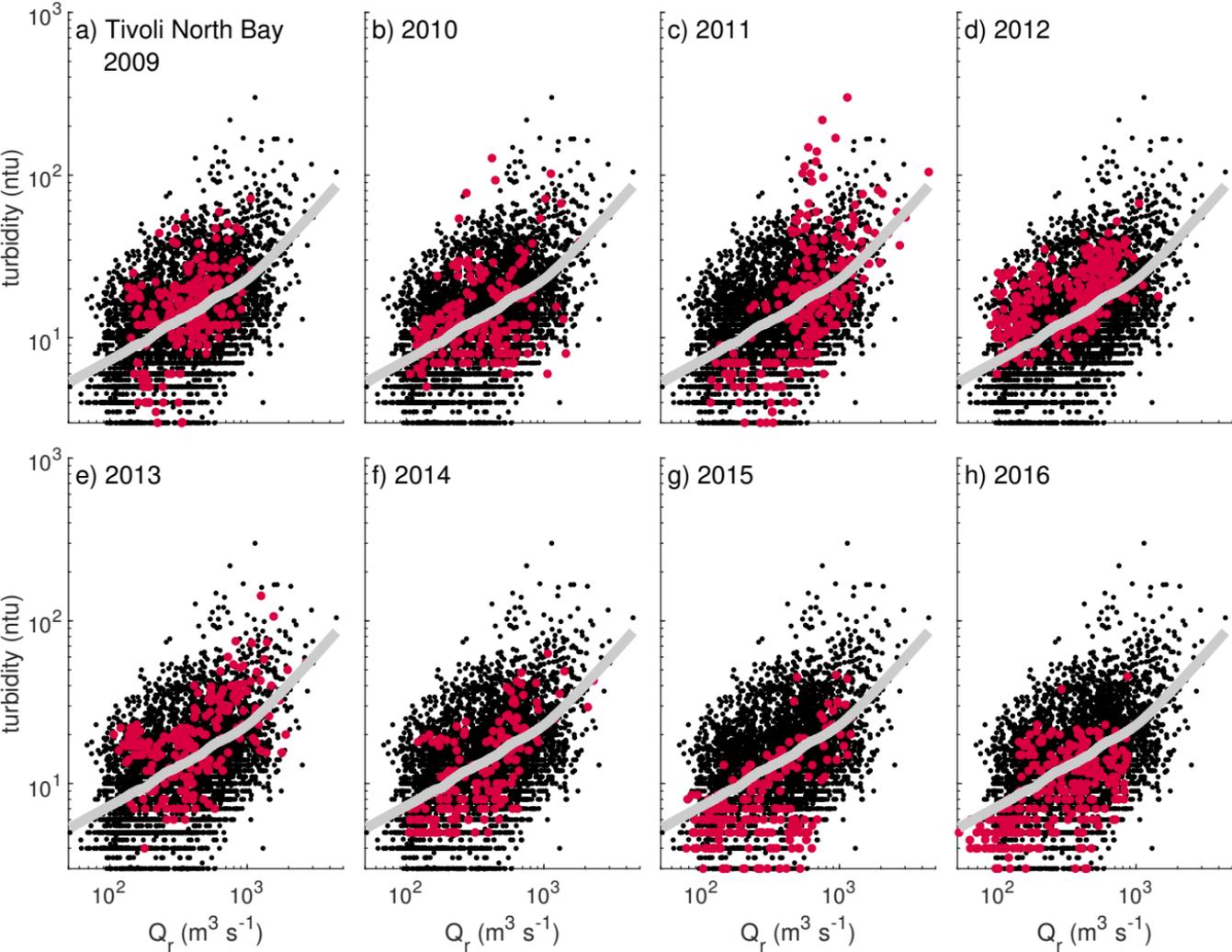


Figure 4.

