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## Accepted Manuscript

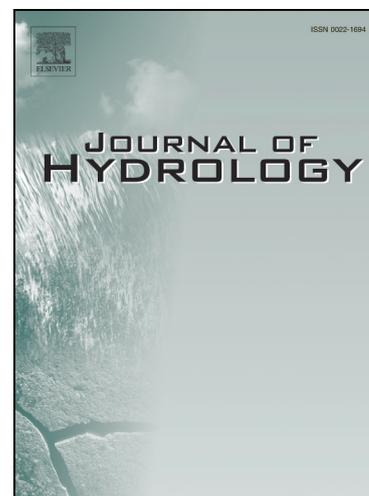
On Resuspension and Control of Reservoir Sediments by Surface Waves and Point Absorbers.

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1 On Resuspension and Control of Reservoir Sediments  
2 by Surface Waves and Point Absorbers.

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**Abstract**

Consideration is given to a novel approach for resuspension and control of sediment in reservoirs which nowadays and after more than six decades of research remains as the most serious technical problem faced by dam industry. Here, it is proposed the generation of mild surface waves in the reservoir which -because the physical nature of the waves, will spread throughout the reservoir. Then, by using a farm of point absorbers -or technology akin as used in ocean energy conversion, the energy transported by the waves can be transformed into a continuous injection of water flow in the riverbeds balancing the gravitational settling and then in the resuspension and control of sediment settlement. Utilizing a simplified physical model an estimation of the area of riverbed covered in comparison with the area of point absorber needed was derived as function of several parameters. Methods for wave generation were briefly discussed and Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFDs) simulations performed being in good agreement with the theoretical estimations. The proposed concept is presented as a promising alternative technique which can contribute to mitigate the serious global problem of land loss in the river deltas as well as increasing the storable capability and life of large dams.

*Keywords:* Riverbed, Resuspension, Dams, Loss of river deltas

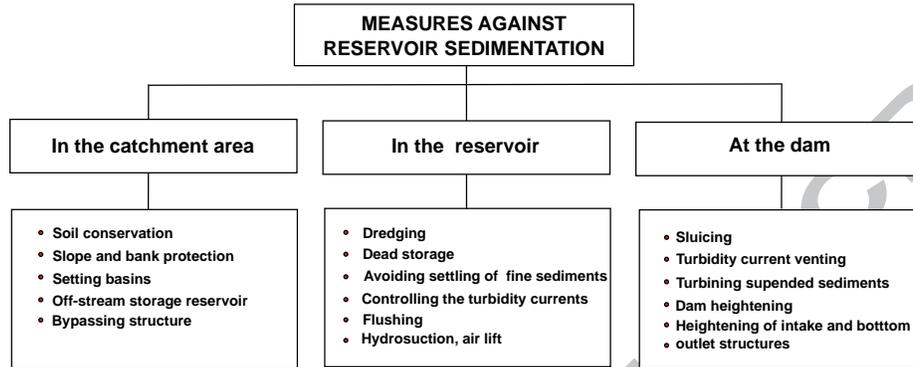
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## 6 1. Introduction

7 When a river is stilled behind a dam, the sediments it contains sink to the  
8 bottom of the reservoir. The amount of a rivers total sediment load captured  
9 by a dam -generally known as its "trap efficiency" -approaches 100 per cent for  
10 many projects, especially those with large reservoirs. As the sediments accu-  
11 mulate in the reservoir, there are two serious problems, namely: On one hand,  
12 the dam gradually loses its ability to store water and then imposing a serious  
13 threat to the sustainability of hydropower by affecting the safety of the dam, re-  
14 ducing its energy production, storage, discharge capacity and flood attenuation  
15 capabilities and thus being the life of a reservoir usually limited by sediment  
16 accumulation, and on the other hand dams completely change the relationship  
17 of water and land with the obstruction of the transport of sediments downward  
18 putting in danger the survival of the river deltas. After more than six decades of  
19 extensive research in several aspects, [1]-[7], including modern forecasting tech-  
20 niques, [8]-[13], there is limited guidance on how best to address the problem.  
21 Today management options available for dealing with sediment problems could  
22 be classified into 3 groups of measures for countering reservoir sedimentation  
23 as is illustrated in Table. I, [14]- [15]. Nevertheless all these measures, can  
24 be observed much more as strategies for managing reservoir sedimentation,[16]  
25 rather than technological approaches, and as such, they are of limited applica-  
26 tion with age specific dependency the specific geometry of the reservoir, climate,  
27 as well as its capacity, [17]. Nowadays, sedimentation is still probably the most  
28 serious technical threat faced by the dam industry, for example, a recent esti-  
29 mate indicates that the global reservoir storage capacity would be half-loss by  
30 2100, [18]. For those readers interested in the history and politics aspects of the  
31 dam problem, the book by McCully (2001), [21] is recommended, and an up to  
32 date review in sediment management can be found in Kondolf et.al, (2014), [17].

33  
34 However, without doubt, the larger concern on trapping of sediment by large  
35 dams is on the drastic environmental impact caused which have become so con-

Table 1: Measures for countering reservoir sedimentation, [15]



36 troversial. For the sake of illustration of the severity of the problem, let us  
 37 consider two cases for two different continents. The Ebro Delta -in Catalonia,  
 38 Spain, is a wetland of international importance, and is considered one of the  
 39 coastal systems most vulnerable to climate change in the European Union. The  
 40 Delta is currently undergoing a loss of wetlands and rice paddies because of  
 41 coastal regression, caused by diminishing fluvial sediments which are retained  
 42 in the reservoirs of the basin. The coast is retreating by more than 10 meters  
 43 per year in the mouth of the delta, where 150 hectares of wetland were lost  
 44 between 1957 and 2000. The problem is accentuated by the decline in the ele-  
 45 vation of the delta. About half of the delta (15000 ha) could be affected by this  
 46 phenomenon during 21 st century.

47 In China, in the Mekong River basin, largely undeveloped before 1990, 140 dams  
 48 are built, under construction, or planned, [19],[17], and a systematic analysis of  
 49 sediment trapping by the planned dams indicates that full completion of these  
 50 140 dams would result in a 96% reduction in sediment load to the Mekong Delta,  
 51 i.e., the Delta would receive only 4% of its natural sediment load.

52

53 The search for innovative engineering methods has led the department of

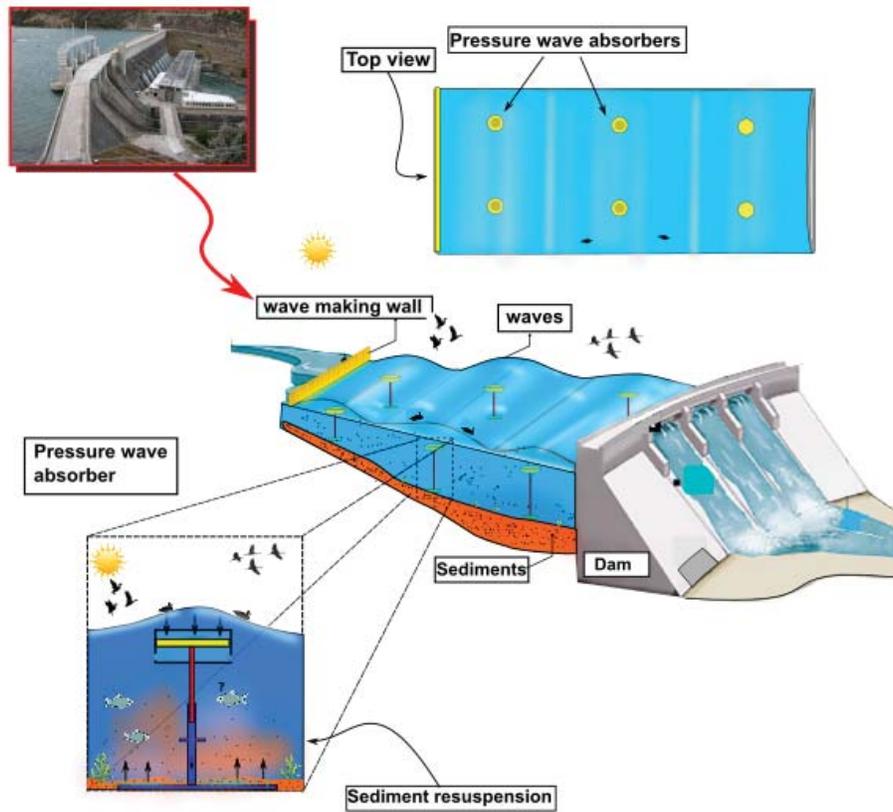


Figure 1: Wave generation and farm of point absorbers (PAs) in the reservoir for resuspension of sediments. The oscillatory energy of the wave at the surface of the reservoir is converted by the PAs into a continuous supply of water flow which is able to resuspend the riverbed sediments.

54 fluid mechanics at the University Polytechnic of Catalonia (UPC) within the  
55 framework of the European project LIFE-EBRO-ADMICLIM (*Adaptation and*  
56 *Mitigation Measures to Climate Change in the Ebro Delta*),[22] to develop a  
57 novel solution for the resuspension and control of reservoir sediments in dams.

58 The core idea is the generation of mild surface waves in the reservoir which  
59 -because the physical nature of the waves, will spread throughout the reservoir  
60 and then, by using a farm of point absorbers -or technology akin as used today  
61 in ocean energy conversion, the energy transported by the waves can be trans-  
62 formed into a continuous injection of water flow in the riverbeds balancing the  
63 gravitational settling and then in the resuspension and control of sediments.

## 64 2. Methods

65 Having defined our conceptual framework, we will proceed with a first the-  
66 oretical treatment of the proposed technique.

67 To begin with, let us consider Fig. 1 where it is shown the schematics of the  
68 core idea here discussed. In this Figure, a conventional reservoir where sedi-  
69 ments are accumulated in the riverbed, mild waves are deliberately created on  
70 the surface of the reservoir by a proper wave-generator. At this point, let us  
71 do not worry about the wave-generator, we will address this issue in the last  
72 part of the manuscript. For the moment, let us say that waves are continuously  
73 generated and spreading throughout the surface of the reservoir.

74 Now, as is depicted in the same figure, a farm of Point Absorbers (PAs) is  
75 placed. In brief, a PA is just a device which can be a floating structure that  
76 heave up and down on the surface of the water or submerged below the surface  
77 relying on pressure differential as is sketched in Fig. 2 where some part of the  
78 PA structure acts like a piston to pressure changes caused by the passage of the  
79 wave.

### 80 2.1. Theoretical calculations

81 Bearing in mind the above idea, we will proceed with some preliminary cal-  
82 culations to asses the feasibility for resuspension and control of sediments by

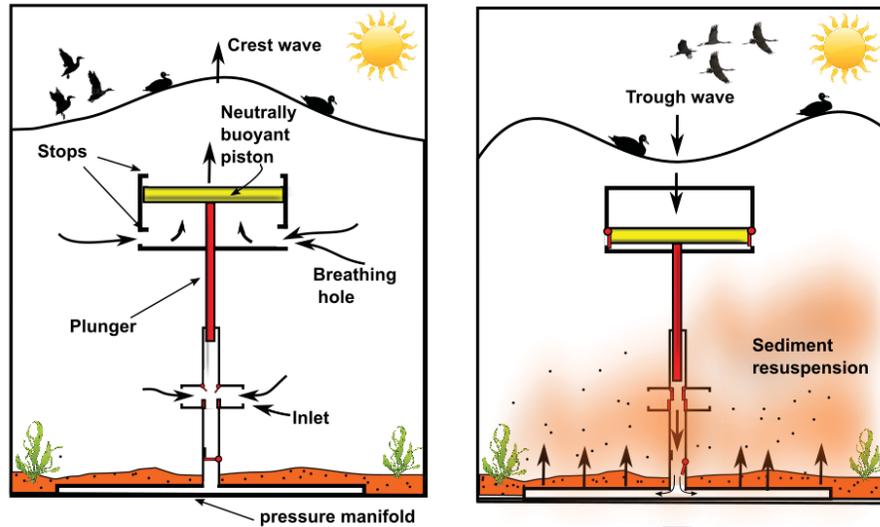


Figure 2: A kind of point absorber (PA).

83 hydrodynamic pumping of water by the PAs.

84 First of all, we need to assess the minimum upwards velocity of the water flow  
 85 pumped by the PAs,  $u_u$ , required to propel vertically the sediment from the  
 86 riverbed. The precise calculation of this velocity encompasses a certain complex-  
 87 ity owing to the number of parameters involved. Nevertheless, some lower limit  
 88 for this velocity can be inferred theoretically as follows.

89  
 90 First, the riverbed sediment may be assimilated as a packed bed, [25], and  
 91 then before being lifted by the water flow pumped by the PAs it must be  
 92 *fluidized* or in other words converted from a granular material from a static solid-  
 93 like state to a dynamic fluid-like state. This process occurs when a fluid (liquid  
 94 or gas) is passed up through the granular material which is the case that concern  
 95 us, where the water flow is introduced through the bottom of the riverbed via the  
 96 empty spaces between the particles. At low water velocities, aerodynamic drag  
 97 on each particle is also low, and thus the sediment bed remains in a fixed state.  
 98 Increasing the velocity, the aerodynamic drag forces will begin to counteract  
 99 the gravitational forces, causing the bed to expand in volume as the particles  
 100 of sediment move away from each other. Further increasing the velocity, it

101 will reach a critical value at which the upward drag forces will exactly equal  
 102 the downward gravitational forces, causing the particles of sediment to become  
 103 suspended within the fluid. This process is which we call as *fluidization*.

104 Then, a lower limit for the required velocity to resuspend the sediment is  
 105 the minimum *fluidizing velocity*  $u_{mf}$ . This velocity is given by, [26]

$$u_{mf} = \left[ \frac{d_p(\rho_s - \rho)g\varepsilon_{mf}^3\phi_s}{1.75\rho} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (1)$$

106 where  $d_p$  and  $\phi_s$  are the diameter and sphericity of particle ( $\phi = 1$  for spheres  
 107 and  $0 < \phi < 1$  for all other particle shapes), respectively.,  $\rho_s$  and  $\varepsilon_{mf}$  the den-  
 108 sity and fractional voidage (void fraction) of the packed bed, respectively.,  $g$  is  
 109 gravity., and  $\rho$  the density of water.

110

111 However, even if the velocity of the water flow is enough to propel vertically  
 112 and resuspend the sediment, doesn't implies that there will be not an accu-  
 113 mulation of sediment because the gravitational continuous settling down of the  
 114 sediment acting in the opposite direction. In order to prevent accumulation of  
 115 sediment in the river bed, it is necessary that the upward mass flow of sediment  
 116 (driven by the flow of water pumped by the PAs) be at least equal or higher  
 117 than the downward mass flow of sediment falling by gravity, which according  
 118 with Fig. 3 may be expressed as

$$n_u \bar{u}_u A_d = n_d u_d A_d \quad (2)$$

119 where  $n_u$  and  $n_d$  are the number of particles per unit of volume crossing the  
 120 packed bed up and down, respectively.,  $A_d$  the cross section area of the riverbed  
 121 parcel,  $u_d$  the downward velocity of the sediment, which is the gravitational  
 122 terminal velocity  $u_t$  of the particles; and  $\bar{u}_u$  is the upward *time-averaged veloc-*  
 123 *ity* induced by the surface wave motion. Because it is desired a homogeneous  
 124 distribution of the sediments and then avoiding *uncovered riverbed spots*, then  
 125  $n_u \approx n_d$ , otherwise, if  $n_u \neq n_d$  and even accomplishing the mass balance from

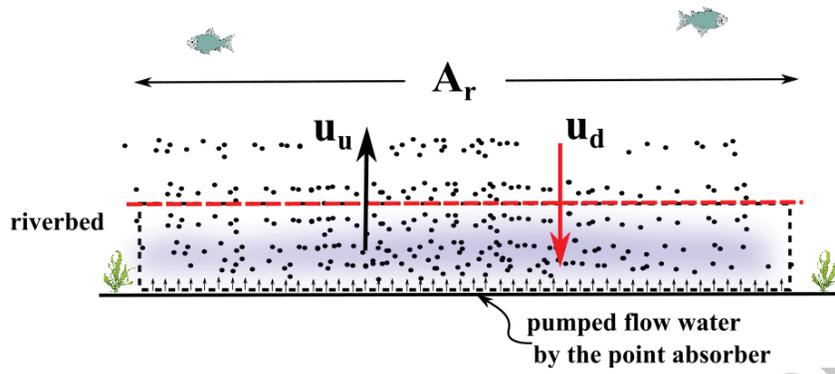


Figure 3: Sediment riverbed model.

126 Eq.(2) there will be a pilling up of sediments (spots empty of sediments and  
 127 mounds of sediments). Therefore Eq.(2) simplifies as

$$\bar{u}_u \approx u_t \quad (3)$$

128 The terminal velocity of the particle of sediment can be estimated by the  
 129 well-known expression,

$$u_t = \left[ \frac{4d_p(\rho_s - \rho)g\phi_s}{3\rho C_D} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (4)$$

130 where  $C_D$  is the drag coefficient.

131 Therefore, the minimum velocity of the water flow pumped by the PAs should  
 132 be the higher velocity between that given by Eq.(1) and that given by Eq.(4).

133 By dividing both equations one obtains

$$\frac{u_t}{u_{mf}} = \left[ \frac{7}{3C_D \varepsilon_{mf}^3} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (5)$$

134 The draw coefficient, has been determined experimentally and gives,

$$C_D = \frac{24}{Re_p} \left[ 1 + (8.171e^{-4.0655\phi_s}) Re_p^{0.0964+0.5565\phi_s} \right] + \frac{73.69(e^{-5.0748\phi_s} Re_p)}{Re_p + 5.37e^{6.21222\phi_s}} \quad (6)$$

135 where  $Re_p$  is the particle Reynolds number,  $Re_p = \frac{d_p u_t \rho}{\mu}$ , and  $\mu$  the dynamic  
136 viscosity.

137 For low Reynolds numbers  $1.0 < Re_p < 100$  as is expected in the settling down  
138 of particles in a stilled reservoir at the riverbed, thus Eq.(6) simplifies to

$$C_D \approx \frac{24}{Re_p} \quad (7)$$

139 with  $1 < C_D < 100$ . Therefore, considering Eq.(5), it is easy to see, that  
140 even considering a very improbable hypothetical compact regular packing bed  
141 with a theoretical packing factor of  $\varepsilon_{mf} = 0.7405$  we have  $u_t > u_{mf}$  and then,  
142 for sediment resuspension and control is the terminal velocity which must be  
143 considered as the minimum limit of velocity in which water flow must be pumped  
144 by the PAs.

145 Finally, it is interesting to note that for the case when gravitational settling  
146 want to be avoided and then preventing the growth of an already existent bed of  
147 sediments, then the drag force from the jet flow of water must exactly balance  
148 the downwards buoyancy force acting on the particle i.e.,

$$\frac{\pi d_p^2 \phi_s^2 C_D \rho u_u^2}{8} = \frac{\pi d_p^3 \phi_s^3 g (\rho_p - \rho)}{6} \quad (8)$$

149 and then

$$u_u = \left[ \frac{4d_p(\rho_s - \rho)g\phi_s}{3\rho C_D} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (9)$$

150 which is the same terminal velocity as calculated in Eq.(4). Therefore, it  
151 seems that either for resuspension and control of a bed of sediments or for  
152 preventing the growth of an already existent bed of sediments, the terminal  
153 velocity of the particle is the determinant velocity.

## 154 2.2. The resuspension efficiency of the PAs

155 Once we have a first estimate of the required velocity to avoid sedimentation  
156 in the riverbed, we need to estimate the efficiency or the *profitability* of the PAs.  
157 Although there are a number of ways in which profitability may be defined,

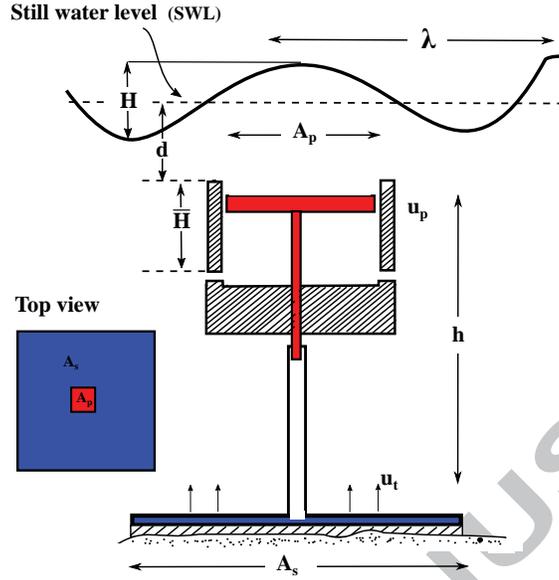


Figure 4: Schematics for the calculation of the profitability of the point absorber.

158 however a simple way is perhaps, by defining a profitability factor  $\Gamma$  of the PAs  
 159 as the ratio between the effective area of the riverbed  $A_s$  -which is lifted by  
 160 the flow water pumped by a PA, and the area of PAs  $A_p$ . With this definition  
 161 we will have some idea of the number of PAs required per area of reservoir.  
 162 Consequently we have

$$\Gamma = \frac{A_s}{A_p} \quad (10)$$

163 where  $A_s$  and  $A_p$  are the area of the riverbed and the PA, respectively., as  
 164 depicted in Fig. 4.

165 This ratio can be found by considering a mass balance as

$$A_p \bar{u}_w = A_s u_t \quad (11)$$

166 where  $\bar{u}_w$  is the vertical *time-averaged velocity* induced by the surface wave  
 167 motion of the water column of the PAs. On the other hand, the motion of the  
 168 PAs is directly related with the wave motion as, [28]

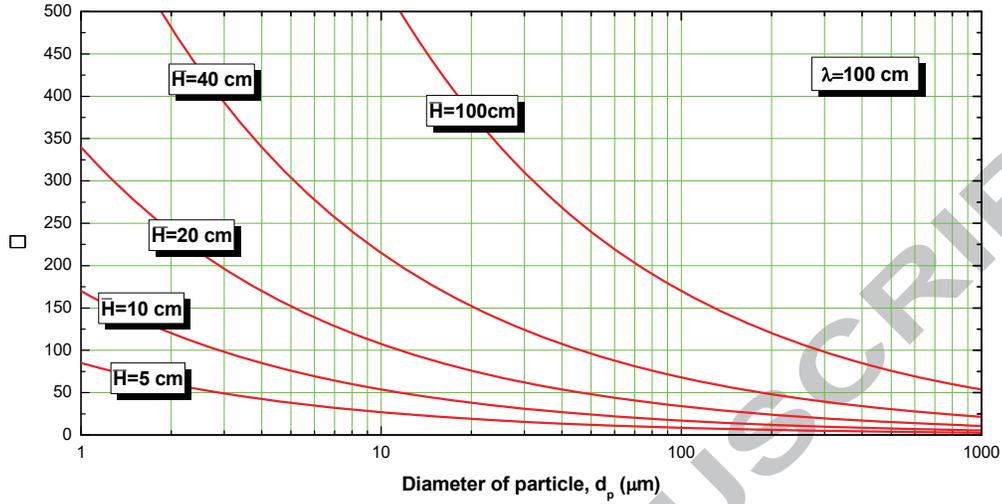


Figure 5: The profitable ratio  $\Gamma$  as function of the diameter of particle sediment and several possible values of the wave amplitude for a wavelength  $\lambda = 100$  cm.

$$u_w = \frac{\omega \bar{H}}{2} \sin \omega t \quad (12)$$

169 where  $\omega$  is the water wave frequency and  $\bar{H}$  is the average vertical displace-  
 170 ment. This displacement is normally greater than the double amplitude of the  
 171 wave, [28], so for preliminary calculations, let us consider that is exactly the  
 172 same. From Eq.(12), the average velocity  $\bar{u}_w$  yields

$$\bar{u}_w = \frac{\omega \bar{H}}{2\pi} \quad (13)$$

173 Thus, taking into account Eq.(4) and Eq.(12) into Eq.(11), and considering  
 174 that  $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  being  $T$  the wave period, the profitability becomes

$$\Gamma = \frac{\bar{H}}{T} \left[ \frac{3\rho C_D}{4d_p(\rho_s - \rho)g\phi_s} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (14)$$

175 for large dams the water depth of the reservoir,  $h$ , is much larger than the  
 176 expected wavelength of the wave  $\lambda$  and then the approximation of *deep water*  
 177 when  $\frac{h}{\lambda} \geq \frac{1}{2}$  can be used, [28]. In this approximation, the wave period may be

178 expressed as function of the wavelength as

$$\lambda = \frac{gT^2}{2\pi} \quad (15)$$

179 and then, Eq.(14) may be rewritten as

$$\Gamma = \bar{H} \left[ \frac{3\rho C_D}{8\pi d_p (\rho_s - \rho) \phi_s \lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (16)$$

180 **• Discussion**

181

182 To obtain some idea of the shape of the curves predicted by Eq.(16), we  
 183 assume some typical values of the parameters:  $\rho = 10^3 \text{ kg}/(\text{m}^3)$ ;  $C_D = 50$ ;  
 184  $\rho_s = 3 \times 10^3 \text{ kg}/(\text{m}^3)$ ;  $g = 9.8 \text{ m}/(\text{s}^2)$  and assuming a sphericity of the particles  
 185 of  $\phi = 1$ . The resulting curves are shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 for  $\lambda = 100 \text{ cm}$  and  
 186  $\lambda = 200 \text{ cm}$ , respectively. From these figures, it is seen that technique has merit  
 187 to be considered. For example, for a stilled river, with sediment particles around  
 188  $10 \mu\text{m}$ , and considering a modest wave with an amplitude around  $H = 10 \text{ cm}$ ,  
 189 the area of riverbed covered by the PA could be around 50 times its own area, or  
 190 conversely, a reservoir could be controlled by the use of PAs covering a 1/50th  
 191 area of the reservoir. For larger amplitudes as  $\bar{H} = 20 \text{ cm}$ , the profitability is  
 192 around 75 times, or thereabouts.

193 *2.3. Shallow waters*

194 If the water depth is not large enough, for example under very shallow wa-  
 195 ters -e.g., at reservoir upstream areas, the use of PAs is difficult. Nevertheless  
 196 for these cases PAs actually are not necessary and the situation is much more  
 197 simple. In fact, the use of PAs in the preceding sections for *deep waters* was  
 198 necessary because the profile velocity at the bottom of the reservoir induced by  
 199 the surface wave motion is negligible and then it was necessary a PAs or akin  
 200 technology to *transmit* the motion from the surface to the bottom of the reser-  
 201 voir. However, for *shallow waters* the velocity at the bottom of the reservoir  
 202 induced by the wave at the surface can be large enough and then PAs are not

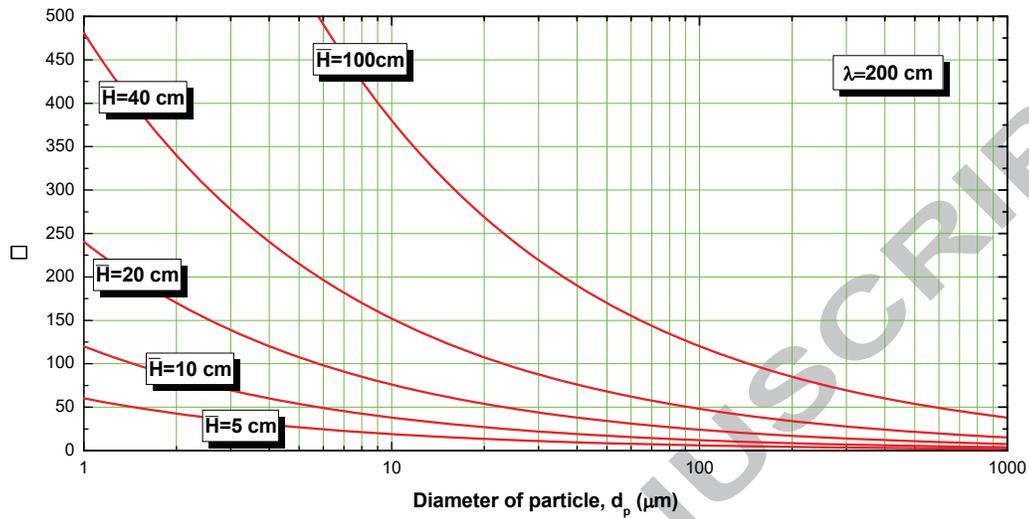


Figure 6: The profitable ratio  $\Gamma$  as function of the diameter of particle sediment and several possible values of the wave amplitude for a wavelength  $\lambda = 200$  cm.

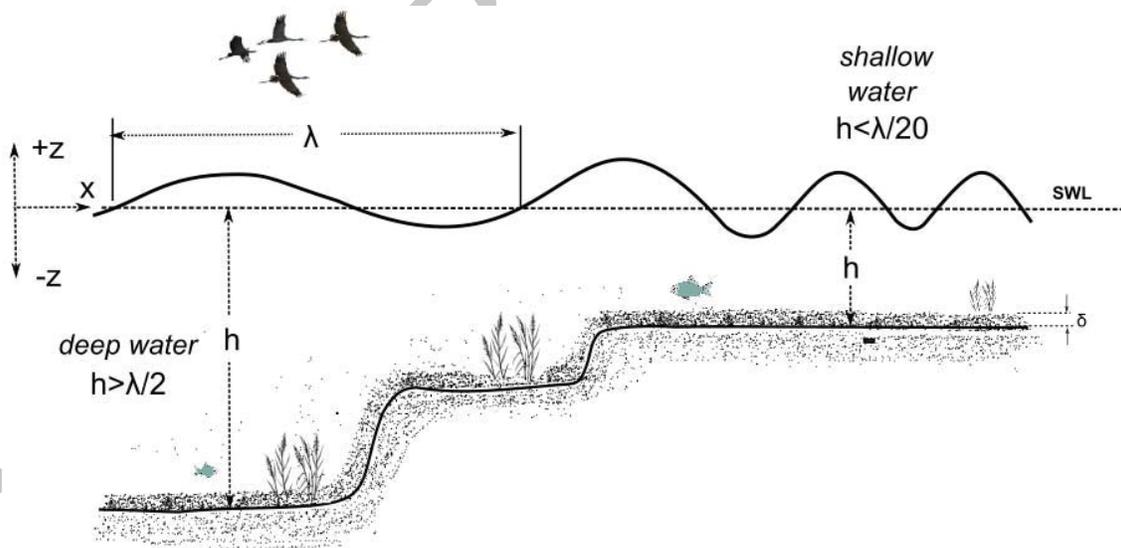


Figure 7: Wave profile for the condition of deep water,  $h \geq \frac{\lambda}{2}$ , and shallow water  $h \leq \frac{\lambda}{20}$ .

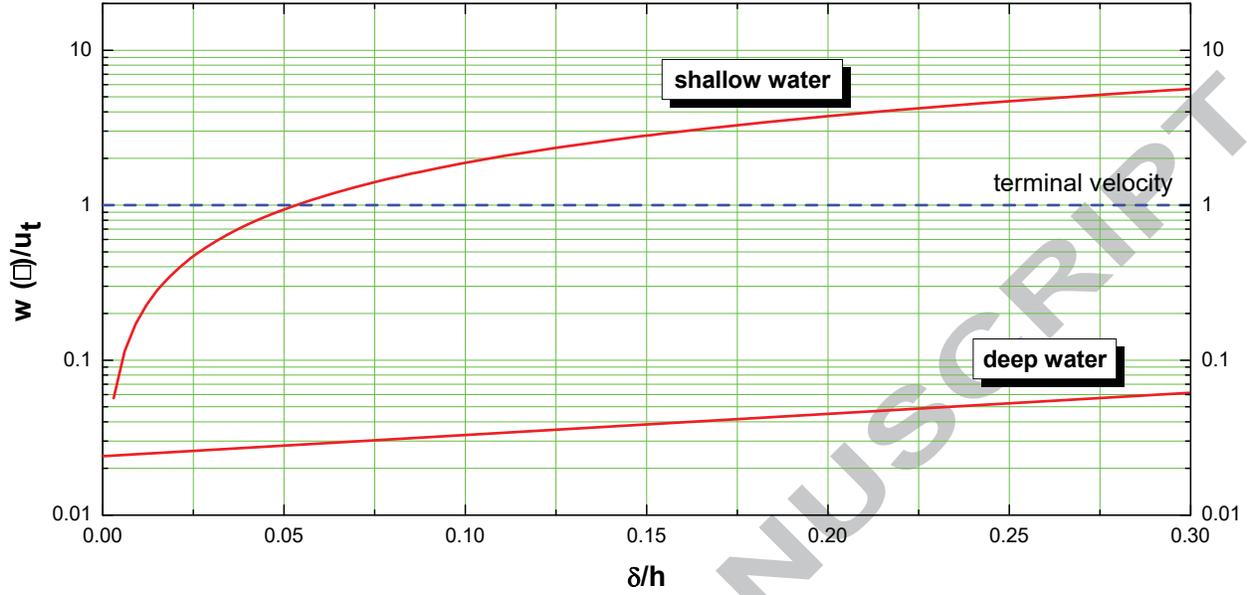


Figure 8: The ratio of the velocity at the bed and the terminal velocity  $\frac{w(\delta)}{u_t}$  for *deep water* and *shallow water* as function of the thickness of the bed  $\frac{\delta}{h}$  for a passing wave at the surface with  $\lambda = 2$  m and  $H = 0.2$  m.

203 longer necessary.

204

205 To see this, let us compare the vertical velocity component of a wave at a  
 206 given position using the *deep water* ( $\frac{h}{\lambda} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ ) and the *shallow water* ( $\frac{h}{\lambda} < \frac{1}{20}$ )  
 207 approximation,[28], which are given by

$$w = \pi H \left[ \frac{g}{2\pi\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{2\pi z}{\lambda}} \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{deep water}$$

$$w = \pi H \left[ \frac{g}{\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{h}{\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{(z+h)}{h} \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{shallow water} \quad (17)$$

208 where  $h$  is, as before, the water depth;  $z$  is the upwards vertical coordinate  
 209 (negative in the downward direction as shown in Fig. 7). Thus the velocity at  
 210 the bed with a thickness  $\delta$  transmitted by the passing of waves at the surface  
 211 of the reservoir is given by taking  $z = -h + \sigma$  (see Fig. 7) yielding

$$w(\delta) = \pi H \left[ \frac{g}{2\pi\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{2\pi h}{\lambda}} e^{\frac{2\pi\delta}{\lambda}} \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{deep water}$$

$$w(\delta) = \pi H \left[ \frac{g}{\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{h}{\lambda} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{\delta}{h} \right] \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{shallow water} \quad (18)$$

212 Fig. 8 shows the ratio of velocity at the bed and the terminal velocity  $\frac{w(\delta)}{u_t}$   
 213 for *deep water* and *shallow water* calculated from Eq.(18) for a wave with  $\lambda = 2$   
 214 m and  $H = 0.2$  m as function of the thickness of the bed. It is seen that whereas  
 215 the use of PAs for *deep water* is required, nevertheless for *shallow waters* are  
 216 not necessary.

217 With regard the wave generation in *shallow waters*, it could be used the same  
 218 *wave generators* than for *deep waters* taking advantage of the gain in amplitude  
 219  $H$  and wavelength when a wave is passing from a *deep water* to a *shallow water*  
 220 as is depicted in Fig. 7. The dimensionless wave properties as functions of the  
 221 depth to deep water wavelength ratio as predicted by linear theory is given in  
 222 Fig. 9, [28], and in Fig. 10 is plotted the same as Fig. 8 but taking into account  
 223 the variation of wavelength and amplitude from a *deep water* to a *shallow water*.

224 Therefore, waves could be generated in deliberated ditches where once gener-  
 225 erated will propagate though the shallow waters much more as depicted in Fig. 7

#### 227 2.4. Wave generation

228 In previous section it was assumed that at the surface of the reservoir waves  
 229 were constantly generated and neglecting how these were actually generated. It  
 230 was shown, however, that with small wave amplitudes it is possible resuspen-  
 231 sion and control of the sedimentation in the riverbed using a reasonable discreet  
 232 number of PAs (see Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). In this section we will discuss how these  
 233 waves can be generated.

234  
 235 The problem of generation of waves actually had been resolved long ago.  
 236 Effectively, the methods for wave generation are identical than those used in  
 237 ocean wave energy conversion industry with the only difference in the applica-  
 238 tion. In fact, in ocean wave conversion it is desired to convert a given ocean  
 239 wave into an electrical output by the use of the converter,[28], and here, we

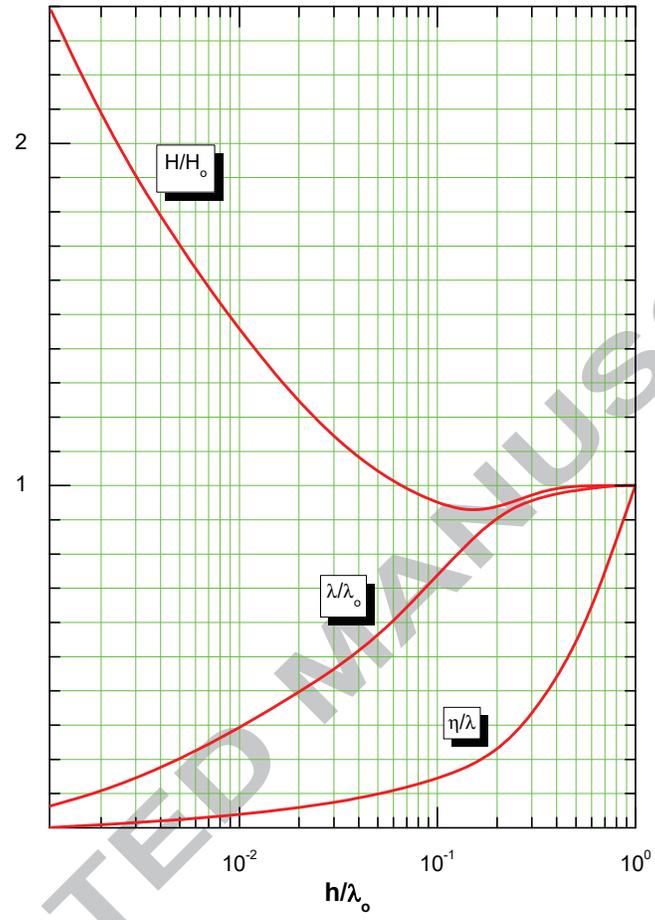


Figure 9: Properties as functions of the depth to deep water wavelength ratio as predicted by linear theory, [28]

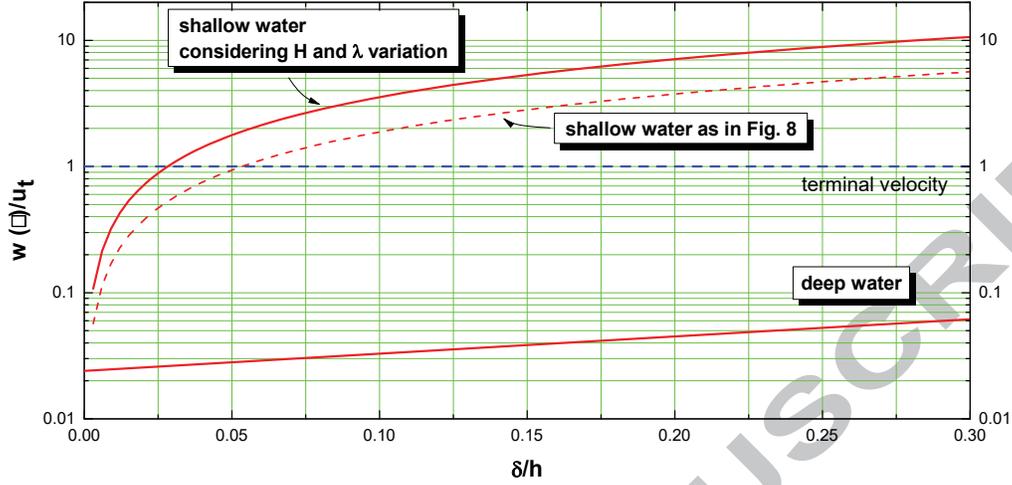


Figure 10: The ratio of the velocity at the bed and the terminal velocity  $\frac{w(\delta)}{u_t}$  for *deep water* and *shallow water* as function of the thickness of the bed  $\frac{\delta}{h}$  for a passing wave at the surface with  $\lambda = 2$  m and  $H = 0.2$  m, and considering the change in  $H$  and  $\lambda$  between a deep and shallow water.

240 want the opposite, i.e., converting an electrical input into a wave. Therefore,  
 241 the technology for large wave generation already exist, ocean wave converters  
 242 are actually wave generators if operating in the opposite direction.

243  
 244 By aforementioned, it is instructive to know the *wave power* associated with  
 245 a given wave as function of its parameters. knowing the *wave power* transported  
 246 by a wave is equivalent to know the power needed to generate the wave. The  
 247 *wave power*  $P$  per crest length  $b$  of the wave in the approximation of *deep water*,  
 248 i.e., when  $\frac{h}{\lambda} \geq \frac{1}{2}$  is given by, [28]

$$\frac{P}{b} = \frac{\rho g^2 H^2 T}{32\pi} \quad (19)$$

249 Therefore if we want to generate a wave with, say, an amplitude around 0.2  
 250 meters, and with periodicity of 3 seconds, the power per crest length will be  
 251 above  $\frac{P}{b} = 0.25$  kW/m, and then for a 100 meters reservoir length, and assum-  
 252 ing a 100% efficiency in the conversion, this translates into a 25 kW, which for

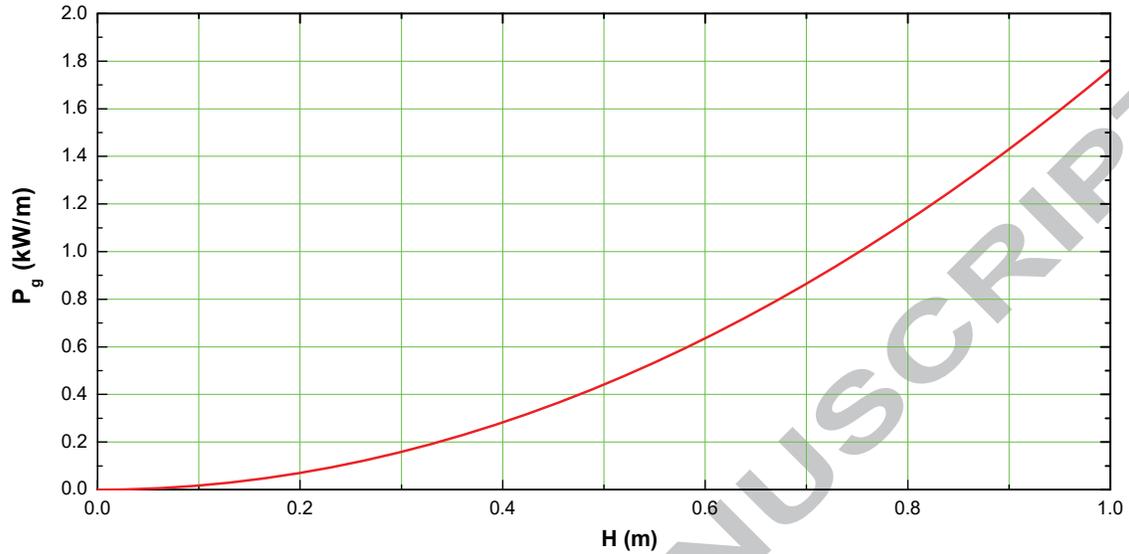


Figure 11: Plot of the wave power as function of its height.

253 50 generators like this distributed along the reservoir will translate in a total  
 254 power above  $\approx 0.13$  MW. This figure, will vary more or less depending of the  
 255 specific *wave generator* and the specific efficiency in the conversion, but even  
 256 assuming a rather poor efficiency around 30%, the figure is a very modest one  
 257 for a rather common dam of say 300 MW. In Fig. 11 is illustrated as example  
 258 the *wave power* per crest length of the wave as function of the amplitude of the  
 259 generated wave  $H$  and for a period of 3 seconds.

260

261 Although the core of the idea discussed in this paper is the deliberate gen-  
 262 eration of waves spreading throughout the surface of the reservoir and their  
 263 conversion into a water flow in the riverbed for the resuspension and control of  
 264 sediments and with such a goal many technological approaches for generation  
 265 and conversion of waves are suitable to be used, and therefore, in illustrating  
 266 a specific given technology one runs the risk of being misinterpreted that this  
 267 specific technology is required (for example a particular kind of PAs for the  
 268 conversion of waves or a specific *wave-generator*), nonetheless, for a preliminary  
 269 theoretical treatment the choice of a given illustrative technology -which almost

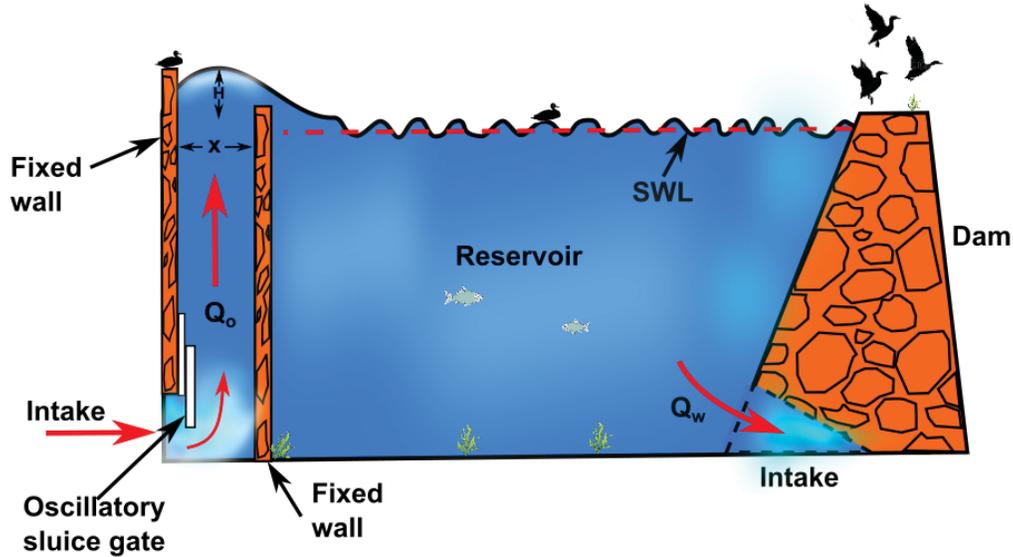


Figure 12: A wave generator by using oscillatory sluice-gate.

270 always should be the most simple, is mandatory. However the given illustrative  
 271 choice should not be misconstrued as an attempt to give the definitive and most  
 272 optimum system, rather it must be observed as a help which will provide im-  
 273 portant guidance in future efforts to analyze the problem and optimized design.

274

275 Having said this, a large number of wave generators imported from the ocean  
 276 wave energy conversion industry could be potentially used for our purpose, [30],  
 277 most of these *wave-converters* have an efficiency  $\eta$  in the conversion of *wave-*  
 278 *to-electricity* or *electricity-to-wave* as high as  $\eta \approx 75\%$ , [28], and then the choice  
 279 of one or other technology will be motivated mostly by the cost, management  
 280 required, lifetime, etc... However, let us briefly mention some of them which are  
 281 conspicuous by their simplicity.

#### 282 2.4.1. Using oscillatory sluice gates

283 To begin with, let us consider the scheme depicted in Fig. 12. In this,  
 284 between the dam and the intake of the reservoir two walls are placed. The

285 first wall with a certain cavity on the bottom in which a sluice-gate open and  
 286 close periodically. At a certain distance  $x$  from the first wall there is a second  
 287 fixed wall, this wall has a height which is a little higher than the still water  
 288 level (SWL). The function of the two walls is easy to infer. Because of the  
 289 cavity between both walls, the water flow is accelerated and then it can attain  
 290 a certain height which will depend on the width  $x$  of the cavity. With this idea  
 291 some estimate can be performed.

292 First, if the time during which the oscillatory sluice-gate is open is equal to  
 293 the time in which is closed. Then, on average, during an interval of time  $t$  the  
 294 volume flow when the slice-gate is open  $Q_c$  must be equal to the continuous  
 295 volume flow in the dam  $Q_d$  (which is used for the hydroelectric generation)

$$\frac{\Delta t}{2} Q_c = \Delta t Q_d \quad (20)$$

296 and then

$$Q_c = 2Q_d \quad (21)$$

297 On the other hand, the velocity inside the cavity, is given by

$$u_c = \frac{Q_c}{A_c} \quad (22)$$

298 where  $A_c$  is the cross section area of the cavity which considering a width  $x_c$   
 299 and a longitudinal length  $L_r$  ( equal to the longitude of the reservoir), is given  
 300 by

$$A_c = x_c \cdot L_r \quad (23)$$

301 Therefore, taking into account Eq.(21) and Eq.(23) into Eq.(22), the velocity  
 302 of the water in the cavity yields

$$u_c = \frac{2Q_d}{L_r x_c} \quad (24)$$

303 On the other hand the volumetric flow of water of the dam  $Q_d$  may be  
 304 expressed as function of the power of the dam  $W_d$  and the height (foundation)  
 305 of the dam  $H_d$  as

$$Q_d = \frac{W_d}{\rho g H_d} \quad (25)$$

306 which inserted into Eq.(24) yields

$$u_c = \frac{2W_d}{\rho g H_d L_r x_c} \quad (26)$$

307 A first estimate of the maximum height attained by the oscillatory water  
 308 flow  $H$  in the cavity -as depicted in Fig. 12, may be inferred by equating the  
 309 kinetic energy of the stream with the gravitational potential

$$H \approx \frac{u_c^2}{2g} \quad (27)$$

310 Inserted Eq.(26) into Eq.(27), yields

$$H \approx \left[ \frac{4W_d}{\rho g^{\frac{3}{2}} H_d L_r x_c} \right]^2 \quad (28)$$

### 311 • Discussion

312

313 To obtain some idea of the height of the waves generated by the cavity pre-  
 314 dicted by Eq.(28), we assume some typical values for a real medium-large dam  
 315 as the Ribarroja Dam located in the province of Tarragona, Spain:  $W_d = 262.8$   
 316 MW;  $\rho = 1000 \text{ kg}/(\text{m}^3)$ ;  $H_d = 60 \text{ m}$ ;  $L_r = 362.4 \text{ m}$ . The resulting curve is  
 317 shown in Fig. 13 as function of the length of the cavity  $x_c$ . It is seen that  
 318 height waves up to 2 meters or thereabouts can be obtained by this method. By  
 319 comparing with the mild height waves needed for resuspension and control of  
 320 sediments (see Fig. 5 and Fig. 6) it seems that even considering a large margin  
 321 of error in the calculations, the technique has certain merit.

322

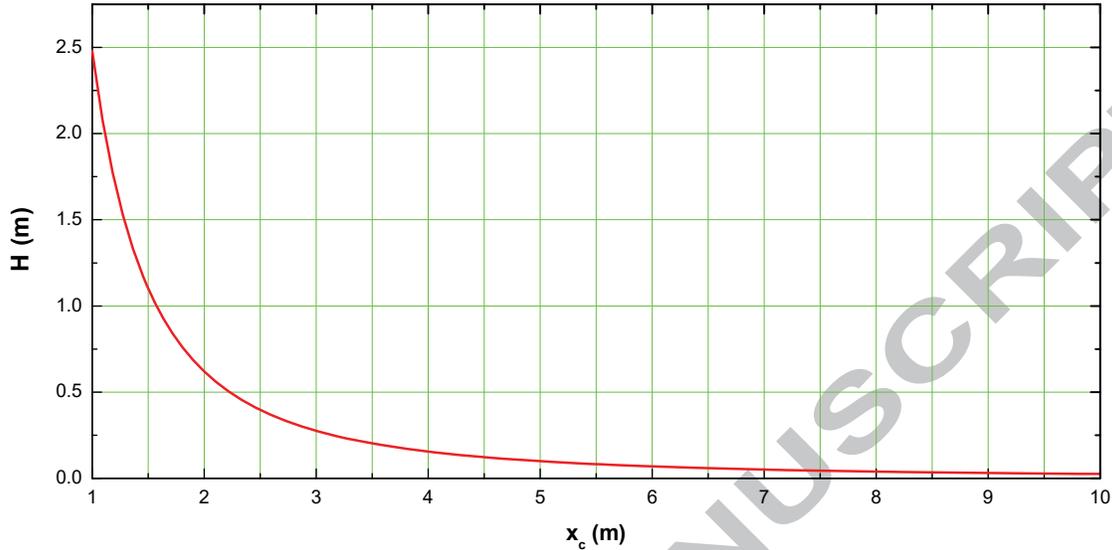


Figure 13: Plot of the wave height obtained at the cavity as function of its width according with Eq.(28).

#### 323 2.4.2. Using water wheels, nodding-ducks or technology akin

324 Another option for generation of waves on the surface of the reservoir is by  
 325 the use of mechanical devices which by means of an electrical input of energy  
 326 can generate the waves. Just for the sake of illustration we have water wheels  
 327 and nodding-ducks as is pictorially depicted in Fig. 14 and Fig 15, respectively,  
 328 which are specially conspicuous by their simplicity. The power needed to gener-  
 329 ate the wave for these devices are given by Eq.(19) and multiplied by the specific  
 330 efficiency  $\eta$  in the conversion, which for a water wheels and a nodding-duck are  
 331 around 60% and 70%, respectively, [28]

332 Finally, is worthy of mention the possibility to develop resonances. In ocean  
 333 wave energy conversion, designers try to design the PAs with a natural heaving  
 334 frequency to *resonate* with the ocean wave, [28], in order to obtain a high mag-  
 335 nification of the amplitude of oscillation of the PA. Nevertheless because ocean  
 336 waves are not *monochromatic* in frequency the best they can do is to design a  
 337 PA with a frequency equal than the highest energy ocean wave.

338

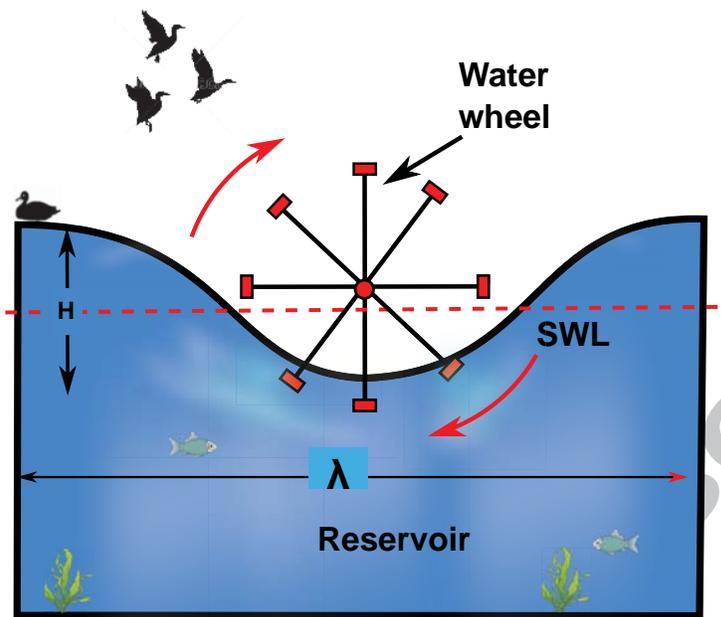


Figure 14: A reservoir wave generator by using water wheels.

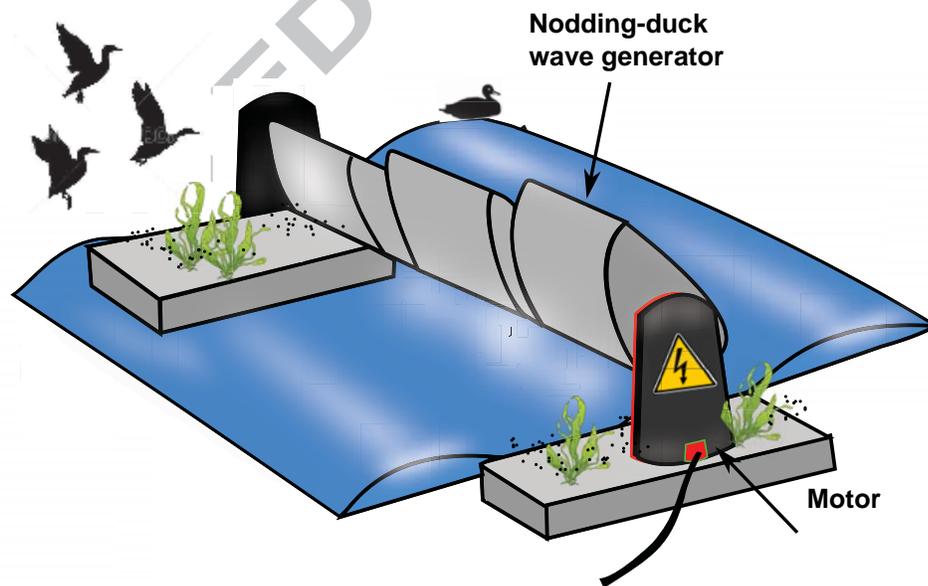


Figure 15: A reservoir wave generator by using nodding-ducks.

339 For our case, with a stilled reservoir, the waves generated will be highly  
340 monochromatic and then with a specific frequency controlled by the operator.  
341 This makes that generated wave can be regulated by operators in such a way  
342 that the farms of PAs resonate with a substantial magnification of the amplitude  
343 of oscillation which can be as high as a factor 5 depending of the damping of the  
344 system,[28]. It is easy to see from Fig 5 and Fig. 6, that with this amplification  
345 of the amplitude a substantial increase in the probability of the PAs is obtained  
346 and without any additional expenditure of power.

### 347 2.5. Computational simulation

348 With the goal to get additional confidence on the discussed technique Com-  
349 putational Fluid Dynamic (CFD) calculations were performed. Although there  
350 an overwhelming amount of CFD related software packages (The website CFD-  
351 Online(<https://www.cfd-online.com/Wiki/Codes>) lists over 200 CFD ), sub-  
352 stantial differences between packages are most related with how meshing is done  
353 and what sorts of boundary conditions are provided while solving. Nevertheless  
354 because of its superior performance and functionalities for many years, the gold  
355 standards in CFD simulation have been Fluent by ANSYS. Therefore, ANSYS  
356 Fluent 18.2 CFD software which includes well validated capabilities to deliver  
357 accurate results for the widest range of simulations was used in the simulations.

358 To describe gas-solid flow in fluidized beds, many numerical models have  
359 been developed in the last years, such as Lattice-Boltzmann (LBM), Discrete  
360 Particle Model (DPM) and the Two Fluid Model (TFM), [35]; but in view of the  
361 uncertainty in several parameters, the simplest DPM model for the simulation  
362 of fluidized bed in which particles are grouped into parcels, whose the position is  
363 tracking like a single representative particle translating into a fast computations  
364 and reduced requirements of computer resources, seems preferable. Therefore,  
365 the discrete phase model (DPM) using the PISO (*Pressure-Implicit with Split-*  
366 *ting of Operators*) scheme for the pressure-velocity coupling and laminar viscous  
367 model was used in the simulations.

368

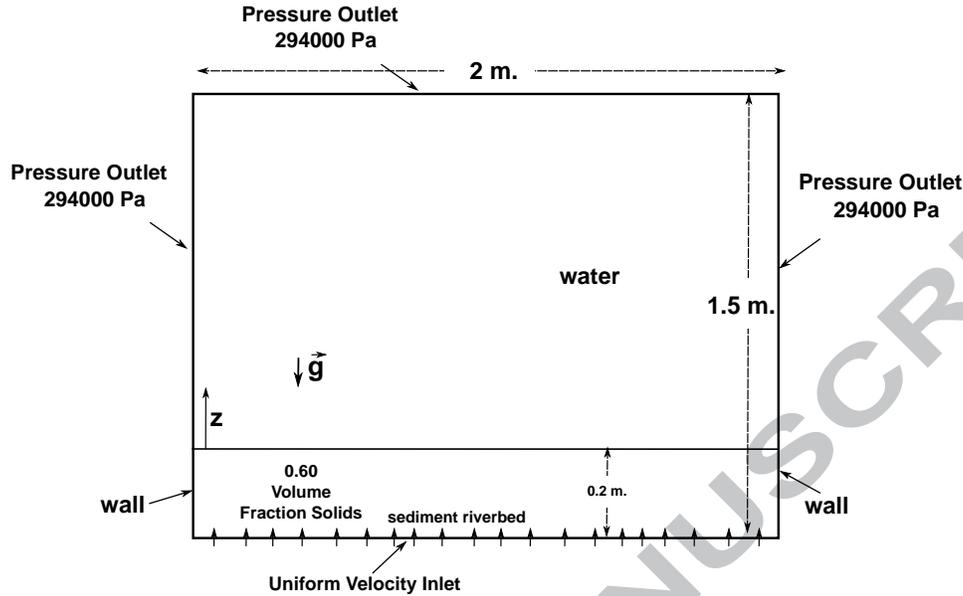


Figure 16: Problem schematics for the CFD simulation.

369 In order to ensure the independency of the calculations with the grid and  
 370 time-step, the convergency criteria was taken to be residual RMS error values  
 371 of  $10^{-4}$ , and the overall imbalance in the domain was less than 1% for all vari-  
 372 ables, then convergence of the solution was checked at each time step by using  
 373 the scaled residuals, defined in Fluent after. The mesh resolution independence  
 374 was checked running an initial mesh and ensuring the convergency criteria of  
 375 RMS of  $10^{-4}$  and an imbalance in the domain was less than 1%, then, a second  
 376 simulation was performed using a second mesh with finer cells throughout the  
 377 domain, then the simulation was run until the convergency criteria and imbal-  
 378 ance in the domain were satisfied. The criteria for selection of the mesh was  
 379 that the contours of volume fraction for two consecutive stimulations were less  
 380 than a 1%, then the mesh at the previous step was considered accurate enough  
 381 to capture the result. On the other hand, time step independence was achieved  
 382 using time-steps of 0.5 s.

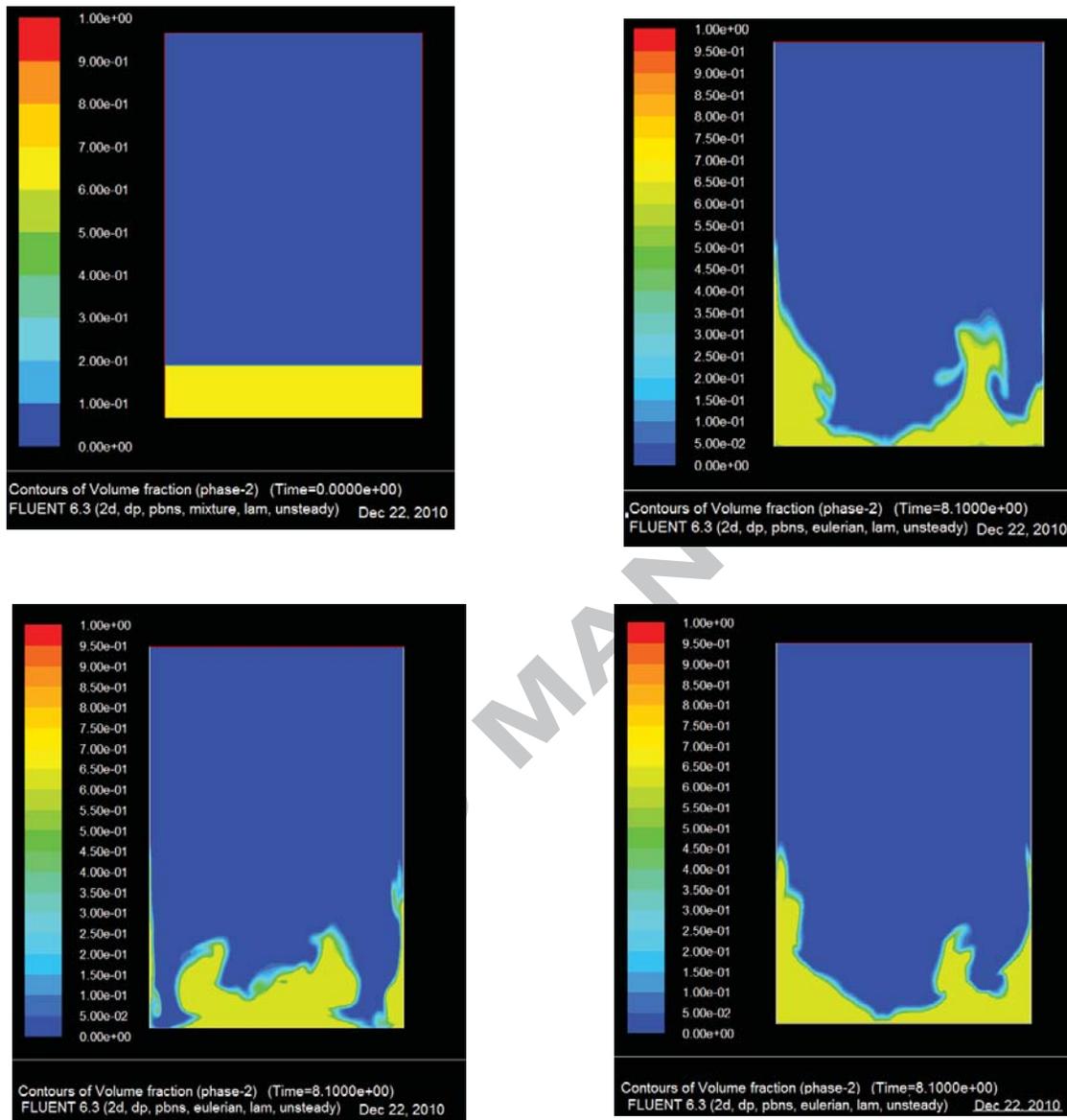


Figure 17: Top left: the initial still condition of the bed before the injection of water starts. Top right: after 8.1 seconds and  $\Gamma = 50$ . Bottom left: after 8.1 seconds and  $\Gamma = 100$ . Bottom right: after 8.1 seconds and  $\Gamma = 200$ .

### 383 2.5.1. *problem description*

384 The problem to be considered is shown schematically in Figure. 16. A rect-  
385 angular box is of side 0.5 meters and width 2 meters. Gravity acts downwards.  
386 At the bottom side, the computation mesh consists of 24,600 cells. In the bottom  
387 of the box a region of 0.2 meters of granular material was placed simulating the  
388 river bed with a volume fraction of 0.60. The left, right and top side was fixed as  
389 a boundary outlet pressure with 294000 Pa corresponding to a reservoir depth  
390 30 m. The bottom side was fixed as an inlet velocity where water was injected.  
391 The velocity of the water injected was calculated considering a wave of 30 cm  
392 of height and a plausible wavelength of 3 meters which according with Eq.(15)  
393 corresponds to a period of 4.53 seconds. For the Illustrative example, particles  
394 of  $10\mu\text{m}$  were simulated. Fig. 17 shows the dispersion of the riverbed: Top left  
395 is the initial still condition of the bed before the injection of water starts. Top  
396 right the dispersion of the bed after 8.1 seconds the injection of water starts for  
397  $\Gamma = 50$ ; bottom left for  $\Gamma = 100$ ; and bottom right for  $\Gamma = 200$ . It is seen that  
398 even considering several unavoidable mistakes from several simplifying assump-  
399 tions, the dispersion of riverbeds by inducing mild waves at the surface of the  
400 reservoir and the use of point absorbers -or technology akin, has merit of being  
401 considered.

## 402 3. Ecological issues

403 Although for this preliminary work, the proposed method only was assessed  
404 from an engineering standpoint, nevertheless some ecological issues related to  
405 sediment resuspension should be at least briefly analyzed.

406  
407 Various studies suggested that sediment resuspension determine the sites and  
408 rates of organic matter mineralization in shallow environments and that resus-  
409 pended organic material could exert an enhanced demand on dissolved oxygen  
410 with direct negative consequences for water quality and indirect in ecosystem  
411 integrity. For example, the study by Almroth et al.[32] demonstrated that in-  
412 creased oxygen consumption as a result of sediment resuspension could lead to

413 spreading of anoxic/suboxic bottom water conditions, and thus indirectly to in-  
414 creased benthic release of phosphate, ammonium and iron. Thus, the continuous  
415 disturbance of the reservoir bottom for resuspending the sediments, although  
416 can have the advantage of preserving the sediment flow across the dam and  
417 replenishing the riverbeds with sediments downstream, can also keep a state  
418 of anoxic conditions in the water column affecting the lake plant and animal  
419 communities. Recent research on the effect of transference of element from sed-  
420 iments to the water column by disturbance of the lake bottom can be also found  
421 in the works by Puttonen et al (2016), [33] and Ji et al. (2017),[34].

422

423 It is interesting to note that the proposed method is controllable by two dif-  
424 ferent ways, namely: on one hand by a *passive* way and on the other one by an  
425 *active* way. The *passive* way is the self-control of resuspension of the riverbed  
426 without any intervention from operators or external management. This is due  
427 to the fact that the water flow injected by the PAs only resuspend the riverbed  
428 standing on the pressure manifold or velocity distributor (see Fig. 2), and then  
429 once is totally resuspended the given thickness of the riverbed, the induced wa-  
430 ter flow is not creating any erosion on the riverbed located beneath the pressure  
431 manifold and the water flow is now only preventing the settling down of new  
432 sediment.

433

434 The *active* way is referred to the control of the intensity of resuspension  
435 by controlling the parameters of the surface wave, i.e., the period and/or the  
436 amplitude of the wave, so the intensity of resuspension is controlled by con-  
437 trolling the wave generator as is pleased by operators. Therefore, the proposed  
438 technique with the use of surface waves presents unique features worthy of be-  
439 ing considered for resuspension and control of sediments taking into account  
440 environmental issues.

441 **4. Summary of results and conclusions**

442 A new promising method has been proposed for the resuspension and control  
443 of sediments in reservoirs by inducing mild waves on its surface and using point  
444 absorbers or technology akin to transform the wave energy spreading through  
445 the surface of the reservoir into a continuous injection of water flow in the  
446 riverbed. Some interesting conclusions are resulting from this preliminary work  
447 as follows:

- 448 (a) Generation of waves and use of wave converters could be a very efficient  
449 method for riverbed resuspension and control, where preliminary estima-  
450 tions show that, more than 50 times of riverbed area could be resuspended  
451 in comparison with the area of the point absorber for practical waves.
- 452 (b) Wave generation could be performed by using dedicated oscillatory sluice  
453 gates or conventional technology used in ocean energy conversions (e.g.,  
454 water wheels, nodding-ducks). For this last case, an electrical power  
455 around 0.5 kW per meter-width of the reservoir will be required, which  
456 compared with the power output of a large dam is negligible.
- 457 (c) The proposed technique can help to solve or mitigate the problem of set-  
458 tling down of sediments in reservoirs which affect the delta of rivers and  
459 limiting the life of the dam.

460 Because the hydraulic/sediment interaction and sediment transport is so  
461 complex involving so many parameters, the theoretical predictions using an ide-  
462 alized model as well as computational simulations as presented in this manuscript  
463 are only a crude approximation of real situation, and and as such, they only  
464 provide important guidance in future efforts to analyze the problem and to  
465 encourage a further research of the subject.

466 Therefore, as imperative next research step, 3D movable-bed modeling by  
467 using laboratory techniques are required.

468 **NOMENCLATURE**

- 469  $A_d$  = area of the river bed  
 470  $A_p$  = area of the point absorber  
 471  $A_s$  = area of the river bed lifted by the point absorber  
 472  $b$  = crest width  
 473  $C_D$  = drag coefficient  
 474  $d_p$  = diameter of particle sediment  
 475  $g$  = gravity  
 476  $h$  = water reservoir depth  
 477  $\bar{H}$  = average vertical displacement of the PA  
 478  $L_r$  = width of reservoir  
 479  $n_s$  = number of particles per volume  
 480  $P$  = power of the wave  
 481  $P_g$  = power of the wave generator  
 482  $Q_c$  = cavity water flow rate  
 483  $Q_d$  = hydroelectric water flow rate  
 484  $Re_p$  = particle Reynolds number  
 485  $t$  = time  
 486  $T$  = wave period  
 487  $u_{mf}$  = minimum fluidizing velocity of the bed  
 488  $u_u$  = upward velocity  
 489  $u_d$  = downward velocity  
 490  $u_t$  = terminal velocity  
 491  
 492 **Greek symbols**  
 493  $\lambda$  = wavelength  
 494  $\delta$  = thickness of the sediment bed  
 495  $\eta$  = efficiency in mechanical conversion  
 496  $\rho$  = density of water  
 497  $\rho_s$  = density of particle  
 498  $\varepsilon$  = void fraction  
 499  $\phi_s$  = sphericity of particle

500  $\omega$  = wave frequency

501  $\Gamma$  = area of riverbed covered divide with the area of the point absorber defined  
502 by Eq.(10)

503 **subscripts symbols**

504  $s$  = sediment

505  $p$  = pressure absorber,particle

506  $u$  = upward

507  $d$  = downward

508

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512

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Date: December 24, 2017  
Barcelona, Spain,

1 *Title*

Paper title : "**On Resuspension and Control of Reservoir Sediments by Surface Waves and Point Absorbers**"

1. Generation of waves and use of wave converters could be a very efficient method for riverbed resuspension and control
2. Wave generation and conversion is a mature technology unexplored in this field
3. May solve the problem land loss in the river deltas and storage capability of large dams.