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Abstract	The results on the prediction of (i) the conditions leading to the appearance of periodic sedimentary patterns forced by tidal currents on the sea bottom and (ii) the geometrical characteristics of these bottom forms are summarized. Attention is focused on the results obtained by means of stability analyses, even though a few results obtained by means of numerical simulations are also mentioned. The characteristics of ripples, dunes, sand waves, long bed waves and sand banks are described along with the mechanisms that originate these different sedimentary patterns.	
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Stability Analyses to Predict Tidal Sedimentary Patterns



Paolo Blondeaux and Giovanna Vittori

0 The results on the prediction of (i) the conditions leading to the appearance of periodic
1 sedimentary patterns forced by tidal currents on the sea bottom and (ii) the geometri-
2 cal characteristics of these bottom forms are summarized. Attention is focused on the
3 results obtained by means of stability analyses, even though a few results obtained by
4 means of numerical simulations are also mentioned. The characteristics of ripples,
5 dunes, sand waves, long bed waves and sand banks are described along with the
6 mechanisms that originate these different sedimentary patterns.

7 1 Introduction

8 Many sedimentary patterns (bedforms), which can be observed on the continental
9 shelves or on a river bed, are repetitive both in space and time and it is possible
10 to associate to them a characteristic wavelength L^* and a characteristic period T^*
11 (hereinafter a star denotes a dimensional quantity). The reader who is interested in a
12 description of the main characteristics of the bedforms observed on the sea bottom
13 or on a river bed can read the monograph of Blondeaux et al. [6].

14 Nowadays, it is widely accepted that the appearance of periodic bedforms is due to
15 the instability of the plane interface between the sea/river bottom, made up of cohe-
16 sionless sediments, and the water flowing over it. Different physical mechanisms
17 are commonly proposed to explain the appearance of the different sedimentary pat-
18 terns even though, in a recent contribution, Vittori and Blondeaux [35] discussed
19 the theories of formation of river dunes and tidal sand waves and showed that the
20 different physical mechanisms proposed to explain their formation show more simi-
21 larities than it was believed. Certainly, because of the different length scales, which
22 characterize the different bedforms, different approaches are used to investigate the

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processes that lead to the formation of ripples, megaripples, dunes, bars, sand waves, long bed waves and sand banks.

In the present contribution, we focus our attention on the bedforms that are generated on the continental shelves by the currents forced by tide propagation. Even narrowing the focus on the bedforms generated by tidal currents, the topic is extremely vast and it is not possible to describe in detail the results available in the literature. Consequently, we will limit ourselves to a brief description of the approaches used to study tidal bedforms and a summary of the main results, providing some references, which can be consulted by the reader who wants to deepen the subject.

As already pointed out, the appearance of periodic bedforms is assumed to be the result of the instability of the flat configuration of the sea bottom above which the water flows and induces the sediment motion. The stability of the flat bottom is investigated by determining the time development of a random perturbation of the flat bed. The growth/decay of the bottom perturbation is determined by assuming that its initial amplitude is ‘small’ and by linearizing the morphodynamic problem. Therefore, it is possible to consider separately the different components of the bottom waviness

$$z^* = \eta^*(x^*, y^*, z^*, t^*) = \frac{h_0^*}{2} \epsilon A(t^*) \exp[i(\alpha_x^* x^* + \alpha_y^* y^*)] + \text{c.c.} \quad (1)$$

In (1), (x^*, y^*, z^*) is a Cartesian coordinate system, with the x^* - and y^* -axes lying on the average bottom and the z^* -axis being orthogonal to it and pointing upwards, and h_0^* is the mean water depth. The parameter ϵ is a measure of the ratio between the amplitude of the bottom perturbation and the local water depth and is assumed to be much smaller than one ($\epsilon \ll 1$). Moreover α_x^* and α_y^* are the wavenumbers of the generic component of the bottom waviness and $A(t^*)$, which is assumed to be of order 1, describes the time development of its amplitude (c.c. indicates the complex conjugate of the previous term). The growth of the most unstable component, if any, is assumed to generate the observed bottom forms.

Of course, the bottom waviness induces perturbations of (i) the flow field, (ii) the bottom shear stress and (iii) the (volumetric) sediment transport rate. To determine the time development of the perturbation of the sea bottom, which is supposed to be made of cohesionless sediments of uniform size d^* and density ρ_s^* , it is necessary to determine the flow generated by a tidal current over a wavy bottom, which is assumed to be fixed. Indeed, the time scale T_M^* of the evolution of the bottom perturbation (the morphodynamic time scale) is much longer than the hydrodynamic time scale T_H^* . The different spatial and temporal scales, which characterize the different bedforms, imply the use of different approaches to solve the hydrodynamic problem. In particular, to study the hydrodynamic phenomena that take place in large areas of the Earth surface but characterized by a length scale significantly smaller than the Earth radius, it is appropriate to introduce the f -plane approximation (see for example [21]) and to consider momentum equations where the Coriolis contributions related to the Earth rotation are taken into account.

64 If the problem is written in dimensionless form using the water depth h_0^* ,
 65 the inverse of the angular frequency ω^* and the amplitude U_0^* of the veloc-
 66 ity oscillations induced by tide propagation as length, time and velocity scales,
 67 respectively, four dimensionless parameters appear, which are $\hat{r} = U_0^*/(\omega^*h_0^*)$, $\hat{\delta} =$
 68 $\sqrt{v_{T0}^*/\omega^*}/h_0^*$, $\hat{F}r = U_0^*/\sqrt{g^*h_0^{*3}}$, $\hat{\Omega} = \Omega^*/\omega^*$. The parameter \hat{r} is the ratio between
 69 the amplitude of fluid displacement oscillations in the horizontal direction and the
 70 local water depth and it turns out to be order 10^2 . The parameter $\hat{\delta}$ is the ratio between
 71 the order of magnitude of the thickness of the bottom boundary layer generated by
 72 the tidal wave and the local depth and it turns out to be of order one. The Froude
 73 number $\hat{F}r$ can be written as $(U_0^*/\omega^*)(\omega^*/\sqrt{g^*h_0^{*3}})$ and can be thought as the ratio
 74 between the amplitude of fluid displacement oscillations in the horizontal direction
 75 and the order of magnitude of length of the tidal wave. Finally, $\hat{\Omega}$ is the ratio between
 76 the angular velocity of the Earth rotation Ω^* and the angular frequency of the tidal
 77 wave ($\hat{\Omega} \cong 0.5$ for a semidiurnal tide, $\hat{\Omega} \cong 1$ for a diurnal tide). Often, the problem
 78 can be simplified by assuming that the Froude number $\hat{F}r$ is much smaller than one.
 79 Indeed, the assumption $\hat{F}r \ll 1$ allows the rigid lid approximation to be introduced.

80 The complete equations are often simplified when large scale bedforms are con-
 81 sidered (e.g. long bed waves and sand banks). In this case, the water depth turns
 82 out to be much smaller than the wavelength of the bedforms and the shallow water
 83 approximation can be introduced. Hence, the depth averaged values of the velocity
 84 components can be considered and different dimensionless variables are introduced.

85 Once the flow field is determined, it is necessary to evaluate the sediment flux. The
 86 sediment flux due to the sediments that move close to the bed, rolling, sliding and
 87 saltating over the resting bed (bed load) is usually evaluated by means of empirical
 88 formulae. The sediment flux due to the sediments that move far from the bottom
 89 being trapped within the large scale turbulent vortices (suspended load) is usually
 90 evaluated by solving an advection-diffusion equation for the sediment concentration.

91 Then, mass conservation of the sediments (Exner equation) implies that a spatial
 92 increase of the sediment transport rate implies a decrease of the bed elevation and
 93 vice versa. This mass balance equation gives rise to an amplitude equation for A
 94 which can be written in the form

$$95 \quad \frac{dA}{dt^*} = \Gamma^* A \quad (2)$$

96 where $\Gamma^* = \Gamma_r^* + i\Gamma_i^*$ is a complex quantity which depends on both the hydrody-
 97 namic and morphodynamic parameters of the problem.

98 When it is reasonable to consider a steady forcing flow, the value of Γ^* is inde-
 99 pendent of time and the amplitude equation (2) can be easily integrated. Then, it is
 100 straightforward to discriminate between growing ($\Gamma_r^* > 0$) and decaying ($\Gamma_r^* < 0$)
 101 components of the bottom perturbation. Moreover, it is possible to determine the
 102 orientation and wavelength of the periodic bedforms predicted by the analysis.

103 However, tide propagation gives rise to a time dependent (periodic) flow and Γ^*
 104 turns out to be a periodic function of time. Therefore, different contributions to the
 105 time development of $A(t^*)$ can be identified. The most important contributions are

106 related to the real and imaginary parts of the time average $\bar{\Gamma}^*$ of Γ^* defined by
 107 $\bar{\Gamma}^* = \int_0^{T_0^*} \Gamma(\hat{t}^*) d\hat{t}^*$, T_0^* being the period of the tide. The decay/amplification of the
 108 bottom waviness is controlled by the value of $\bar{\Gamma}_r^*$, while $\bar{\Gamma}_i^*$ controls the migration of
 109 the bottom forms. The further contributions to $A(t^*)$, which are related to $\Gamma^* - \bar{\Gamma}^*$,
 110 describe the oscillations (during the tide period) of the bottom profile around its
 111 averaged position. Such oscillations are small and, in general, are not considered.

112 2 An Overview of the Results of the Stability Analyses

113 The sedimentary patterns generated by tidal currents are characterized by spatial
 114 and temporal scales that range from centimetres to kilometres and from minutes to
 115 centuries. Hence, the theoretical models used to investigate the process which leads
 116 to the appearance of the different tidal bedforms are based on different approaches.
 117 Therefore, in the following, we consider separately the formation of (i) ripples and
 118 dunes, (ii) sand waves, (iii) long bed waves and (iv) sand banks, even though the
 119 different bedforms may coexist and interact. Since ripples and dunes are characterized
 120 by values of the morphodynamics time scale T_M^* that are smaller than the period T_0^*
 121 of the tide, they can be assumed to be generated by a steady (slowly variable) current
 122 and there is no need to account for the oscillatory character of the tidal current. On
 123 the other hand, sand waves, long bed waves and sand banks should be studied taking
 124 into account the periodic character of the tidal currents, since the value of T_M^* of
 125 these bedforms is larger than T_0^* .

126 2.1 Ripples and Megaripples/Dunes

127 Both ripples and megaripples/dunes are small scale undulations of the sea bottom.
 128 The first bedforms are characterized by wavelength of the order of tens of centime-
 129 tres whereas the second bedforms have typical wavelength of the order of metres. As
 130 already pointed out, it is reasonable to investigate the process that leads to the forma-
 131 tion of the ripples and dunes generated by tidal currents by considering a sequence
 132 of steady flows as in [11, 13]. Indeed, the characteristics of the small scale bedforms
 133 generated by tidal currents do not significantly differ from those observed along a
 134 river course (see Fig. 1).

135 The hydrodynamic and morphodynamic problems can be solved by expanding
 136 any unknown function as a power series of ϵ . This procedure leads to a sequence
 137 of problems at the different orders of approximation. At the leading order ($O(\epsilon^0)$),
 138 the velocity profile is described by the well known logarithmic law for both the
 139 hydraulically rough and smooth regimes. At $O(\epsilon)$, an eigenvalue problem was
 140 obtained by Colombini and Stocchino [13], who solved it by forcing an eigenre-
 141 lation which provides the value of Γ^* . Colombini and Stocchino [13] obtained Γ^*



Fig. 1 Ripples on the bottom of the Hunter river (New South Wales, Australia). Current direction is from the top-right to the bottom-left. Photo courtesy of Michael C. Rygel

142 as a function of the ratio between the Shields parameter and its critical value and the
 143 dimensionless wavenumber α , for different values of the sediment Reynolds number
 144 $R_p = \sqrt{(\rho_s^*/\rho^* - 1)g^*d^{*3}}/\nu^*$, ρ_s^* and ρ^* being the densities of the sediments and of
 145 the water, respectively, g^* the acceleration of gravity, d^* the sediment size and ν^* the
 146 kinematic viscosity of the water. Their results, supported by a comparison with the
 147 experimental observations described in [16], show that for large values of R_p (e.g.
 148 $R_p = 20$), only one unstable region appears for values of α typical of dunes, i.e. α of
 149 order 1. For smaller values of R_p ($R_p = 14$), a second unstable region appears for α
 150 of order 10. This range of wavenumbers can be related to ripples. When the value of
 151 the sediment Reynolds number is further decreased, the two unstable regions merge
 152 but two different relative maxima of the growth rate can still be identified down to
 153 a value of R_p equal to 10 (see Fig. 2). Then, a further decrease of R_p leads to a
 154 single maximum. Of course, the linear approach described in [13] cannot predict
 155 if one mode would eventually prevail over the other. However, it is worth pointing
 156 out that experimental observations [16] show that ripples and dunes may coexist.
 157 Therefore, the results of the analyses described in [11, 13] suggest that ripples and
 158 dunes are two different modes that can be excited individually or simultaneously.
 159 On the other hand, Fourriere et al. [15] proposed a model that shows that the most
 160 unstable wavelength of the bottom perturbations, forced by a uniform steady current,
 161 corresponds to ripples. According to Fourriere et al. [15] dunes are the result of a
 162 nonlinear process (ripple coarsening). In any case, the physical mechanism which
 163 drives the growth of ripples and dunes is the phase shift between the perturbation of
 164 the bottom profile and the perturbation of the bed shear stress.

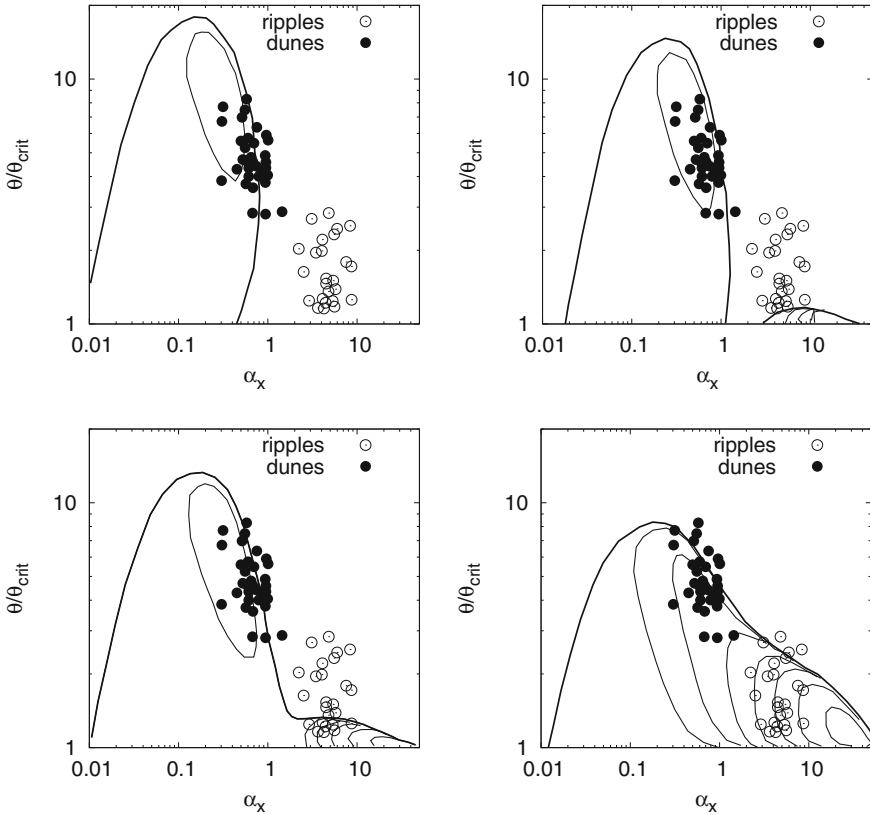


Fig. 2 Positive growth rate in the $(\alpha_x, \theta/\theta_{crit})$ -plane. The thick line indicates the isoline characterized by vanishing values of Γ . **a** $R_p = 20$, **b** $R_p = 14$, **c** $R_p = 12$, **d** $R_p = 5$. The dots indicate the experimental data of Guy, Simons and Richardson (1966), ‘Summary of alluvial channel data from flume experiments, 1956–61’, US Government Printing Office

2.2 Sand Waves

Sand waves are large scale bottom undulations characterized by wavelengths of the order of hundreds of metres with crests almost orthogonal to the direction of the tidal current. One of the first contributions to the study of the mechanism that leads to the appearance of sand waves was given by Hulscher [17], who showed that the appearance of these bedforms is driven by the presence of steady recirculating cells generated by the interaction of the oscillatory tidal current with the bottom waviness. Hulscher [17] quantified turbulence mixing by introducing an eddy viscosity that is assumed to be constant over the water depth. Since the turbulence mixing tends to vanish close to a rigid wall, the model by Hulscher [17] neglects the bottom layer and introduces a partial slip condition of the fluid at the bottom. A more accurate model is that of Besio et al. [5], who used the approach proposed by Blondeaux and Vittori [8,

177 9] to evaluate the flow field. In particular, the turbulence generated by tidal currents
178 was modelled by introducing an eddy viscosity that grows linearly with the distance
179 from the bottom in the region close to the sea bottom, it reaches a maximum and it
180 decreases and assumes small values close to the free surface. Moreover, since the
181 analysis of Besio et al. [5] was aimed at studying both sand waves and sand banks and
182 the dynamics of the latter bedforms is affected by Coriolis terms and the local time
183 derivatives of the velocity components, Besio et al. [5] considered the contribution
184 of these terms to the hydrodynamic problem.

185 Even though it is possible to consider tidal currents generated by the superposition
186 of two or more tide constituents (e.g. semidiurnal and diurnal constituents), Besio et
187 al. [5] assumed that the solution at the leading order of approximation was dominated
188 by just one tide constituent, as made by Blondeaux et al. [10]. The solution of the
189 hydrodynamic problem was obtained by expanding any unknown as a power series
190 of ϵ . When terms of order ϵ of continuity and momentum equations were considered,
191 partial differential linear equations for the flow and free surface perturbations were
192 obtained. Since sediment continuity equation states that $dA(t^*)/dt^*$ is proportional
193 to $A(t^*)$ through the ratio between the hydrodynamic and the morphodynamic time
194 scales and this ratio turns out to be much smaller than one, the terms of the momentum
195 equations that are proportional to the time derivative of $A(t^*)$ can be neglected with
196 respect to the terms proportional to $A(t^*)$. Moreover, the periodicity of the basic flow
197 suggests to write the unknown functions as Fourier series of time. By plugging the
198 Fourier series into the hydrodynamic problem, a linear system of coupled ordinary
199 differential equations can be derived, where the unknown functions depend only on
200 the vertical coordinate. The solution can be numerically obtained with the procedure
201 used by Vittori [33]. At last the equation, which provides the time development of
202 the amplitude of the bottom perturbation, follows from the empirical predictors used
203 to evaluate the sediment transport rate and sediment continuity equation.

204 The results show that the bedforms, which tend to appear, are characterized by
205 crests that are orthogonal to the major axis of the tidal ellipse. Indeed, the maximum
206 value of the amplification rate is attained for vanishing values of $\alpha_{\hat{y}}$, \hat{x} and \hat{y} being
207 two horizontal axes such that \hat{x} is aligned with the major axis of the tidal ellipse. This
208 theoretical finding agrees with field observations (see [1, 31]). Also the wavelength
209 of the fastest growing mode predicted by their analysis agrees with the wavelength of
210 the observed bottom forms. Moreover, since the velocity oscillations considered by
211 Hulscher [17] and Besio et al. [5] are symmetric, the sand waves predicted by their
212 stability analyses do not migrate. Later, Nemeth et al. [26] made a linear analysis
213 similar to that of Hulscher [17] but they added a residual (steady) current to the
214 main oscillatory tidal current. Hence, Nemeth et al. [26] found that the bedforms
215 predicted by their analysis migrate in the direction of the steady current. However,
216 field observations exist that show that sand waves can migrate also against the residual
217 current. The migration of the bedforms in the direction opposite to that of the steady
218 velocity component is possible because of the nonlinear relationship between the
219 sediment transport rate and the current velocity and it was investigated by Besio et
220 al. [2, 3], who considered a tidal current generated by the superposition of the M2,
221 M4 and Z0 constituents, which are supposed to be the dominant ones. The first two

222 constituents induce oscillations of the tidal current characterized by periods of about
 223 12 and 6 h, respectively, while the Z0 constituent is characterized by a steady velocity
 224 component.

225 Up to now, only tidal currents which change on a temporal scale of the order of
 226 hours have been considered. However, the interaction between the lunar constituents
 227 with the solar constituents makes the tidal current to change also on much longer
 228 temporal scales, e.g. the temporal scale of the neap-spring cycle. As discussed in
 229 [10], the changes of the velocity field induced by a slow modulation of the tidal
 230 current can be determined, along with the time development of the bottom profile, if
 231 the presence of three distinct temporal scales is recognized. The first temporal scale
 232 is the tide period equal to $T_0^* = 2\pi/\omega^*$, which is of the order of hours. The second
 233 temporal scale is the period of the tide modulation equal to $T_1^* = 2\pi/\Omega_{sn}^* \cong 15$ days,
 234 Ω_{sn}^* being the angular frequency of the spring-neap cycle. The third and last temporal
 235 scale is the morphodynamic time scale $T_2^* = (1 - p_{or})h_0^{*2}/[d^*\sqrt{(\rho_s^*/\rho^* - 1)g^*d^*}]$,
 236 which depends on the local water depth and sediment characteristics (p_{or} is the
 237 porosity of the sea bottom). Considering their typical values, it appears reasonable
 238 to assume $T_0^* \ll T_1^* \ll T_2^*$ and to introduce the small parameters $\delta_1 = T_0^*/T_1^*$ and
 239 $\delta_2 = T_0^*/T_2^*$. Then, using a multiple scale approach [25], the following time vari-
 240 ables, $t_0 = t = \omega^*t^*$, $t_1 = t^*/T_1^*$, $t_2 = t^*/T_2^*$ can be introduced and the unknown
 241 functions, which appear at the different orders of approximation ($O(\epsilon^0)$, $O(\epsilon)$, ...),
 242 are assumed to depend on t_0 , t_1 and t_2 beside on the spatial coordinates. Sediment
 243 continuity equation suggests that A can be decomposed into a part of order one,
 244 which depends only on t_2 , and a further contribution, which depends on t_0 , t_1 and
 245 t_2 but it is much smaller than one: $A = A_0(t_2) [1 + \delta_2 A_1(t_0, t_1, t_2)]$. The function
 246 $A_0(t_2)$ describes the growth/decay of the bottom perturbation, which takes place on
 247 the morphodynamic time scale, whereas $A_1(t_0, t_1, \dots)$ describes the oscillations of
 248 the bottom configuration, which take place during the tidal cycle and the spring-neap
 249 cycle. However, because of the small values of δ_2 , the bottom oscillations described
 250 by A_1 are of small amplitude and can be neglected. Since significant bottom changes
 251 take place on the morphodynamic time scale t_2 only, the velocity and pressure fields
 252 can be assumed to respond instantaneously to the variations of the bottom config-
 253 uration. Then, the equation that provides the time development of the amplitude of
 254 the bottom perturbation follows from sediment continuity equation. A comparison
 255 between the model findings and the characteristics of the sand waves observed in
 256 the North Sea was made by considering the data collected by Menninga [24]. A fair
 257 agreement among the theoretical predictions and the field observations was found.
 258 In particular, the analysis was able to predict the migration of the bedforms which is
 259 in the direction of the residual current or against it, depending on the strength of the
 260 different tide constituents.

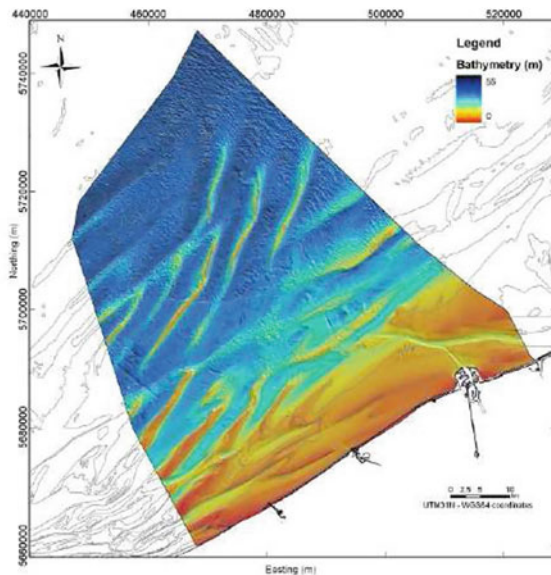
2.3 Long Bed Waves

Long bed waves are periodic bottom forms characterized by a crest-to-crest distances, which are larger than those of sand waves and smaller than those of sand banks and, more importantly, by crests which form an angle with the direction of the tidal current, which ranges from about -65° to about 35° . Moreover, these bedforms are characterized by a morphodynamic time scale that is much longer than the period of the tide and significant changes of the bottom configuration take place only after a large number of tidal cycles. Therefore, it is convenient to introduce the two different time variables t_0 and t_2 already defined. Of course, the oscillations of the bottom profile during the tidal cycle have negligible effects and they can be safely neglected to determine the long term behaviour of the bottom configuration. The equation that provides the time development of the amplitude $A(t_2)$ of the generic component of the bottom perturbation follows from sediment continuity equation and it allows to discriminate the perturbation components which grow from those which decay and to evaluate the component characterized by the fastest growth. The model was tested against the field data described in [20] and fair results were obtained. Indeed, different relative maxima of \bar{T}_r were identified and the predicted wavelengths well agree with the values of the different bedforms observed in the field. The presence of multiple relative maxima and the emergence of long bed waves appear to be related to the relative weakness of the tidal current, the ellipticity of the tidal current and the anisotropy of the slope-induced sediment transport. Indeed, for the same values of the parameters, but for stronger tidal velocities and/or unidirectional tidal currents and/or isotropic slope-induced sediment transport, the amplification rate Γ_r^* has only one significant maximum that corresponds to sand banks.

2.4 Sand Banks

Sand banks are large scale bottom forms that are characterized by crests that are almost aligned with the major axis of the tidal ellipse and by a crest-to-crest distance of the order of 10 km (see Fig. 3). To predict the appearance of sand banks and their geometrical characteristics two approaches were used. The first approach is based on the shallow water approximation whereas the second approach considers the full three-dimensional equations. First, we discuss the results that were obtained by means of the three-dimensional approach [5]. When the values of \bar{T}_r^* are plotted versus the wavenumbers $(\alpha_{\hat{x}}, \alpha_{\hat{y}})$, for values of the hydrodynamic and morphodynamic parameters chosen to reproduce the site in the North Sea described in [22, 23], two maxima appear. One maximum describes sand waves and the other maximum describes sand banks. Indeed, field data collected along the Calais-Dover strait show that both sand waves and sand banks were observed in the site. The wavelength of the observed sand waves, which have crests practically orthogonal to the main tidal current, falls between 350 and 750 m and the sand banks are almost aligned with the

Fig. 3 The digital elevation model of the Belgian continental shelf based on single beam measurements (courtesy of Vera van Lancker)



300 main axis of the tidal ellipse but slightly clockwise rotated and are characterized by
 301 an average crest-to-crest distance of about 8 km. One of the maxima predicted by the
 302 model of Besio et al. [5] takes place for $\alpha_{\hat{x}} \simeq 0.38$ and a vanishing value of $\alpha_{\hat{y}}$. The
 303 second maximum takes place for $\alpha_{\hat{x}} = 0.013$ and $\alpha_{\hat{y}} = 0.03$. Hence, the stability
 304 analysis predicts the appearance of two different bedforms. The first bedform has
 305 crests orthogonal to the direction of the tidal current and its wavelength is about
 306 355 m. The second bedform has crests slightly clockwise rotated with respect to
 307 the major axis of the tidal ellipse and its wavelength is about 5.5 Km. It is easy to
 308 associate the first mode to the sand waves observed by Le Bot et al. [22, 23] and the
 309 second mode to the sand banks that are present nearby (Sandtietie bank, Ruytingen
 310 bank, Dyck bank).

311 Once it is verified that the three-dimensional approach provides reliable predic-
 312 tions of the tidal bedforms, let us look at the results provided by the shallow water
 313 approach. Hulscher et al. [18] were among the first investigators to study the process
 314 that leads to the appearance of sand banks by using the shallow water approximation.
 315 For a unidirectional tide, the fastest growing mode predicted by Hulscher et al. [18]
 316 is characterized by crests almost aligned with the main axis of the tidal ellipse and
 317 the wavelength of the predicted bedforms is in agreement with the field observations.
 318 However, the analysis of Hulscher et al. [18] shows that the first mode that becomes
 319 unstable, when the parameters are varied, corresponds to an ultra-long bottom form.
 320 Better predictions were found by Hulscher et al. [18] by considering circular tides.
 321 Indeed, the first mode to become unstable, when the parameters are varied, is char-
 322 acterized by a finite wavelength but, since a circular tide has no preferred direction,

no preferred orientation of the selected bedforms was provided by the theoretical analysis of Hulscher et al. [18].

Since a depth-averaged approach cannot predict the deviation of the sediment transport rate from the direction of the depth averaged velocity, Besio et al. [4] developed a model based on the shallow water approximation but they added a correction to the sediment transport direction to account for this three-dimensional effect. Moreover, the solution procedure used by Besio et al. [4] takes into account the cascade process that gives rise to a large number of harmonic components in the velocity field, that are generated by the interaction of the oscillatory tidal current with the bottom waviness. Finally, the approach proposed by Besio et al. [4] allows to consider unidirectional as well as elliptical and circular tides. When the real part \overline{T}_r^* of the averaged amplification rate \overline{T}^* is plotted versus α_x^* and α_y^* , for a clockwise rotating tidal current, the most unstable perturbation generated by a circular tide has no preferred orientation. For a unidirectional tide, the crests of the most unstable mode are counter-clockwise rotated with respect to the direction of the tidal current. For values of the ratio e between the minor and major axes of the tidal ellipse falling between 0 and 1, the most unstable mode is always characterized by crests that are counter-clockwise rotated with respect to the main tidal current.

Of course the results obtained for the same values of the parameters but for a counter-clockwise rotating velocity vector do not differ from the previous ones when a unidirectional tide is considered. Moreover, for a circular tide only quantitative differences are present. However, for an elliptical tide, qualitative differences are present. In fact, for values of e falling between 0.02 and 0.6, the maximum of the amplification rate is characterized by positive values of both α_x^* and α_y^* and the predicted sand banks are clockwise rotated. Hence, the results obtained by Besio et al. [4] are in agreement with the findings of Besio et al. [5] and show that both a three dimensional analysis and a shallow water model predict the appearance of large scale bedforms, the orientation of which depends on the clockwise/counter-clockwise rotation of the tidal velocity vector.

Even though a linear stability analysis can predict the crest-to-crest distance and the orientation of sand banks, little is known on mechanism that leads to equilibrium conditions. The extension of the linear analysis made by Huthnance [19] provides an equilibrium profile of the sand banks but the hydrodynamics is described by a simplified approach. Roos et al. [29] developed a numerical approach that fully resolves the morphodynamics of the fastest growing mode. However, the numerical approach was applied only considering a unidirectional tidal current and the solution procedure implies significant computational costs.

A weakly nonlinear stability analysis is an alternative tool to determine the equilibrium profile attained by the unstable bottom perturbations when the parameters are close to their critical values. Indeed weakly nonlinear stability analyses have been successfully used in hydrodynamic stability and have been also applied to morphodynamic problems [12, 30, 34].

However, difficulties in the formulation of a weakly nonlinear stability analysis of the growth of sand banks for a unidirectional tidal current arose, because the first linear analyses predicted vanishing values of the wavenumber of the most unstable

368 mode close to the critical conditions. In other words, close to the critical conditions,
 369 the bottom forms predicted by the linear analyses were characterized by an infi-
 370 nite wavelength. This problem was overcome by Tambroni and Blondeaux [32] who
 371 employed a sediment transport predictor that provides vanishing values of the sedi-
 372 ment transport rate when the bottom shear stress is smaller than its critical value. The
 373 introduction of a critical value of the Shields parameter allowed to obtain better pre-
 374 dictions of the sediment transport rate and of the morphodynamic phenomena when
 375 the bottom shear stress is close to the initiation of sediment motion. In particular,
 376 close to the critical conditions and for tidal currents characterized by a low ellipticity,
 377 Tambroni and Blondeaux [32] found that the wavelength of the most unstable
 378 mode turns out to be finite. This result opened the possibility to carry out a weakly
 379 nonlinear stability analysis. The time development of the most unstable mode was
 380 determined by Tambroni and Blondeaux [32] for values of the parameters that differ
 381 from the critical ones by a small amount ε . For such values of the parameters, the
 382 bottom waviness turns out to be of order $\varepsilon^{1/2}$ and the amplitude of the most unstable
 383 component of the bottom perturbation is provided by

$$384 \quad \frac{dA}{dt^*} = a_1^* A + a_2^* |A|^2 A. \quad (3)$$

385 Equation (3) is of Landau-Stuart type and can be integrated in closed form to obtain
 386 the time development of a small bottom perturbation and its equilibrium amplitude
 387 ($|A_{1e}| = \sqrt{-\text{Real}(a_1^*)/\text{Real}(a_2^*)}$).

388 3 Conclusions

389 Tidal currents flowing over a cohesionless sea bottom give rise to the formation of
 390 bedforms of different length scales ranging from tens of centimetres to tens of kilo-
 391 metres. Examples of these bedforms are ripples, megaripples, sand waves, long bed
 392 waves and sand banks. The results of stability analyses, which can predict the appear-
 393 ance of these bedforms and their main geometrical characteristics, are reviewed.
 394 Needless to write that the hydrodynamics is described assuming the flow regime to
 395 be turbulent and considering Reynolds equations either neglecting Coriolis effects,
 396 when the dynamics of small bedforms is analysed, or taking them into account, when
 397 the largest bedforms (e.g. sand banks) are analysed. The linear stability analyses pro-
 398 vide reliable predictions of the wavelength and orientation of a large number of the
 399 periodic bedforms observed in tidal seas. In a few cases, a weakly nonlinear stability
 400 analysis can be used to estimate the equilibrium amplitude of the bedforms even
 401 though in many cases the equilibrium bottom configuration can be predicted only
 402 taking into account strong nonlinear effects and using a numerical approach.

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Chapter 21

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