Morphological evolution of bifurcations in tide-influenced deltas

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5 **Abstract.** In river-dominated deltas, bifurcations often develop an asymmetrical morphology, i.e. one of the downstream channels silts up while the other becomes the dominant one. In tide-influenced systems, bifurcations are thought to be less asymmetric and both downstream channels of the bifurcation remain open. The main aim of this study is to understand how tides influence the morphological development of bifurcations. By using a 2DH morphodynamic model (Delft3D), we simulated the morphological development of tide-influenced bifurcations on millennial time scales. The schematized

10 bifurcation consists of an upstream channel forced by river discharge and two downstream channels forced by tides. Two different cases were examined. In the first case, the downstream channels started with unequal depth or length but had equal tidal forcing, while in the second case the morphology was initially symmetric but the downstream channels were forced with unequal tides. Furthermore, we studied the sensitivity of results to the relative role of river flow and tides. We find that with increasing influence of tides over river, the morphology of the downstream channels becomes less asymmetric. Increasing tidal

15 influence can be achieved by either reduced river flow with respect to the tidal flow, or by asymmetrical tidal forcing of the downstream channels. The main reason for this behaviour is that tidal flows tend to be less unequal than river flows when geometry is asymmetric. For increasing tidal influence, this causes less asymmetric sediment mobility and therefore transport in both downstream channels. Furthermore, our results show that bedload tends to divide less asymmetrical compared to suspended load, showing a possible stabilizing effect of lateral bed slopes on morphological evolution. In our simulations, the

20 more tide-dominated systems tend to have a larger ratio of bedload and suspended load transport. Our results explain why distributary channel networks deltas with strong tidal influence are more stable than river-dominated ones.

1 Introduction

Deltas often consist of distributary channel networks. In these systems, water and sediment are divided at the bifurcations and distributed over the delta. The shape of the delta and the number of active channels depends on many factors like the forcing

25 by rivers, tides and waves (Galloway, 1975; Rossi et al., 2016; Shaw and Mohrig, 2014), sediment availability and sediment type (Geleynse et al., 2011). Bifurcations tend to develop differently in river- than in tide-dominated systems, because tides influence the mouth bar formation processes of active river-dominated deltas (Edmonds and Slingerland, 2007; Leonardi et al., 2013; Shaw and Mohrig, 2014). In tidal deltas tides propagate upstream and can induce bi-directional flows. This unique characteristic may lead to a different morphological evolution of the bifurcations than would occur in the river-dominated zone

30   (Frings and Kleinhans, 2008; Hoitink et al., 2017), but this has not been proven yet and the underlying mechanisms have not been studied. The focus of this paper is on the stability and depth asymmetry of bifurcations in tidally influenced deltas. We do not focus on the morphological evolution of the entire delta or the formation process of mouth bars, but consider a single bifurcation consisting of one upstream and two downstream channels. These are the building blocks of deltas and the hydro- and morphodynamics of such a system has been studied before by many others (Wang et al. 1995; Bolla Pittaluga et al., 2003;

35   Buschman et al., 2010; Kleinhans et al., 2008; Buschman et al., 2010; Sassi et al., 2011; Buschman et al., 2013).

In river-dominated systems, the morphology of the downstream channels of bifurcations often develops asymmetrically, such that one downstream channel deepens while the other silts up (Kleinhans et al., 2008). In many cases this condition develops into an avulsion. This asymmetric development can be triggered by a small perturbation such as a different bed elevation at

40   the junction (Bolla Pittaluga et al., 2003), by a meandering upstream channel nearby the bifurcation or by the geometry of the downstream channels such as different length of the downstream branches (Kleinhans et al., 2008). The study about this morphological evolution in river-dominated bifurcations was pioneered by Wang et al. (1995). They applied an analytical model to predict the stability of river bifurcations. They found that bifurcations can be stable if any tendency for downstream branch to become more dominant is counteracted by a relatively large share of the sediment input. Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2003)

45   improved the model of Wang et al. (1995) by taking into account the cross-channel flow that can be induced by an asymmetric cross-sectional profile at the bifurcation. This effect induces a lateral bedload transport, which affects the asymmetric sediment division to the downstream branches. Using this approach, they found that the asymmetry of depth of the two downstream branches depends on the Shields number and on the width-to-depth ratio of the upstream channel at the bifurcation. Bifurcations with high width-to-depth ratio and that are dominated by suspended load transport will be instable and develop

50   asymmetrical depths. Bertoldi and Tubino (2007) confirmed the results of Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2003) using a physical-scale model. Kleinhans et al. (2008) proposed that this asymmetrical depth development is also influenced by meandering of the upstream channel. The meandering bend induces an asymmetrical cross-sectional bed profile as tested by Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2003), and thereby influences the division of sediment at the junction. Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2015) continued the work of Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2003) for a wider range of sediment mobility conditions. They found a range of sediment mobility

55   numbers that result in stable symmetric bifurcations. Meanwhile, bifurcations with sediment mobility higher or lower than this range will grow asymmetrically and avulse.

In contrast to our knowledge of morphological development of bifurcations in river-dominated systems, our knowledge of this particular area in tide-influenced systems is still limited. Observations suggest that a similar development as in river-dominated

60   systems can occur, as for example found in the most upstream bifurcation of the Yangtze Estuary that divides the main channel into North Branch and South Branch. According to Chen et al. (1982), the North Branch has evolved to be narrower and shallower while the South Branch has deepened. However, bifurcations in other tide-influenced deltas have downstream channels that seem to have a less asymmetric depth distribution, for example the Berau River Delta (Buschman et al., 2013)

and Kapuas River Delta (Kästner et al., 2017). It has been suggested that tidal deltas have more stable distributary channel networks than their river-dominated counterparts (Hoitink et al., 2017), but the underlying mechanisms are unknown. Furthermore, several studies have investigated tidal characteristics at tidal bifurcations. Despite a general understanding on tides and subtidal water division at tidally influenced bifurcations (Buschman et al., 2010; Sassi et al., 2011; Zhang et al, 2012; Buschman et al., 2013; Alebregtse and de Swart, 2016), the effect of tides on the morphological evolution of tidal bifurcations has not been fully understood yet. From previous studies it is clear that tides influence the subtidal flow (Buschman et al., 2010; Sassi et al., 2011) and sediment division (Buschman et al., 2013), induce tidal currents that influence the sediment mobility, and can cause cross-channel currents at the junction (Buschman et al., 2013; Kleinhans et al., 2013). In river systems, all these factors are important for the morphological development of the downstream channels and it is expected that this is also the case for tide-influenced systems.

Therefore, the main aim of this paper is to study the effect of tides on the morphological evolution of bifurcations with the focus on how tides contribute to the asymmetrical development. For this purpose, an idealized bifurcating channel was set-up in Delft3D. We simulated the morphological evolution of a system consisting of two downstream channels (branches) forced by tides and an upstream channel forced by river discharge. We consider this system as a building block of each delta system. We studied two cases, i.e. asymmetric geometry of downstream channels, and asymmetric tides between the downstream channels. In the former case, the asymmetric downstream geometry was initially prescribed to see how tides affect the asymmetrical development of the downstream channels. The relative effect of tides was investigated by imposing equal tides at downstream boundary of each downstream branch and by using different values for the river discharge in a series of simulations. In the latter case, we imposed unequal tidal forcing at the two downstream boundaries that had a symmetric geometry. In tide-influenced deltas, the asymmetric tides between downstream channels can occur because the downstream channels are connected to other channels with different complexity, which may dissipate the tidal range or slow down the tides unequally before the tides propagate into the downstream channels of the bifurcation.

This paper is organized as follows. The model setup and methodology are described in Section 2. In Section 3, the results of the simulated morphological development are presented. Section 4 presents a discussion on the findings. Finally, the conclusions of this study are provided in Section 5.

2 Methodology

2.1 Model set-up

An idealized bifurcating channel was set up and its morphological development was simulated using the depth-averaged version (2DH) of Delft3D. This 2D approach is suitable for long-term and large scale morphodynamic modelling because it is computationally lighter than a 3D approach. Even though a 3D approach allows for vertical flow patterns (Lane et al, 1999)

such as curvature induced flow, which might be important for the sediment transport process (Daniel et al., 1999), the 2D approach also results in reliable morphodynamic simulations (Lesser et al., 2004). Furthermore, the reason to prefer the 2D above the 1D approach is to explicitly simulate cross-channel flow induced by tidal propagation from one branch to another at the junction as observed in Buschman et al. (2010) and Buschman et al. (2013) and as being identified by Bolla Pittaluga et

100   al. (2003) as an important process for sediment division at the junction.

The model solved the 2DH unsteady shallow water equations. For bed friction the Chézy formulation was used with a value of 60 $m^{1/2}s^{-1}$, while the horizontal eddy viscosity was set to 10 m^2s^{-1}. Bedload and suspended load sediment transport were calculated by the van Rijn (1993) method. We used medium sand with a single grain size of 0.25 mm with a dry bed density

105   of 1600 kg m^{-3}. Transverse bed slope effects for bedload transport were accounted for by the approach of Ikeda (1982) and we used a value of 10 for α_{bn}. For streamwise bed slope effects the Bagnold (1966) approach was used with a value of α_{bs} =1. For morphology the MorFac approach was used (Lesser et al., 2004; Roelvink, 2006) with an acceleration factor of 400. We tested several values between 1 and 1000, and chose the largest value for which morphology had similar development as for value of 1 and numerical stability was satisfied. This allows for long-term morphodynamic simulation at time scales of decades

110   (Lesser et al., 2004) and centuries (van der Wegen et al., 2008) in much shorter duration. Furthermore, in this study, non-erodible channel banks were used. This limitation was acceptable since changes in width-depth ratio could still be accommodated by the bed level change, and using erodible banks is not realistic as long as the model is not able to allow for channel bank growth.

115   The spatial domain consisted of an upstream channel that bifurcates in two downstream channels. The two downstream channels had a default length of 30 km, although in one series of simulations the length of one channel was 15 km. The upstream channel had a length of 220 km to ensure that upstream propagating tides decay smoothly. The downstream channels and the first 20 km of the upstream channel had a convergent width profile, while the upstream 200 km had a constant width. The channel width was configured by:

120     $$W_{upstream}(x) = \begin{cases} W_0 e^{-x/L_w}, & for\ x < 20\ km \\ 322\ m, & for\ x > 20\ km \end{cases},$$

$$W_{downstream}(x) = 0.5W_0 e^{-x/L_w}, \tag{1}$$

in which W(x) is the channel width, x the longitudinal distance from the junction (i.e. positive in upstream direction, x=0 is at bifurcation, hence negative x in downstream channels), W_0 is the width at the junction and L_w=50 km is the e-folding length scale. Further, in a region within 800 m near the junction an additional widening was applied (panel b in Figure 1) to overcome

125   the loss of two grid cells (see grid description and Kleinhans et al. (2008)). This widening is a typical feature of bifurcations found in delta systems (Kleinhans et al., 2008). After the additional widening, W_0 becomes 750 m.

The spatial domain of the model was discretized in a curvilinear grid and followed the same method as in Kleinhans et al. (2008) and Buschman et al. (2010). At the bifurcation two grid cells had to be removed in the middle of the channel for

130   numerical reasons (Kleinhans et al., 2008), as illustrated in Figure 1. The grid cell length in along channel direction was 80 m. The upstream channel had 12 grid cells across the channel whereas in both downstream channels 5 grid cells were used. Therefore, the grid cell size in across channel direction was spatially varying in order to adapt the funnelling shape of the channel. Near the junction this resulted in typical grid cell width of 40 m. Based on grid size and channel depth a time step of 6 seconds was used in all simulations to have Courant Number smaller than 1. The domain had three open boundaries where

135   boundary conditions for flow and sediment transport were prescribed. At the upstream end of the upstream channel river discharge was prescribed and equilibrium conditions for sediment transport at inflow. At the ends of the two downstream channels M_2 tidal water levels were imposed and equilibrium sediment transport rates at inflow.

Because the formation of alternating bars will affect flow and sediment division at the junction, the channel depth and upstream

140   prescribed river discharge were chosen such that the system was in the overdamped bar regime (Struiksma et al., 1985). To this end, we conservatively followed the empirical classification proposed by Kleinhans and van den Berg (2011) . Therefore, the three connected channels had an initial depth of 15 m and a constant along-channel bed slope of 3×10^{-5}. The prescribed discharge was ranged between 500 and 2800 m^3s^{-1}.

2.2 Description of model scenarios and boundary conditions

145   Depth, width and length of the downstream channels of bifurcations in deltas can be unequal. Hence, in Case 1 we started the simulations with an unequal geometry, either being a difference in depth or length between the two downstream channels. We simulated the morphological evolution of the bifurcation until it approximately reached morphodynamic equilibrium (discussed later on). Note that length of the branches was fixed in time, while an initial depth difference not necessarily results in an asymmetric equilibrium depth because it can adapt. All simulations belonging to Case 1 were forced by equal tides from

150   downstream and river discharge from upstream (settings summarized in Table 1). The depth difference scenarios were performed in two different ways. First, simulations were started from a system in which the upstream channel and one downstream channel were 15 m deep, while the other branch was 7.5 m deep (called Depth1). The upstream 2 km of the shallow downstream channel was gradually changed over 2 km to avoid a sudden depth change near the bifurcation. In a second type of simulation, we started with uniform bathymetry of 15 m depth and simulated till morphodynamic equilibrium

155   was reached (called Depth2). Next, one downstream channel was made 0.5 m deeper and the other 0.5 m shallower. We studied the sensitivity of the results to the relative magnitude of tides over river discharge by changing the prescribed upstream discharge. The simulation with largest river discharge (2800 m^3s^{-1}) represents a river dominated system while the simulations with lower river discharge (500 m^3s^{-1}) represent the more tide-influenced systems.

160   In Case 2 the effect of unequal tidal forcing on morphological development was studied. In natural systems tides in the two downstream branches can be unequally forced. For example, when the two branches end in a shelf sea, amplitude and phase in the two channels can be different because they have a different position with respect to the amphidromic system in the shelf sea. Furthermore, in deltas with multiple bifurcations and unequal depths and channel lengths, tidal amplitude and phase differences will be present in the channels because propagation speeds and times in the channels are different. Hence, in Case

165   2 we started simulations with a symmetric geometry but with asymmetric tidal forcing, either being a tidal water level amplitude difference or a tidal phase difference. The corresponding settings of the simulations can be found in Table 1. The difference in downstream tidal forcing between the two channels was studied for values between zero and 0.75 m (η_1 in Figure 1 was 0.75, 0.5 or 0.25 m while η_2 was 1 m), while for another set of simulation the tides had equal amplitude but the phase difference was 10, 22.5, or 35 degrees (for M_2 tide this means one channel had delayed tides of 20, 46 or 72 minutes).

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   We also performed two control simulations (with symmetric geometry and equal tides) to study the equilibrium bed profiles in absence of any initial asymmetry. The morphology change simulated for Case 1 and Case 2 were caused by the asymmetric forcing/geometry and by the adaptation to the initial conditions. Therefore, the results of the control simulations can be used to better interpret the simulations of Case 1 and Case 2.

175   **2.3 Methods to evaluate model simulations**

   The morphological development of the bifurcation was observed by evaluating for each downstream channel the tidally and spatially averaged depth of the first 2km from the bifurcation (Figure 2, called h_1 and h_2 from hereon). This region was chosen because it determined the morphological development of the entire downstream channel. To determine whether the system was in morphodynamic equilibrium we analysed the evolution in time of h_1 and h_2. We stopped the simulation when the

180   changes in h_1 and h_2 were small. A true morphodynamic equilibrium, in the sense that no bed level change occurred in the entire domain, was never achieved. This is very common for morphodynamic simulations of estuaries (Van Der Wegen and Roelvink, 2008; Nnafie et al., 2018). Typical duration of simulations was between 1200 and 2400 years, depending on the prescribed river discharge.

185   To compare the depth of the two downstream channels, the depth asymmetry parameter Ψ_h was calculated as:

$$\Psi_h = \frac{|h_2 - h_1|}{h_1 + h_2} \; . \tag{2}$$

   A larger Ψ_h indicates a more asymmetric morphology. When Ψ_h is close to one this indicates an avulsion while a zero value indicates equal depth of the downstream channels.

   The sediment mobility was evaluated by calculating the width-averaged value of the Shields number two grid cells away from

190   the bifurcation, as illustrated in Figure 2. The Shields number at each grid point was calculated as:

$$\tau_* = \frac{\tau_b}{(\rho_s - \rho_w)gD_{50}},$$ (3)

where τ_b is the bed shear stress magnitude, $\rho_s - \rho_w$=1650 kg m^3 and g is gravitational acceleration (9.81 m^{2}s^{-1}). In tide-influenced systems, tides cause a temporal change of bed shear stress and we calculated both the peak and the tide-averaged value of the Shields number. A Shields asymmetry parameter $\Psi_{\tau*}$ was defined and calculated by:

195    $$\Psi_{\tau*} = \frac{|\Delta\overline{\tau_{*;1,2}}|}{\overline{\tau_{*,1}} + \overline{\tau_{*,2}}},$$ (4)

where $\overline{\tau_{*,1}}$ and $\overline{\tau_{*,2}}$ are the width-averaged Shields number in each downstream channel and $\Delta\overline{\tau_{*;1,2}}$ is the difference between both. A higher value of $\Psi_{\tau*}$ indicates a more asymmetric sediment mobility condition while Ψ_τ=0 indicates a symmetric sediment mobility. When $\Psi_{\tau*}$ was based on peak bed shear stresses it is denoted by $\Psi_{\tau*max}$ while $\Psi_{<\tau*>}$ is used when it is based on tidally averaged bed shear stresses.

200   At the grid locations where we determined the Shields number, we also determined the tidally averaged (U_0) and the M_2 tidal (U_{M2}) flow magnitudes, in a similar way as for the Shields number. Furthermore, we calculated the width-integrated and tidally averaged bedload and suspended load transport at the cross-sections shown in Figure 2.

3 Results

3.1 Evolution of control runs

205   Results of the two control simulations show that bed levels were initially not in morphodynamic equilibrium. The time-stack diagram of width-averaged depth as a function of space is shown in Figure 3. The morphology changed over time until an approximate equilibrium was reached, which took about 1200 years. There are two time-scales involved. First, there are deposition fronts from the upstream channel that migrate downstream. Second, there is a slower adaptation to the equilibrium condition. The results also show that true morphodynamic equilibrium, in the sense that bed levels are steady, was not achieved

210   after 1200 years. However, bed level changes were small at the end of the simulation. The lowest discharge resulted in the smallest depth for the upstream channel, but the depth of the two downstream channels does not depend on the discharge. Typical depths are around 8 - 10 m for the downstream channels, and 10 – 12 m for the upstream one.

3.2 Geometry difference case

When simulations started with unequal channel depth, a similar evolution as the control simulations occurred. The

215   morphological evolution was characterized by three typical time scales. First, there was erosion near the bifurcation, mainly because of the decrease in the cross-sectional area directly seaward of the bifurcation. Second, this erosion was followed by deposition fronts that migrated downstream during the simulation. This deposition front can be identified by a rapid decrease of the depth in the downstream channels at the beginning or halfway the simulation (Figure 4). It is similar to the evolution of Control_Q2800 and Control_Q1596, but this depositional front was not necessarily similar in the two downstream channels

220   because of the imposed differences in the initial bed level. Furthermore, in the lowest discharge simulations (Q=500 m³s⁻¹) it
takes much longer for the deposition front to reach downstream boundary and therefore it takes much longer before the system
is in the steady state. Third, after the initial adaptation phase, the morphology of the channels started to change gradually.
Some simulations took 2400 years (Q=500 m³s⁻¹) until the morphological changes near the junction were small. Furthermore,
the results show that at the end of the simulation the depth of the shallow branch depends on the discharge (Figure 4). The

225   higher the discharge, the shallower the branch is. For the deepest branch it is the other way around. The deepest branch is
shallowest for the lowest discharge.

The simulations that were based on perturbed equilibrium depth (Depth2) had a different morphological evolution and final
equilibrium than the ones that started with 7.5 m depth difference (results not shown). The Depth2 simulation did not show

230   the fast, initial depth response, but was mainly characterized by a slow adaptation to a new equilibrium because the system
was still close to equilibrium at the start of the simulation. It took relatively long to achieve the new equilibrium and total
simulation time was 2400 years in this case. Interestingly, although the external forcing for the Depth1 and Depth2 simulation
were the same, the final equilibria were different. Because the depth in the channels influences the tidal dynamics (by for
example friction), the tide-induced flows were different at the junction and stayed different during the entire simulation. Hence,

235   the equilibrium not only depends on external forcing but also on initial conditions. The initial and final morphology near the
bifurcation for all Depth1 and Depth2 simulations can be seen in Appendix A.

The simulations with Length difference show that the shortest branch developed to be the deepest, while the longest became
very shallow (Figure 5). The longest branch becomes so shallow that it becomes morphologically inactive. This occurred for

240   both the highest and for the medium discharge scenario and is also independent of the initial conditions (starting with
equilibrium bathymetry and shortened channel, or with 15 m deep channels). Meanwhile, the shortest channel was deepest for
the highest discharge condition. The final morphology near the bifurcation for the simulations in Length difference scenario is
provided in Appendix A.

3.3 Tide difference case

245   Asymmetric forcing of tides resulted in asymmetric morphological evolution. Because the system started out of equilibrium,
the morphological evolution is again characterized by a quick adaptation followed by a slow evolution to the equilibrium.
When forced by different tidal amplitude, the downstream branch with the smallest downstream tidal forcing evolved into the
shallowest branch (Figure 6). Interestingly, when tidal amplitude in Branch 1 was decreased from 0.75m to 0.5m or even
0.25m the bifurcation evolved into a less asymmetric system. Furthermore, when the two downstream channels were forced

250   by equal amplitudes, but with different phase, this also resulted in the development of an asymmetric morphology of the
bifurcation (Figure 7). In general, the channel with delayed tides developed smallest channel depth while the channel with
earlier tides developed deeper channels. Interestingly, the deposition front in the shallowest branch became stagnant for the

largest imposed phase differences, suggesting that the flow magnitude was below the threshold for erosion (static equilibrium). However, the depth around the bifurcation did not become zero and still evolved. The larger the difference in tidal phase at the

255 two downstream boundaries the shallower the delayed branch became, while the other branch was deeper. The final morphology near the bifurcation for all simulations of this case is provided in Appendix A.

4 Discussion

4.1 Relation between tides and the morphological evolution of bifurcations

The results suggest that tides cause less asymmetric bifurcations. To quantify how tides affect the morphology, the results from

260 all scenarios were correlated. Figure 8 shows a scatter plot and linear fit between the final Ψ_h (dimensionless depth asymmetry) and $\Psi_{\tau*}$ (dimensionless Shields asymmetry) for all model simulations. As can be seen, Ψ_h is linearly correlated with $\Psi_{<\tau*>}$ and $\Psi_{\tau*max}$. Hence, the degree of asymmetry in the morphology is directly related to the degree of asymmetry in the sediment transport capacity. From comparison of $\Psi_{<\tau*>}$ and $\Psi_{\tau*max}$ against Ψ_h, $\Psi_{\tau*max}$ shows the strongest relation and therefore the maximum mobility, which occurred during the peak ebb flow in our simulations, is the most representative to determine the

265 morphological asymmetry of the downstream channels.

According to Eq. (3), in a system with uniform sediment properties and water density, the sediment mobility in the downstream channels only depends on the total bed shear stress τ_b. Because in the downstream channels the flows are mainly in along-channel direction, the total bed shear stress τ_b magnitude can be expressed by $\tau_b = \frac{\rho g u^2}{C^2}$, in which C is the Chézy coefficient

270 and u is instantaneous along-channel flow velocity. Based on a harmonic analysis, it became clear that the mean flow (U_0) and M_2 component (U_{M2}) were the main tidal constituents and higher harmonics like M_4 were relatively small. Therefore, the maximum sediment mobility scales very well with the square of summation of U_{M2} and U_0 ($\tau_{*max} \sim (U_{M2} + U_0)^2$).

The relatively strong river discharge in the simulations performed causes the ratios of U_0 and U_{M2} in the upstream channel

275 cross section near the junction to be in the range between 0.2 and values slightly larger than 1 (see Figure a in Appendix A). This similar importance between those components indicates that our model is a mixed river- tide-influenced system. For most simulations, U_0, dominated by the river flow, in the two downstream branches was more asymmetric than U_{M2} (see Figure b Appendix A). In river-dominated systems, bifurcations with higher flow division asymmetry will also develop a more asymmetric morphology (Kleinhans et al., 2008). Interestingly, the tidal flows oppose the asymmetry induced by U_0. U_{M2}

280 becomes less asymmetric with the increase of tidal influence, shown by the decreasing trend in Ψ_{UM2} for increasing sum of U_{M2} ($\sum U_{M2}$) in the two downstream channels (Figure 9a), in which the summed U_{M2} was measured from the width-averaged U_{M2} at cross section in the downstream channels shown in Figure 2. This explains why the increased tidal influence, indicated by larger sum of U_{M2} in Figure 9a and Figure 9b, causes less asymmetric bifurcations. Due to tides, the sediment mobility in

both channels is closer to each other than without tides (Figure 9b). A more tide influenced condition is not only achieved by

285   decreasing river discharge, but also by inducing an asymmetry in the tidal forcing in the downstream channels. For either
increased difference in amplitude or phase, the sum of U_{M2} in both downstream channels also increased and became similar in
magnitude.

There are two reasons that drive a less asymmetric tidal flow in the more tide influenced condition. First, the propagation of

290   tides from the dominant downstream channel to the other downstream channel balances the tidal flow in the two downstream
channels. This process mainly rules in tide difference case. Tidal forcing asymmetry between downstream channels drives
tidal propagation from one downstream channel to the other and results in phase lags of tidal flow inducing strong cross-
channel flow at the junction (similarly as discussed in Buschman et al. (2013)). This can be seen by a larger cross-channel
flow in the upstream channel near the bifurcations for larger asymmetry between the prescribed tides in Figure 10. This cross-

295   channel flow is dominated by the tides (V_{M2}) while its mean flow value (V_0) was close to zero. Strong cross-channel flows
caused erosion at the bifurcation, resulting in a trench-like scour connecting the downstream channels. This scour can be found
in the amplitude phase difference scenario and the most pronounced in the simulation Amp_0.25 (see Figure A2c-f in Appendix
A). Although a bar developed in the upstream channel on the side of the downstream channel imposed with lower tidal
amplitude, the cross-channel flows deepened the bed at bifurcation and maintained the connection between both downstream

300   channels and the upstream channel. The development of the trench-like scour at the bifurcations is also observed in the Berau
River Delta (Buschman et al., 2013) and Mahakam Delta (Sassi et al., 2011). This deepening at the bifurcation can be also
affected by the angle of the bifurcation, something we did not study here. Second, with equal tides imposed in the two
downstream channels for depth and length difference scenario, the larger river discharge in the dominant downstream channel
dampens the tides in this channel while the shallowing bed level in the other downstream channel increase the tidal flow in

305   this channel. As a result, this combining effect induces a less asymmetric tidal flow in the downstream channels.

4.2 Role of bedload versus suspended load

In the theory of Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2003) and Bolla Pittaluga et al. (2015) the lateral bed slope causes additional sediment
transport into the dominant channel, thereby having a stabilizing effect on the bifurcation. Here, we used the van Rijn (1993)
sediment transport formulations in which bed slope only affects the bedload transport and not the suspended load transport.

310   Based on this, we expected that bedload transport will be divided less asymmetrically than suspended load transport. To check
this hypothesis, the tidally averaged and width-integrated sediment transport at the cross-sections, shown in Figure 2, were
calculated. We calculated an asymmetry index similar as we did for the Shields number and depth. The results of the scatter
plot of suspended load asymmetry versus bedload asymmetry index clearly show that suspended load tends to be divided more
asymmetric at the bifurcation (Figure 11a). Only when the system is fully symmetric or asymmetric there is no difference in

315   asymmetry of bedload and suspended load transport. Note that this asymmetry trend could be different for different sediment
grain size. A finer sediment defined would result in a large sediment mobility which weaken the effect of lateral bed slope to

oppose the asymmetric division of bedload transport. Thus the asymmetry of bedload and suspended load would tend to be more similar. Furthermore, from a scatter plot of depth asymmetry (ψ_h) versus the ratio of bedload transport over suspended load transport in the upstream channel, it becomes clear that systems that have more asymmetric bed levels have a smaller

320   contribution of bedload transport to the total transport, and vice versa (Figure 11b). However, there is also some considerable scatter. Lastly, a scatter plot of the ratio of mean flow and M_2 flow magnitude versus ratio of bedload and suspended load transport in the upstream channel (Figure 11c) suggest that when river flow is relatively important, the system is suspended load dominated, while for more tide-dominated conditions bedload plays a more important role. This further explains why the more tide-dominated conditions result in less asymmetric morphology.

4.4 Implications of results

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From the finding presented in this paper, we can speculate how tides will influence the morphological evolution of deltas. In the seaward part of tide-influenced deltas, river flow tends to be small and tidal flows relatively large. In these regions we only expect asymmetry in morphology when the branches are unequally forced by tides. The tides tend to keep all the branches open and have similar depths. In the upstream part of deltas, river flows tend to be larger which can result in large

330   morphological asymmetries. However, the different possible pathways of the tide along the channel networks can generate tidal amplitude or phase difference between branches, inducing relatively strong tidal currents. This prevents the closure of one downstream channel and erodes the bed at the junction because of the strong cross-channel flows.

Morphological development of bifurcations occurs on a long time scale and several effects have been neglected. For example,

335   we did not include effects of sea level rise (Jerolmack, 2009; Van Der Wegen, 2013), changes in upstream discharge or sediment supply (Syvitski and Milliman, 2007), channel bank erosion or growth (Miori et al., 2006) nor did we account for delta front development that could change the length of a branch (Salter et al., 2017). However, we have provided a basic explanation on how tides can stabilize the morphology of deltas. There are many more processes that can affect the morphological evolution and these need to be studied as well.

5 Conclusions

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In this manuscript, the effect of tides on the morphological development of bifurcations was investigated using a numerical modelling approach in Delft3D. An idealized bifurcation was built by splitting an upstream channel into two downstream branches. The idealized bifurcations were forced by river discharge from upstream and tides from downstream. To identify the effect of tides, two cases were studied, namely geometry difference (length and depth of channels) and tide difference

345   (difference in prescribed tides at the two downstream channels).

The results show that increased tidal influence compared to river influence, results in a less asymmetric morphology of the bifurcation. This increased tidal influence can either be achieved by smaller river discharge or by asymmetric tides from downstream. The main mechanism is that tidal flows tend to be less asymmetric in the two downstream channels than tidally

350 averaged flows. This causes the peak Shields number in the branches to be closer to each other with increasing influence of tides. Furthermore, we have shown that bedload transport tends to be divided less asymmetrical than suspended load, suggesting the influence of lateral bed slopes on stabilizing the morphological evolution of the system. In our simulations, bifurcations with increased tidal influence had a relatively ratio of bedload over suspended load transport and therefore developed a less asymmetric morphology. Our results can explain why tides tend to stabilize the bifurcations in deltas.

355 **Code availability**

The model results presented were simulated using Delft3D software package (Delft3D-flow version 4.01.00.rc.04).

Author contribution

API, MvdV, and MGK designed the study. API conducted the numerical modelling, performed the output analysis and interpretation, and wrote the manuscript with major input from MvdV and MGK. MvdV peformed the output analysis and

360 edited the paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Table 1: Summary of simulations undertaken in the present study and their boundary conditions (river discharge and tidal properties), and geometry differences between the downstream channels.

Scenario	Simulation name	Q (m^3s^{-1})	η_{M2} (m)		$\Delta\theta_{M2}$ (°)	ΔL (km)	Δh (m)
			Branch 1	**Branch 2**			
Control simulation	Control_Q2800	2800	1	1	0	0	0
	Control_Q1596	1596	1	1	0	0	0
Depth difference	Depth1_Q2800	2800	1	1	0	0	7.5
	Depth1_Q1596	1596	1	1	0	0	7.5
	Depth1_Q500	500	1	1	0	0	7.5
	Depth2_Q2800	2800	1	1	0	0	1
	Depth2_Q1596	1596	1	1	0	0	1
Length difference	Length_Q2800	2800	1	1	0	15	0
	Length_Q1596	1596	1	1	0	15	0
Amplitude difference	Amp_0.75	2800	0.75	1	0	0	0
	Amp_0.5		0.5	1	0	0	0
	Amp_0.25		0.25	1	0	0	0
Phase difference	Phase_10	2800	1	1	10	0	0
	Phase_22.5		1	1	22.5	0	0
	Phase_35		1	1	35	0	0

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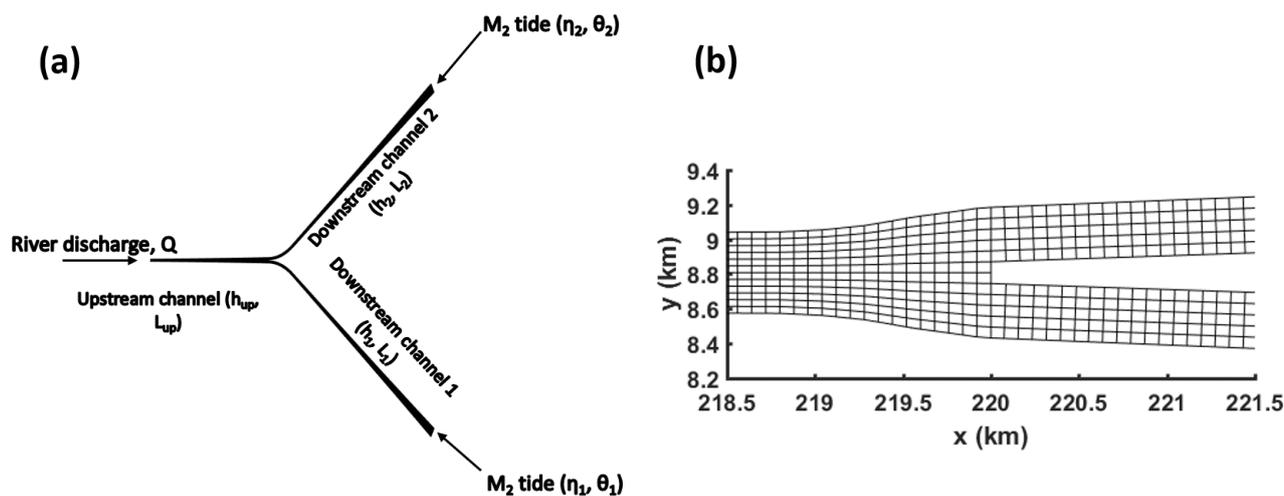


Figure 1: (a) Illustration of bifurcation model setup from the upstream channel forced by river discharge Q, to the downstream boundaries which are forced by tidal water levels. Here, h indicates the depth and L indicates the length of each channel. Meanwhile, η and θ indicates amplitude and phase of tidal water levels at each downstream boundary. (b) Zoom of model grid near the junction, showing the additional widening near the junction and the disappearance of two grid cells downstream of the junction.

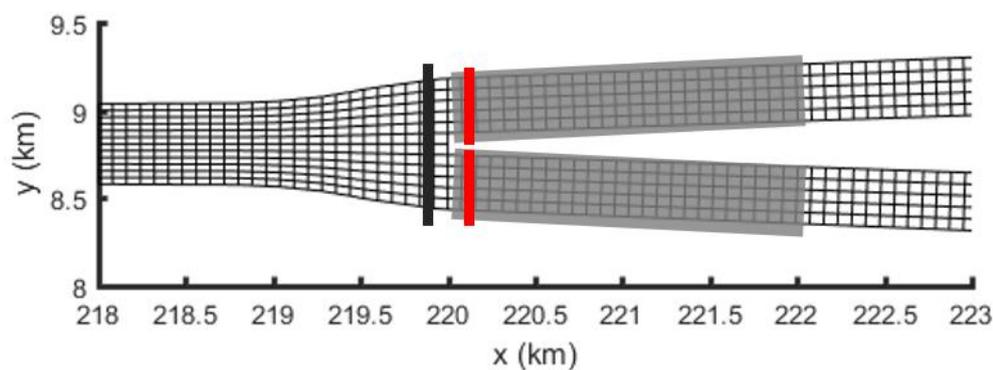



Figure 2: The grids in surrounding of the bifurcation overlaid by the areas where the bed level changes were evaluated (grey boxes), the grids where the asymmetry indices (red lines) and upstream channel flow (black line) were calculated.

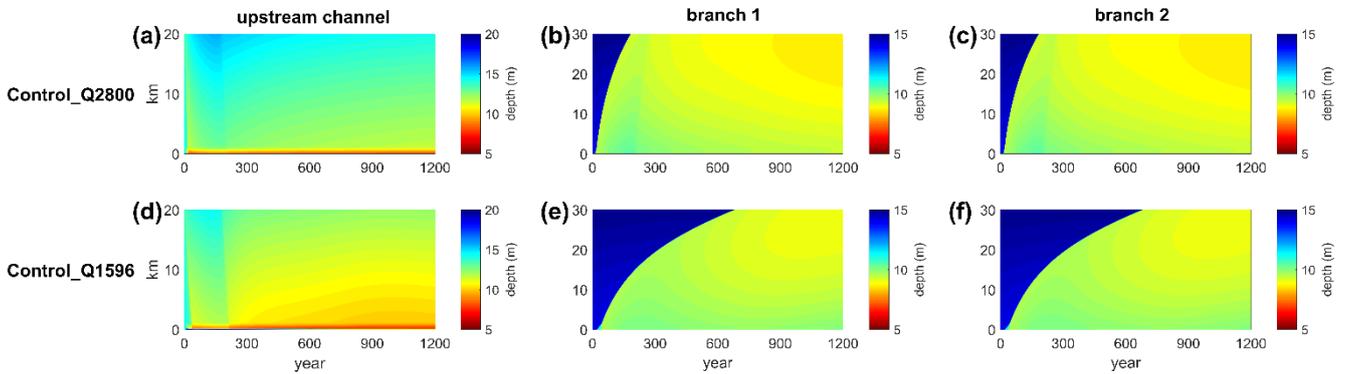



Figure 3: Time-stack diagram of width- and tide-averaged depth (colour) of the upstream channel (left panels; km 0 is junction, km 20 upstream) and downstream channels (middle and right panels; km 0 is junction, km 30 near sea) as a function of distance from the bifurcation (vertical axis) for the two control simulations. The top panels ((a), (b), and (c)) are the result from the high discharge simulation (Control_Q2800) while the bottom panels ((d), (e), and (f)) are for the low discharge simulation (Control_Q1596).

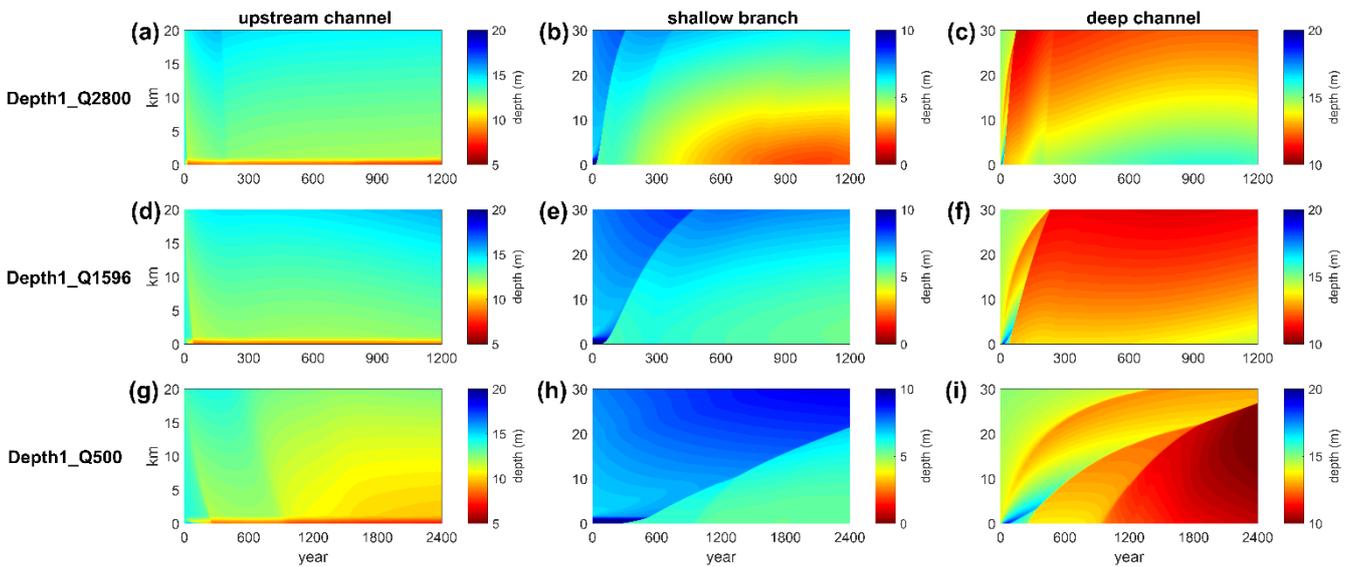



Figure 4: Same plot as Figure 3 but for simulations of Depth1. The panels from top to bottom show the results from different simulation (Depth1_Q2800, Depth1_Q1596, Depth1_Q500, respectively) while from left to right show the upstream channel, shallow branch, and deep branch, respectively. Different scale of colour bar for different channel is applied.

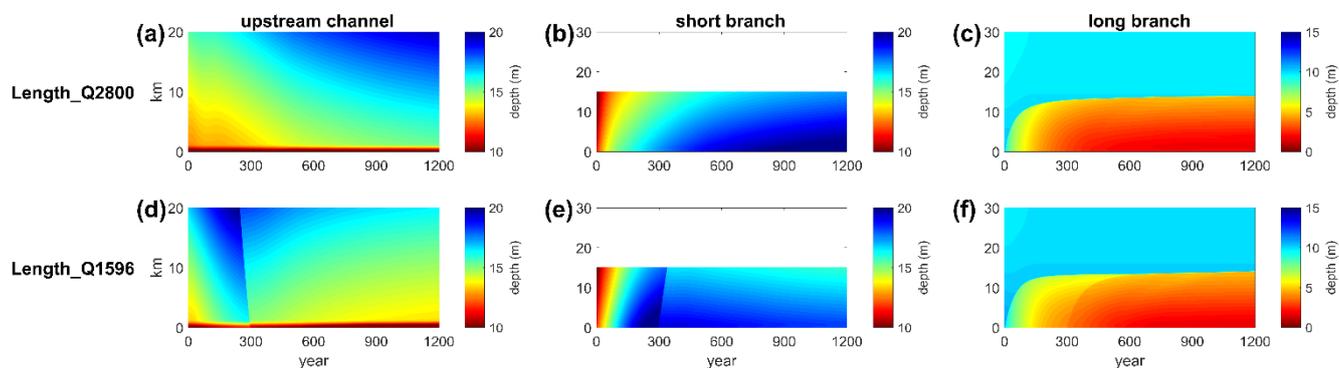



Figure 5: Time-stack diagram of width- and tide-averaged depth as a function of space for the simulations in Length difference scenario with the same order as Figure 4 but with short (panel (b) and (e)) and long (panel (c) and (f)) downstream branch.

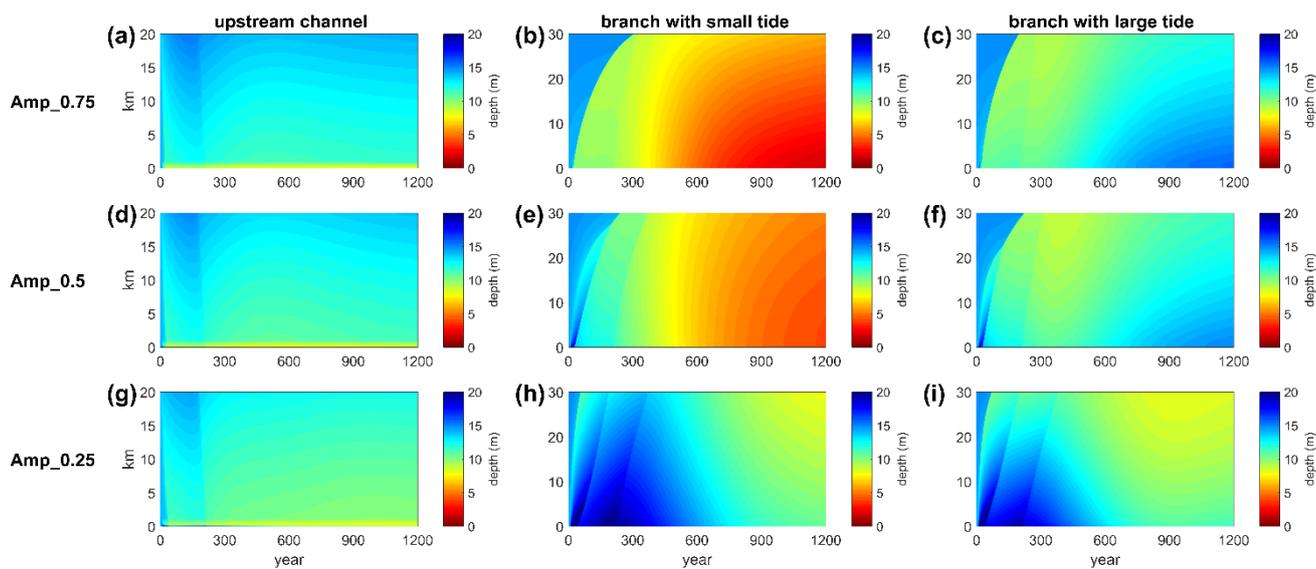



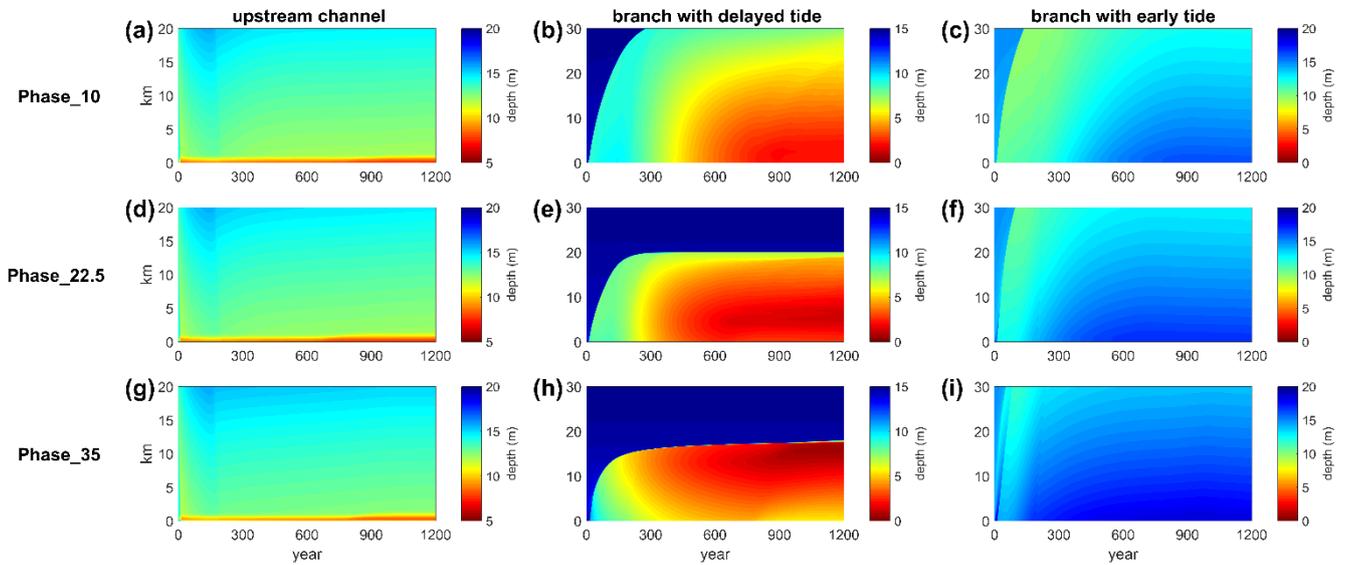
Figure 6: Time-stack diagram of width- and tide-averaged depth as a function of space for the Amplitude difference scenario.

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Figure 7: Time-stack diagram of width- and tide-averaged depth as a function of space for Phase difference scenario.
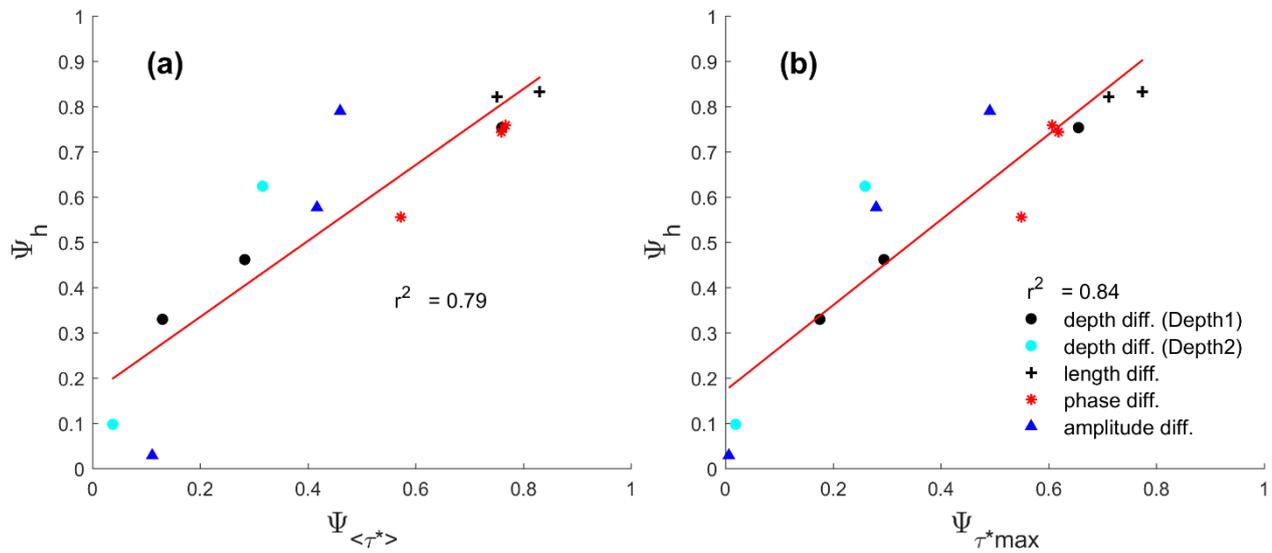
Figure 8: Relation between depth asymmetry number Ψ_h and: (a) the asymmetry in tidally averaged Shields number ($\Psi_{<\tau*>}$), and (b)
485 **the asymmetry in peak Shields number ($\Psi_{\tau*max}$) at the equilibrium condition for all simulations from scenarios described in Table 1.**
Note that in panel a, two simulations of Phase difference scenario and a simulation of Depth1 scenario is slightly overlapping.
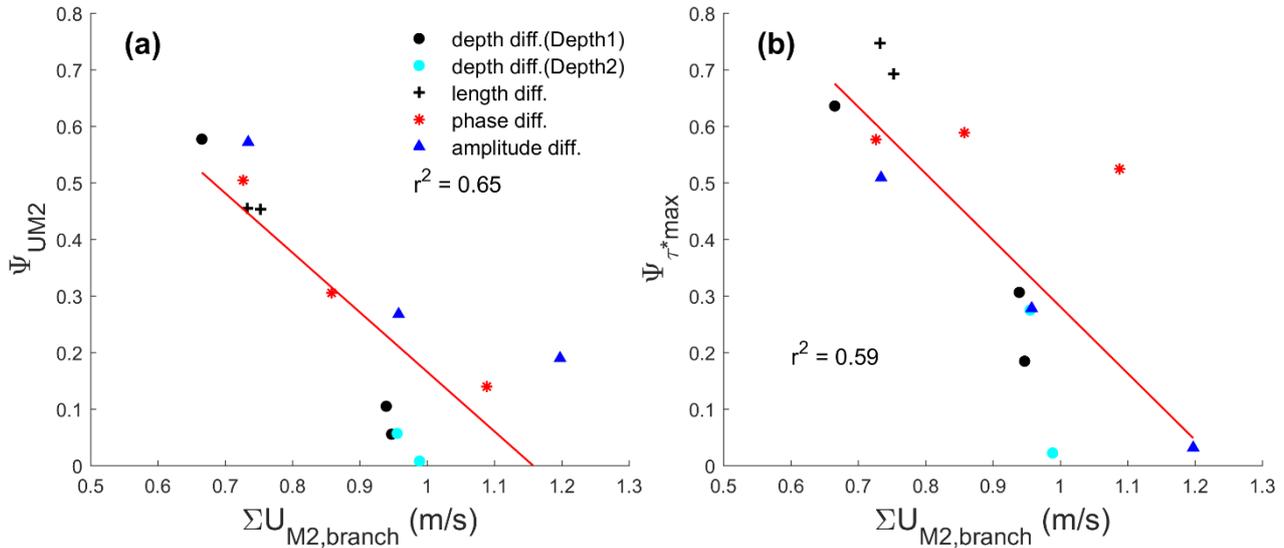
Figure 9. Comparison between: (a) tidal flow asymmetry and (b) Peak Shields number asymmetry in the two downstream branches
490 **against the total tidal flow magnitude from the two downstream channels.**
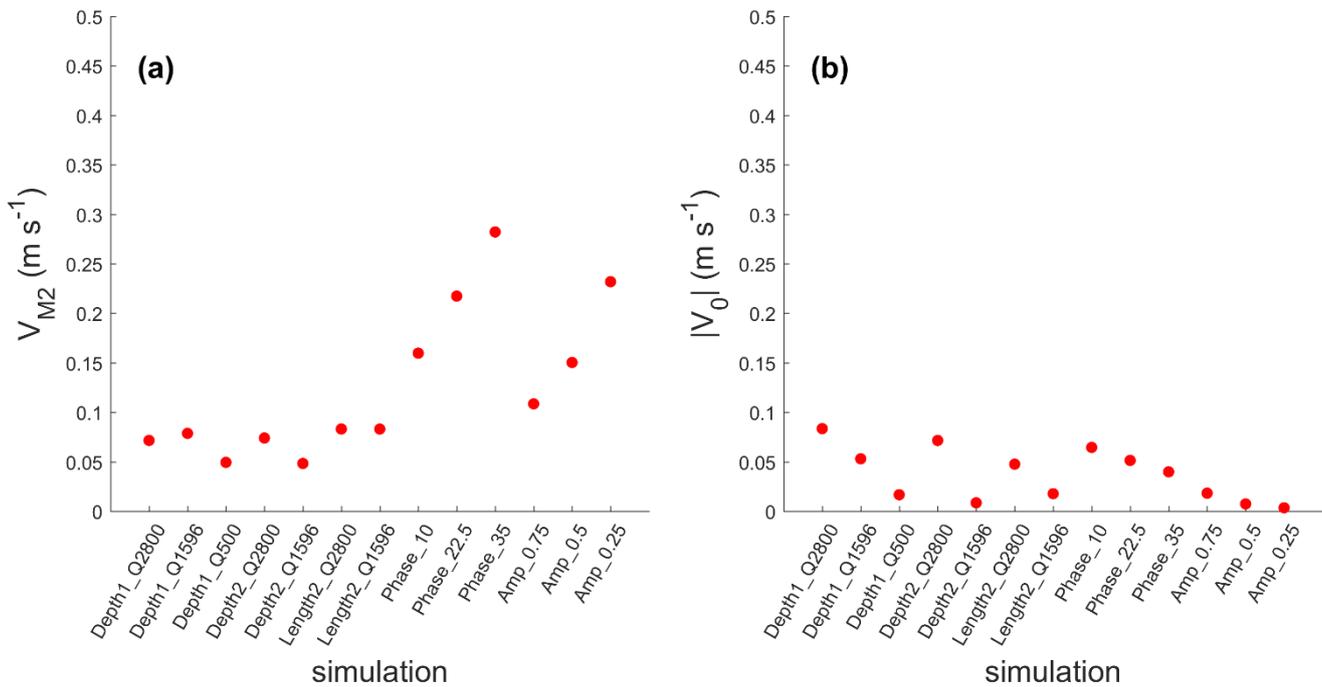
Figure 10: Cross channel flow of: (a) tidal current amplitude and (b) mean current at bifurcation in the upstream channel for all simulations.

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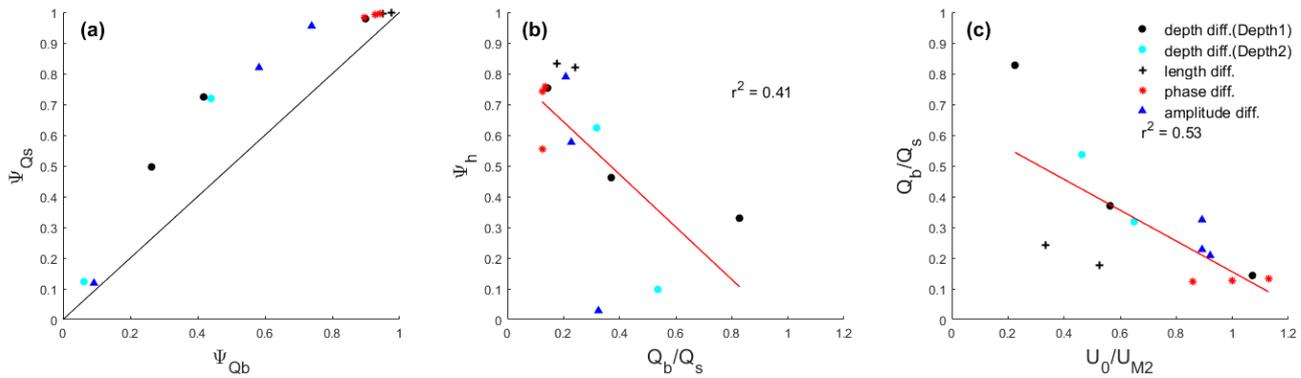
Figure 11. Comparison of: (a) Suspended load asymmetry ($\Psi_{susp\ load}$) against bedload asymmetry ($\Psi_{bedload}$) overlaid by the line of equality (black line), (b) Scatter plot of morphology asymmetry (Ψ_h) against ratio of bedload and suspended load transport in the upstream channel, and (c) Scatter plot ratio of bedload and suspended load transport in the upstream channel against the dominance of river flow over tidal flows in the upstream channels. The legend for all panels is provided in panel c.

Appendix A
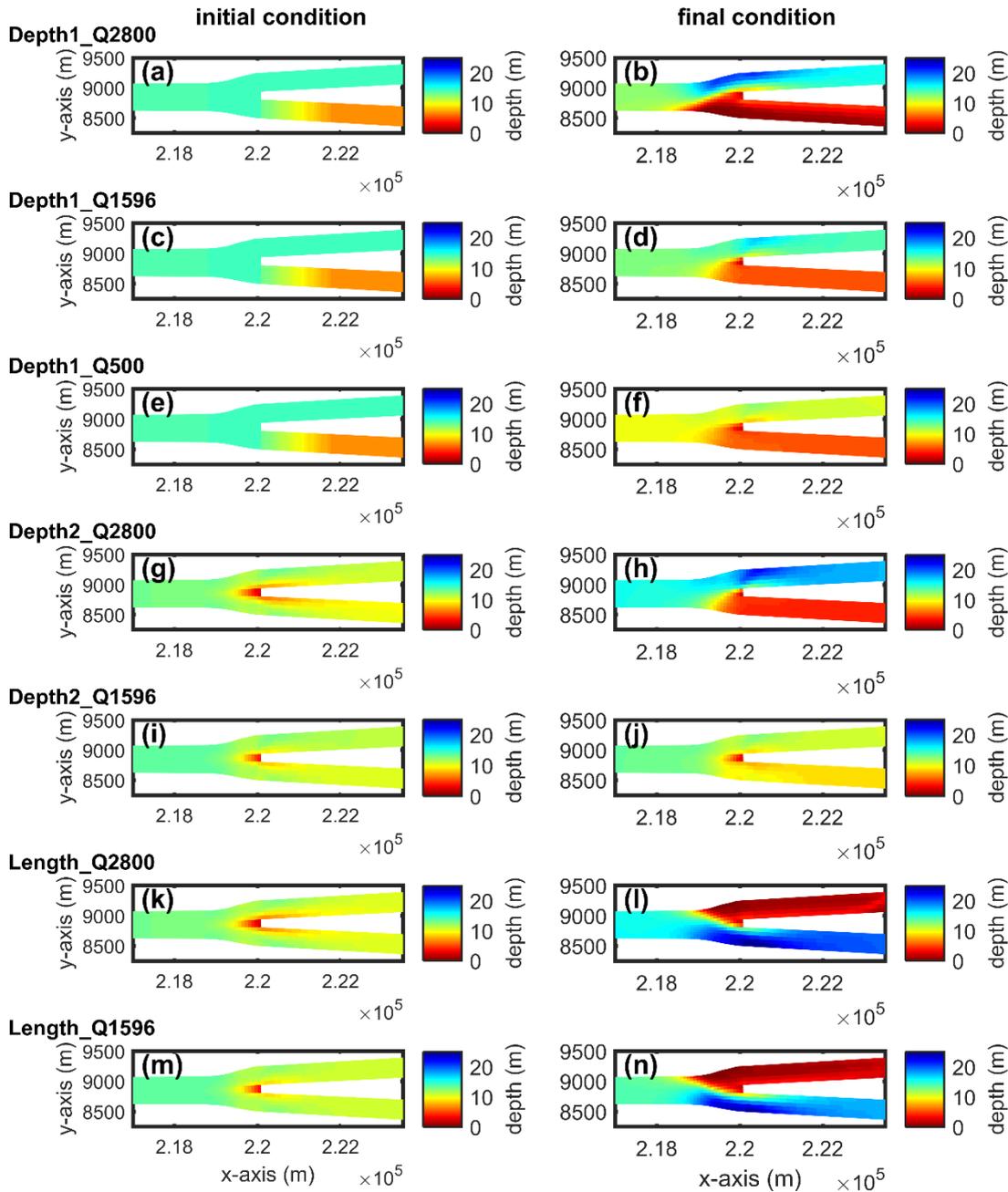
Figure A1: Initial (left panels) and final (right panels) depth near the bifurcation for all simulations in Case 1. For Depth difference scenario (panel a-j), the top branch in each panel is the deep downstream branch and the bottom one is the shallow downstream branch. For Length difference scenario (panel k-n) the top branch in each panel is the long downstream branch and the bottom branch is the short downstream branch.

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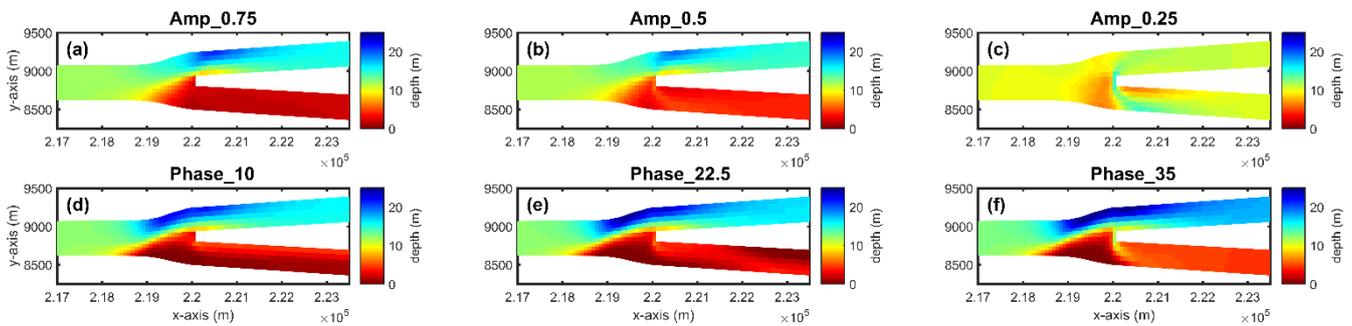
Figure A2: Final depth for Case 2. For amplitude difference scenario (panel a-c) the downstream branch imposed by low tides is the bottom branch while for phase difference scenario (panel d-f) the bottom branch is the downstream branch imposed by delayed tides.

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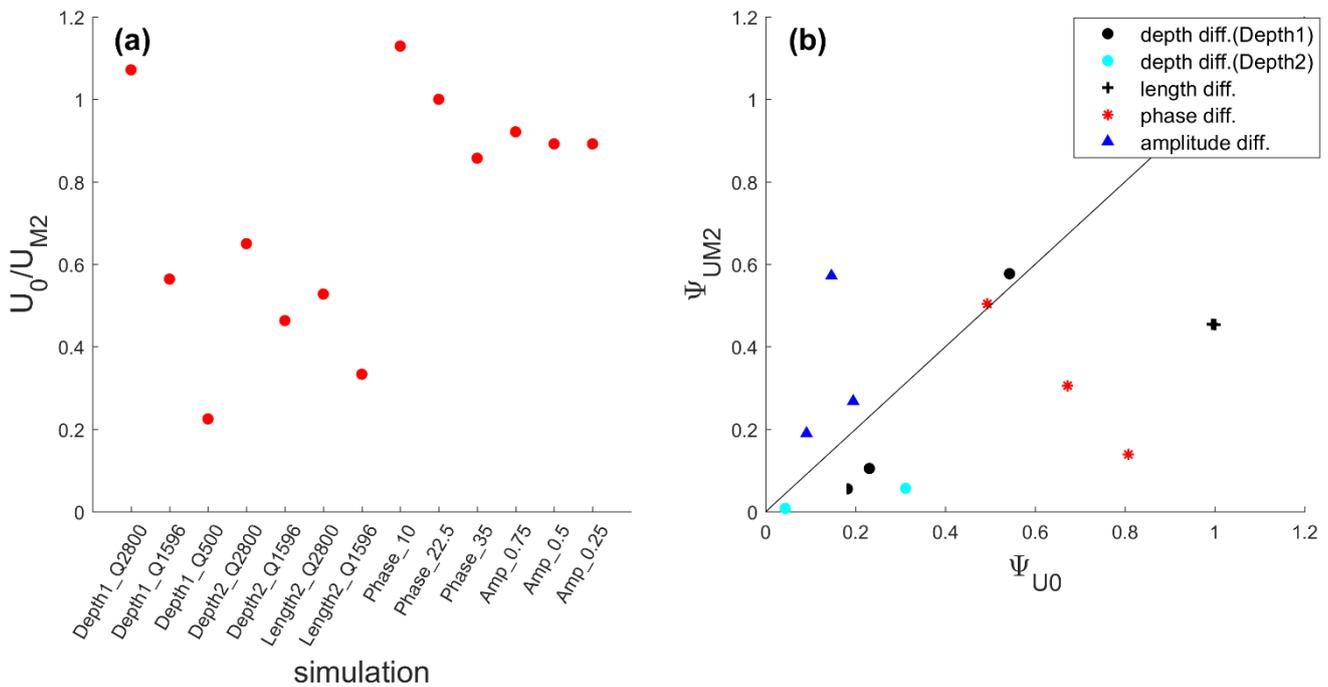
Figure A3: (a) Ratio of U_0 and U_{M2} for all simulations and (b) Comparison of asymmetry of U_{M2} against asymmetry of U_0.

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