

## A Morphodynamic Modeling Study on the Formation of the Large-Scale Radial Sand Ridges in the Southern Yellow Sea

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1 **A morphodynamic modeling study on the formation of the large-scale radial sand**  
2 **ridges in the Southern Yellow Sea**

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17  
18 **Key Points:**

- 19 • The fan-shaped morphology of the large-scale radial sand ridges is numerically  
20 simulated.
- 21 • The formation of radial sand ridges requires specific conditions primarily characterized  
22 by the tidal wave system.
- 23 • The mechanism underlying the asymmetric spatial pattern of the radial sand ridges is  
24 revealed.  
25

## 26 **Abstract**

27 The governing factors underlying the formation of the fan-shaped large-scale radial sand ridges  
28 (denoted as “RSRs” hereafter) off the Jiangsu Coast, China, are investigated using an idealized  
29 morphodynamic model. A series of simulations are performed to analyze the effects of the M<sub>2</sub>  
30 tidal constituent along the boundary, the Coriolis forcing, the bed resistance and the sediment  
31 availability on the morphodynamic behavior of the RSRs. Numerical results indicate that the  
32 tidal regime, characterized by the rotational and progressive tidal wave systems, is dependent on  
33 the east coastline of China as well as their specific geographic latitude. Through the comparison  
34 between the simulated and the measured morphology, this tidal regime is demonstrated to be the  
35 key driver in forming and maintaining the present-day RSRs. The sensitivity runs further suggest  
36 that the asymmetric pattern of the RSRs, which shows larger northern sand ridges than the  
37 southern ones, results from both the asymmetric distribution of the tidal wave systems and  
38 unequal sediment supply. Overall, this study highlights the delicate balance, predominantly  
39 represented by the special tidal wave systems and the sediment availability, required to shape the  
40 striking large-scale RSRs in the Southern Yellow Sea.

41 **Keywords:** Radial sand ridges; Morphodynamic modeling; Tidal wave systems; Jiangsu Coast;  
42 Southern Yellow Sea

## 43 **1 Introduction**

44 Sand ridges are geomorphological features widely distributed in estuaries (e.g., the Thames  
45 Estuary, Harris, 1988), coastal bays (e.g., the Gulf of Korea, Off, 1963), the ends of straits (e.g.,  
46 the Dover Straits, Caston, 1981) and continental shelves (e.g., the North Sea and the East China  
47 Sea, Belderson et al., 1982; Stride, 1982; Yang, 1989). The formation of sand ridges favors an  
48 environment where abundant sediment is available and the hydrodynamic regime is sufficiently  
49 strong to transport sediments (Dyer & Huntley, 1999; Liu & Xia, 1985; Off, 1963; Pattiaratchi &  
50 Collins, 1987; Swift, 1975). Most sand ridges around the world are hidden subaqueous  
51 landscapes characterized by striking and intricate morphologies, which have received  
52 considerable Holocene shelf deposits and/or fluvial sediment supply. These sediments are  
53 subsequently reworked by both terrestrial and marine processes, including river inflows (Giosan  
54 et al., 2005), wind waves (Hulscher et al., 1993), tidal currents (Van de Meene & Van Rijn,  
55 2000a, 2000b), and storm surges (Calvete et al., 2001; Swift, 1975; Trowbridge, 1995).

56 Sand ridges typically exhibit horizontal length scales ranging from several kilometers (mostly in  
57 estuaries or river deltas) to hundreds of kilometers (generally on continental shelves), and are  
58 characterized by a “wave-length” of several kilometers and an inter-ridge depth of tens of meters  
59 (Gao & Collins, 2014). In most cases, the crests of sand ridges are parallel or subparallel to the  
60 main tidal current direction (Dyer & Huntley, 1999; Gao & Collins, 2014; Liu & Xia, 1985). At  
61 the end of straits or coastal bays where flow diverges or converges, sand ridges often show a  
62 fingered or radial planar pattern, such as the sand ridges observed at the Dover Straits (Caston,  
63 1981) and the Southern Yellow Sea (Liu et al., 1989).

64 Off (1963) was probably the first to define sand ridges as rhythmic linear sand bodies induced by  
65 tidal currents. Since then, the morphological characteristics and the dynamics of sand ridges have  
66 attracted a considerable research effort over the last 50 years, particularly on the tidal shelf seas  
67 around the UK, and on sand ridges in the North Sea and the Atlantic coast of North America  
68 (Caston, 1981; Collins et al., 1995; Dyer & Huntley, 1999; Houbolt, 1968; McBride & Moslow,

69 1991; Swift, 1975). Attention has been given to fundamental theories for the formation and long-  
70 term evolution of sand ridges, so that quantitative morphological prediction of sand ridges can be  
71 modeled (Dyer & Huntley, 1999). Huthnance (1982a) first derived the wavelength and the  
72 orientation of linear sand ridges, which were consistent with observed tidal sand ridges.  
73 Huthnance (1982b) further explained that the refraction of tidal currents over a sand ridge could  
74 generate a residual flow, which resulted in the convergence of sediment toward the crest of the  
75 sand ridge. This theory was further extended to explain other bed forms, such as shoreface-  
76 connected ridges (Calvete et al., 2001; Trowbridge, 1995; Walgreen et al., 2002), linear sand  
77 ridges (De Vriend, 1990), and long bed waves (Blondeaux et al., 2009). However, these highly  
78 schematized models cannot correctly evaluate the development of tidal sand ridges, when  
79 perturbations grow large and non-linear processes take over.

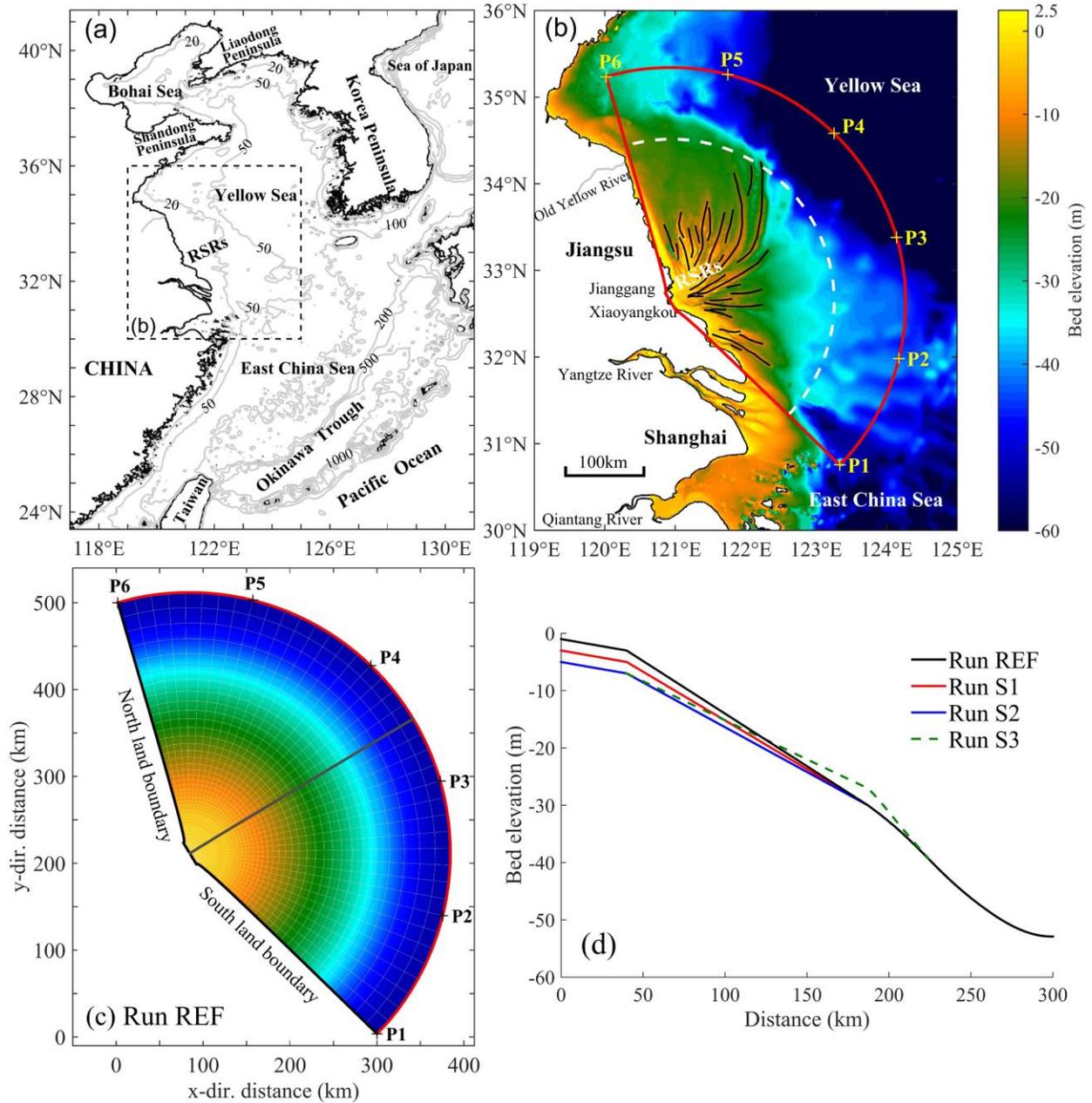
80 Recent advances on long-term morphodynamics by solving the non-linear governing equations  
81 numerically (Lesser et al., 2004; Roelvink, 2006; Wang et al., 1995) allow us to simulate the  
82 morphodynamic evolution of a system and hence to gain fundamental insights into the ontogeny  
83 of coastal landscapes (Zhou et al., 2014c; Zhou et al., 2017). Hibma et al. (2003, 2004) simulated  
84 the formation of finite-amplitude tidal sand bars in a long straight tidal basin. Marciano et al.  
85 (2005) investigated the channel-shoal patterns in a short tidal basin with both theoretical stability  
86 analysis and numerical modeling. These studies indicated that the morphological wavelength is  
87 related to the bed slope, the Shields parameter and the sediment availability. Moreover, the  
88 Coriolis force has also been found to pronouncedly affect the channel-shoal patterns in estuaries  
89 (Schramkowski & De Swart, 2002; Van Leeuwen & De Swart, 2002).

90 The largest sand ridge system along the Chinese coast (Wang et al., 2012b), the radial sand  
91 ridges (hereafter referred to as “RSRs”) in the Southern Yellow Sea are morphologically striking  
92 because of the remarkable size and radial planar orientation (Figure 1a and 1b). It has been  
93 suggested that the RSRs originated from the underlying Holocene strata relict (Li et al., 2001;  
94 Wang et al., 1999, 2012b; Yang, 1989) with sediments coming from the neighboring Yangtze  
95 River and the Yellow River (Lee & Chough, 1989; Milliman & Meade, 1983; Saito & Yang,  
96 1994). The Jiangsu coastline has advanced seaward for about 20-40 km over the last one  
97 thousand years, because of the abundant sediment supply (Wang et al., 2012b; Zhang, 1984).  
98 After the Yellow River diverted from the Yellow Sea into the Bohai Sea in 1855, part of the  
99 sediments of the Old Yellow River Delta were reworked and reformed into the RSRs (Zhou et  
100 al., 2014a), which in turn provided natural shelters for the tidal flats behind the offshore sand  
101 ridges.

102 Although originating in an earlier environment, sand ridges are dynamic systems which are  
103 undergoing modification in response to their present environment, especially the hydraulic  
104 regime (Dyer & Huntley, 1999). Many studies have been conducted attempting to elucidate the  
105 mechanism underlying the formation of the present-day RSRs (e.g., Du & Wang, 2014; Zhang et  
106 al., 1999; Zhu & Chang, 2001). The offshore tidal regime along the Jiangsu Coast have been  
107 recognized as the key driven forcing shaping the RSRs, which is supported by two observations:  
108 (1) both the tidal current fields and the morphology of the RSRs show similarly radial spatial  
109 patterns (e.g., Ren, 1986; Zhang et al., 1999; Zhang, 2012) and (2) several authors found that the  
110 radial tidal current patterns can be modeled in the absence of the RSRs (e.g., Qian et al., 2015;  
111 Xu et al., 2016; Zhu & Chang, 2001; Zhu & Chen, 2005). The radial tidal current fields are  
112 governed by the convergence of a progressive tidal wave from the East China Sea and a local  
113 reflected tidal wave formed by the obstruction of the Shandong Peninsula (Zhang et al., 1999;

114 see also Qian et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). Other dynamics, such as waves (Xiong et al., 2017)  
115 and storm surges (Ren et al., 1985), are considered to be less relevant to the radial morphology of  
116 the RSRs, although they can induce considerable short-term sediment transport.

117 The  $M_2$  tidal constituent is dominant in the RSRs (Ren, 1986; Uehara et al., 2002; Zhang, 2012),  
118 which has been considered as the major tidal forcing shaping the present-day RSRs (Xing et al.,  
119 2012; Xu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 1999). Previous conclusions about the formation of the RSRs  
120 were mainly based on the short-term tidal current fields and the analyses from classical  
121 theoretical studies (e.g., Huthnance, 1982a; Off, 1963; Zhang et al., 1999; Zhu & Chang, 2001).  
122 Although these indirect proofs are reasonable, a direct evidence lacks to demonstrate the casual  
123 relationship between the  $M_2$  constituent and the planimetric shape of the RSRs. In this study, a  
124 state-of-the-art morphodynamic model (Delft3D) is employed to investigate the long-term  
125 morphodynamic evolution of the RSRs. It is worth noting that this study does not aim to  
126 reproduce the exact morphology of the RSRs. We restrict the research questions to: (1) Whether  
127 the dominant  $M_2$  tidal constituent can shape the radial planimetric shape of the RSRs or not? (2)  
128 How do tidal regime and sediment supply affect the spatial pattern of the RSRs? By resolving  
129 these two questions, we intend to gain a more in-depth understanding of the mechanisms  
130 underlying the morphodynamics of the RSRs. This morphodynamic study also aims to facilitate  
131 further research effort to predict the long-term evolution of the RSRs under threats of sea level  
132 rise, reduced sediment supply and increased frequency of coastal storms.



133

134 **Figure 1.** Regional settings of the study area and schematized model configurations. (a)  
 135 Bathymetry of the Bohai Sea, the Yellow Sea and the East China Sea. The bathymetric data are  
 136 after the gridded bathymetry data of General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) with 30  
 137 arc-second interval grid; bathymetry contours are given in m. (b) Bathymetry of the Southern  
 138 Yellow Sea and the East China Sea. Location indicated by the black dashed box in panel (a).  
 139 Bathymetric data were measured in 2006. The black lines roughly denote the sand ridges in  
 140 RSRs system. The white dash sector covers the area of the radial sand ridges (RSRs) and is also  
 141 the area of morphological change in simulation scenarios. The red lines indicate the schematized  
 142 model geometry used in this study. The cross markers (P1 to P6) show the nodes for prescribing  
 143 tidal level along the boundary. (c) Plan view of the geometry, grid and bathymetry of the  
 144 schematized model. The color bar in panel (c) is the same as that of panel (b). (d) Longitudinal

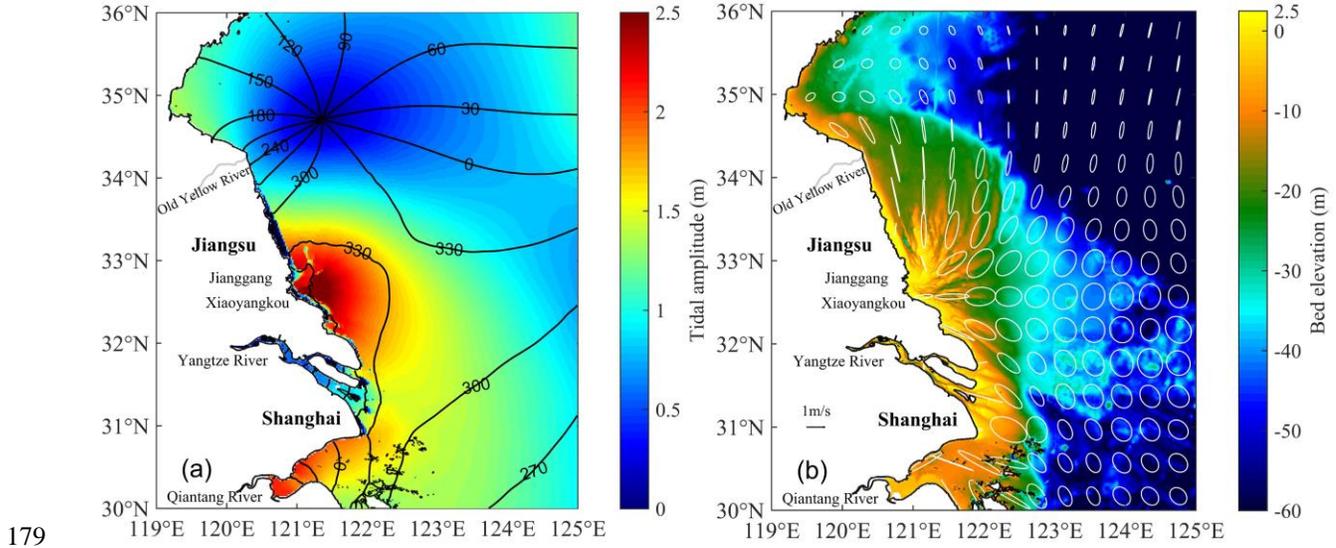
145 profiles of the bathymetry with different initial bed levels. Location of the longitudinal profile is  
146 indicated by the gray line in panel (c). The bed elevation is relative to mean sea level.

## 147 **2 Study area**

148 The RSRs off the Jiangsu Coast spread on the seabed on the western margin of the Pacific  
149 Ocean, where the long, gentle slope of the coastal plains extends offshore towards the semi-  
150 enclosed Yellow Sea (Figure 1a). The subaqueous sand ridges stretch more than 200 km from  
151 north to south and approximately 140 km from east to west, showing an approximately 150° fan-  
152 shaped spatial pattern centered on Jianggang (Xu et al., 2016). The plane scale of each sand ridge  
153 is up to 100 km long and 5-10 km wide (Liu et al., 1989), and the water depth in tidal channels  
154 can reach 30 m (Wang et al., 2012b). The spatial pattern of the RSRs is asymmetric  
155 characterized by northern sand ridges larger than the southern ones (Xu et al., 2016). The bottom  
156 sediment of the RSRs mainly consists of fine to very fine sand, with a mean grain size of 2-4  $\phi$   
157 (Liu et al., 1989; Wang & Ke, 1997) and the sediment mixture is well-sorted (Liu et al., 2012).

158 The tide over the sea area of the RSRs is semi-diurnal with a mean tidal range of 4-6 m (Zhang et  
159 al., 1999). The tidal currents tend to be radial in a planar pattern and strong in magnitude, with an  
160 average spring tidal current depth-average velocity being 1.5-2.0 m/s and a maximum tidal  
161 current velocity of over 2.5 m/s (Wang et al., 2012b). Under normal conditions, wave energy  
162 progressively decreases when crossing the RSRs so that wave heights of 7-9 m in the open sea  
163 are reduced to approximately 0.4 m at the coast. Under extreme wind conditions, although large  
164 waves with a wave height of 2 m can occasionally be observed, the probability is only 5% (Wang  
165 et al., 2012b). According to the meteorological record from 1949 to 2007, only 5 of the 76  
166 typhoons landed on the Jiangsu Coast or the Yangtze Estuary (Xu et al., 2016).

167 Figure 2 shows the co-tidal chart and tidal current ellipses of the  $M_2$  constituent. The area of the  
168 RSRs is influenced by two tidal wave systems, including the progressive tidal wave system from  
169 the East China Sea and the anti-clockwise rotational tidal wave system characterized by an  
170 amphidromic point approximately 220 km to the north of Jianggang (Figure 2a). These two tidal  
171 wave systems converge along the Jiangsu Coast, resulting in an approximately stationary tidal  
172 wave, of which the phase difference between the current velocity and tidal level is about 90°  
173 over the central RSRs (Li et al., 2001; Tao et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 1999). Both  
174 the magnitudes of the current velocities and the tidal amplitudes peak in the central RSRs, due to  
175 the convergence of the two tidal wave systems. The tidal current fields in the RSRs show a radial  
176 in planar pattern centered in Jianggang (Figure 2b), which is consistent with the fan-shaped  
177 morphology of the RSRs (e.g., Tao et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2016). The tidal current ellipses show a  
178 bidirectional flow in the north and a rotational flow in the south over the RSRs.



**Figure 2.** (a) Co-tidal chart and (b) tidal current ellipses of the  $M_2$  constituent in the Southern Yellow Sea (modified after Tao et al., 2018). The color code in panel (a) indicates tidal amplitudes with black co-phase lines in degrees. The color code in panel (b) shows the bed elevation of the Southern Yellow Sea.

### 184 3 Methodology

#### 185 3.1 Numerical model

186 An open-source morphodynamic model (Delft3D) is employed in the present study (Lesser et al.,  
187 2004). Since the model has been described in detail elsewhere (e.g., Van der Wegen & Roelvink,  
188 2008), the governing equations are not introduced herein. The numerical model solves the non-  
189 linear 2-D shallow water equations resulting in a detailed description of the flow field (i.e., water  
190 levels and velocities) over the model domain. The water level and the velocity fields are then  
191 utilized to calculate the sediment transport and the resultant bed evolution.

192 The sediment transport rate is calculated based on the local instantaneous flow condition using  
193 the widely-adopted formula of Engelund and Hansen (1967), which accounts for both bed load  
194 and suspended load (following e.g., Marciano et al., 2005; Van der Wegen & Roelvink, 2008;  
195 Van Maanen et al., 2013):

$$196 \quad S = \frac{0.05U^5}{\sqrt{g}C^3\Delta^2D_{50}} \quad (1)$$

197 where,  $S$  is the sediment transport flux ( $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ),  $U$  is the magnitude of depth-average flow velocity  
198 ( $\text{m}/\text{s}$ ),  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity ( $\text{m}/\text{s}^2$ ),  $C = H^{1/6}/n$  is the Chézy friction coefficient  
199 ( $\text{m}^{1/2}/\text{s}$ ),  $H$  is the water depth (m),  $n$  is the Manning coefficient ( $\text{s}/\text{m}^{1/3}$ ),  $\Delta$  is the relative density  
200 ( $(\rho_s - \rho_w)/\rho_w$ ),  $\rho_s$  is the sediment density ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $\rho_w$  is the water density ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^3$ ), and  $D_{50}$  is  
201 the median grain size (m). Effects of longitudinal and transversal bed slope on the sediment  
202 transport are accounted for following Bagnold (1966) and Van Rijn (1993) as described in detail  
203 by Van der Wegen and Roelvink (2008). The elevation of the bed is dynamically updated  
204 linearly by a morphological factor at each hydrodynamic time step according to mass  
205 conservation of sediment (Roelvink, 2006).

## 206 3.2 Numerical experiments

207 The computational domain is idealized on the basis of the east coast of China, such that the  
208 physical implications of different factors can be analyzed in a more straight-forward manner  
209 (Figure 1b). The embayment is a fan-shaped area of approximately  $150^\circ$  open angle. The center  
210 of the embayment is a 30-km long line segment, which approximates the distance between  
211 Jianggang and Xiaoyangkou (Figure 1b). The lengths of the two lateral closed boundaries are  
212 both 300 km. The embayment is discretized using an orthogonal curvilinear grid with  $200 \times 220$   
213 cells (Figure 1c). The sizes of the grid cells range from  $150 \times 200 \text{ m}^2$  at the landward segment  
214 to  $3.5 \times 4 \text{ km}^2$  along the seaward arc boundary for the consideration of the balance between the  
215 numerical precision and efficiency. The computational time to perform each long-term  
216 simulation (up to 2000 years) is approximately two weeks using a 3.7 GHz processor, 8.0 GB  
217 RAM personal computer.

218 A reference run (denoted as “REF” hereafter) is designed to reproduce the typical tidal wave  
219 system over the RSRs. The tidal amplitudes and the phases of the  $M_2$  constituent at points P1-P6  
220 along the seaward boundary are provided by a well-calibrated large-scale tidal wave numerical  
221 model according to realistic shoreline and bathymetry (Tao et al., 2009). Other components and  
222 their relevant spring-neap tide are not considered, since the  $M_2$  constituent is dominant in the  
223 RSRs. The Coriolis Force is calculated based on realistic latitude spatially varying from  $30.7^\circ\text{N}$   
224 to  $35.2^\circ\text{N}$  (Figure 1b). For the transparency of the idealized model, the initial water depths are  
225 set increasing radially from the central landward segment to the seaward boundary (Figure 1c).  
226 According to the overall variation of the bed elevation from the land to the sea (Figure 1b), the  
227 radial profile consists of a linear sloping upper-flat segment (0.05‰, Wang et al., 2012a), a  
228 relatively steep lower-flat one (0.18‰, Wang & Ke, 1997) and a deep-water one gently reducing  
229 the slope to zero (Figure 1d). Notice that the present-day RSRs have portions above the mean sea  
230 level that are exposed during low tide, but that those are not represented in the initial model  
231 bathymetry. The grain size  $D_{50}$  is simply unified as  $125 \mu\text{m}$ . A different value would not affect  
232 the simulated morphological patterns when using Engelund and Hansen (1967) formula, as  
233 pointed out by many authors (e.g., Dissanayake et al., 2009; Van der Wegen et al., 2008; Zhou et  
234 al., 2014c). It can be proved theoretically that only the morphological time scale is changed by  
235 changing  $D_{50}$ . Other physical parameters, such as the Manning coefficient ( $= 0.015 \text{ s/m}^{1/3}$ ), and  
236 the horizontal eddy viscosity coefficient ( $= 1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ), are set following previous studies (e.g.,  
237 Xing et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2016). At the seaward boundary, an “equilibrium boundary  
238 condition” technique is employed that the sediment load passing through the boundaries are  
239 “perfectly” adapted to the local flow. As a result of considerably large water depths, the erosion  
240 or deposition along the seaward boundary is negligible (e.g., Van der Wegen et al., 2008). This  
241 technique does not imply that the total amount of sediments is conserved within the  
242 computational domain, because sediment fluxes are allowed pass through the boundary.

243 Four sets of additional runs are presented to analyze the effects of the tidal boundary condition  
244 (T1-T3), the Coriolis Force (C1-C3), the Manning coefficient (i.e., the bed resistance, R1-R3)  
245 and the sediment availability (S1-S3) on the morphodynamics of the RSRs. All the runs are listed  
246 in Table 1 varying one model parameterization based on the reference case (run REF). The  
247 sediment availability is determined by the initial water depths in runs S1-S3. Arranging  
248 according to the initial sediment availability indicates that  $\text{REF}=\text{S3} > \text{S1} > \text{S2}$ . Notice that varying  
249 the initial water depths in runs S1 and S2 are accompanied by changes of bed slopes, which  
250 interfere with the analysis on the sediment availability. Therefore, run S3 is designed with a

251 smaller initial bed slope and the same sediment availability compared with run REF. All the runs  
 252 are simulated for a 2000-years with the time step of 2 min. Notice that the time scale “2000  
 253 years” here is just conceptual for the system to approach a dynamic equilibrium (as argued by  
 254 Zhou et al., 2017). Considering the gap in the time scales between hydrodynamic and  
 255 morphodynamic processes time scales, the morphodynamic evolution is scaled up linearly by a  
 256 morphological factor ( $= 200$ ) (Roelvink, 2006). Typical values of this factor for sandy  
 257 environments may range from tens to hundreds (e.g., Dastgheib et al., 2008; Ranasinghe et al.,  
 258 2011; Van der Wegen & Roelvink, 2008).

259 **Table 1.** Model configurations, including the tidal boundary conditions, the geometric latitudes  
 260 (i.e., testing the Coriolis Force), the Manning coefficients and the initial bed slopes (the blanks  
 261 indicate the same parameter as run REF).

Run ID	Tidal boundary							Latitude (°N)	Manning coefficient (s/m <sup>1/3</sup> )	Initial bed slope (‰)
	M2 tide	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6			
REF	AMP (m) phase (°)	1.0 0	1.05 12	0.75 45	0.60 90	0.45 180	1.05 270	real	0.015	0.180
T1	AMP (m) phase (°)	1.0 0	1.05 54	0.75 108	0.60 162	0.45 216	1.05 270			
T2	AMP (m) phase (°)	0.75 0	0.75 12	0.75 45	0.75 90	0.75 180	0.75 270			
T3	AMP (m) phase (°)	0.75 0	0.75 0	0.75 0	0.75 0	0.75 0	0.75 0			
C1								20		
C2								10		
C3								0		
R1									0.010	
R2									0.020	
R3									0.025	
S1										0.167
S2										0.153
S3										0.130

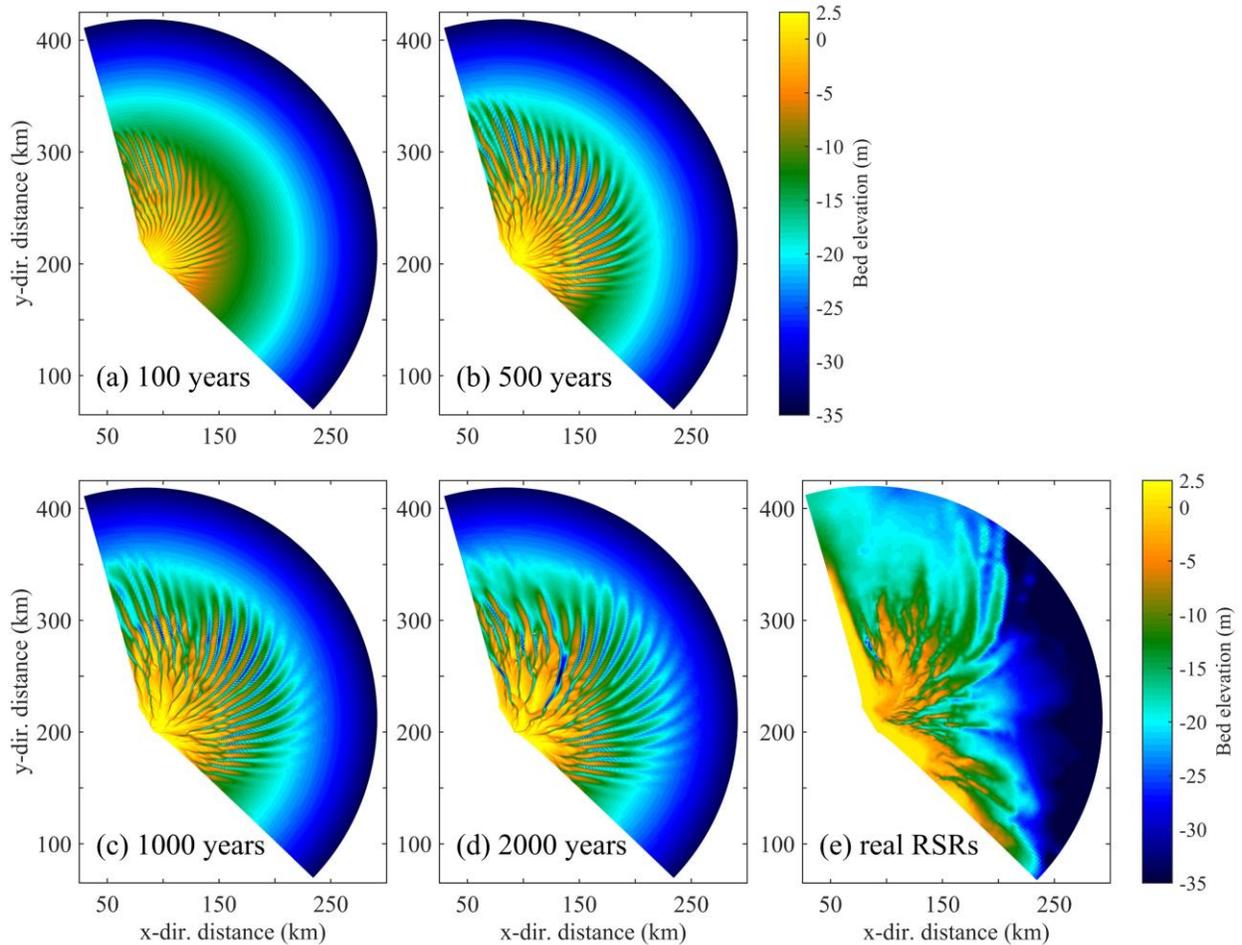
262 Note. “AMP” denotes amplitude; REF is the reference run, of which the simulated  
 263 configurations at the end look most like the real RSRs. The “real latitude” means that the latitude  
 264 varies spatial depending on the position of the cells in the model (from 30.7°N to 35.2°N). The  
 265 “initial bed slope” represents the second part of the profile as shown in Figure 1d.

## 266 4 Results

### 267 4.1 The simulated morphodynamic evolution

268 The simulated morphological patterns of run REF at years 100, 500, 1000 and 2000 are shown in  
 269 Figure 3. At year 100, a series of thin sand ridges are formed near the landward apex, where the  
 270 tidal current velocities are relatively large due to the convergence of the tidal waves. The sand  
 271 ridges are elongated in the north and relatively short in the south. This spatial variation in the  
 272 length of the sand ridges is related to tidal flow pattern: bidirectional in the north and rotational

273 in the south (Xu et al., 2016), see Figure 2b. Sediments continuously accrete in the central region  
 274 of the RSRs and the sand ridges near the apex gradually merge, leading to the formation of  
 275 several huge sand bodies (Figure 3b and 3c). At year 2000, the spatial patterns of the sand ridges  
 276 tend to be stabilized and show similarly radiated planar forms as the current RSRs.



277

278 **Figure 3.** Morphologies simulated in (a-d) run REF and of (e) the real RSRs.

279 To clarify whether the present system converges to a morphodynamic equilibrium (Zhou et al.,  
 280 2017), we quantify the morphodynamic evolution using the mean square root of the overall  
 281 variations in bed level relative to the initial state (as e.g., Garnier et al., 2006; Nnafie et al.,  
 282 2014):

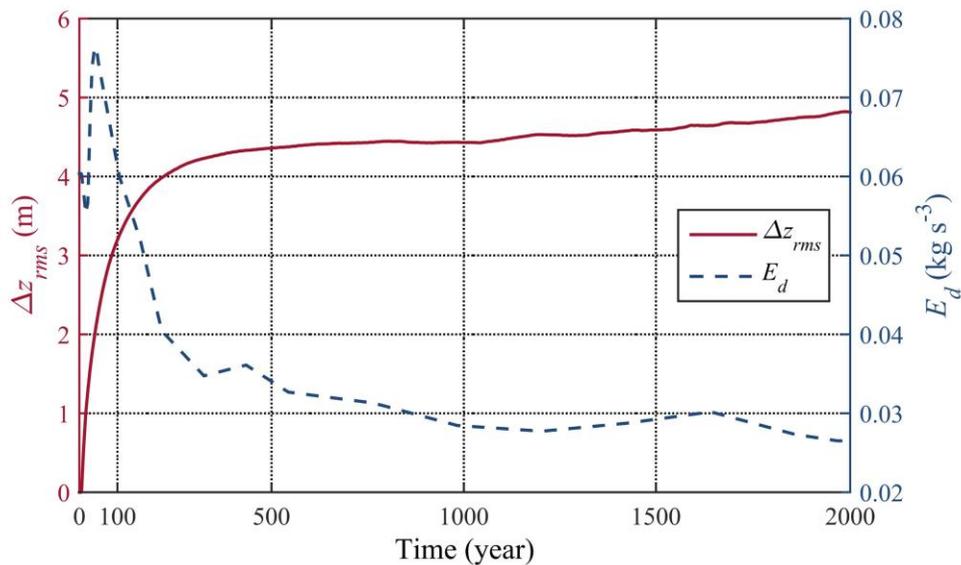
$$283 \quad \Delta z_{rms}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{A} \iint_A [z_t(x, y, t) - z_0(x, y)]^2 dx dy} \quad (2)$$

284 where  $A$  is the total planar area of the embayment, and  $z_0(x, y)$  and  $z_t(x, y, t)$  are the bed  
 285 surface elevations at time 0 and  $t$  respectively. The morphodynamic evolution can also be  
 286 considered as a self-organized process tending to minimize the energy dissipation caused by, for  
 287 example, the bed resistance and sediment transport (Rodríguez-Iturbe et al., 1992). The mean

288 energy dissipation is calculated following the expression proposed by Van der Wegen et al.  
 289 (2008):

$$290 \quad E_d = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A \left[ \left| \rho_w g n^2 \frac{U^3}{\sqrt[3]{H}} \right| + \left| \frac{0.05}{\Delta D_{50}} \rho_w \sqrt{g n^3} \frac{U^5}{\sqrt{H}} \right| \right] dx dy \quad (3)$$

291 The time series of the quantified bed evolution  $\Delta z_{rms}$  and the total energy dissipation  $E_d$  over  
 292 the 2000-year simulation period are shown in Figure 4. The energy dissipation is relatively high  
 293 at the beginning of the simulation, which implies that the initial bed morphology is far away  
 294 from the equilibrium configuration (Van der Wegen & Roelvink, 2008; Zhou et al., 2014b,  
 295 2014c). Correspondingly, the system experiences pronounced evolution with  $\Delta z_{rms}$  increasing  
 296 and  $E_d$  decreasing rapidly in the first 200 years. As the radial channel-ridge patterns are formed  
 297 between year 100 and 500 (Figure 3a and 3b), the variations of  $\Delta z_{rms}$  and  $E_d$  are both reduced,  
 298 indicating that the interaction between the tidal flow and the bed topography progressively  
 299 becomes milder. Around the year 1500, the variation of  $\Delta z_{rms}$  is minimal and the energy  
 300 dissipation  $E_d$  maintains at a low level. Therefore, it can be inferred that the system  
 301 asymptotically converges to morphodynamic equilibrium.



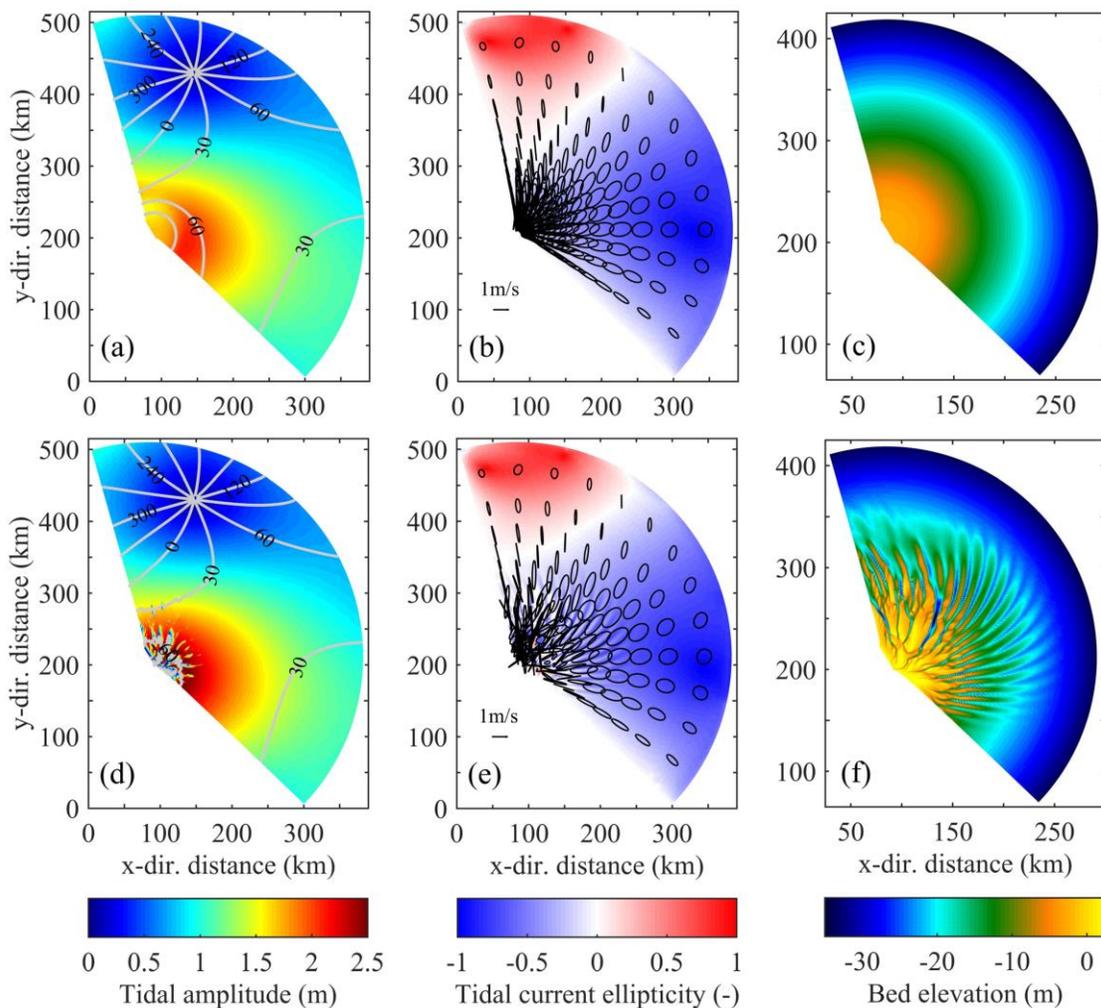
302

303 **Figure 4.** Time series of the overall variation of the  $\Delta z_{rms}$  and the energy dissipation per unit  
 304 area  $E_d$  averaged over a tidal cycle.

#### 305 4.2 The equilibrium configuration

306 Figure 5a shows the co-tidal chart of the  $M_2$  constituent in run REF calculated using the initial  
 307 bathymetry. The model successfully reproduces the typical tidal wave systems, which are  
 308 characterized by an amphidromic point located in the north and the convergence of the tidal  
 309 waves to the central area (e.g., Zhang et al., 1999). The tidal ellipses show a fan-shaped pattern  
 310 with their major axes mainly oriented towards the center of the embayment. Moreover, the  
 311 bidirectional and rotational tidal currents respectively occupy the north and south of the  
 312 embayment (Figure 5b), which is also consistent with the tidal current fields over the RSRs (e.g.,  
 313 Xu et al., 2016). On the other hand, small differences are also observed that the modelled

314 southern ellipses show less elliptical than the real case. This can be attributed to the restriction of  
 315 the land boundary, which extends farther seaward than the real coast. The resultant 2000-year  
 316 sand ridges show a similarly radiated spatial pattern and planimetric scale as the real RSRs  
 317 (comparing Figure 3d with Figure 3e). The sand ridges located in the north are elongated, while  
 318 those in the south are relatively short, which correspond to the distribution of the tidal ellipses  
 319 (Figure 5b and 5e). The sand ridges are bending anti-clockwise, which is related to the rotations  
 320 of the tidal ellipses in the centrifugal direction (Figure 5b). The tidal regime at year 2000  
 321 are overall in line with those at year 0 (Figure 5d), while the tidal currents tend to be bidirectional  
 322 in the channels even in the south of the RSRs (Figure 5e).

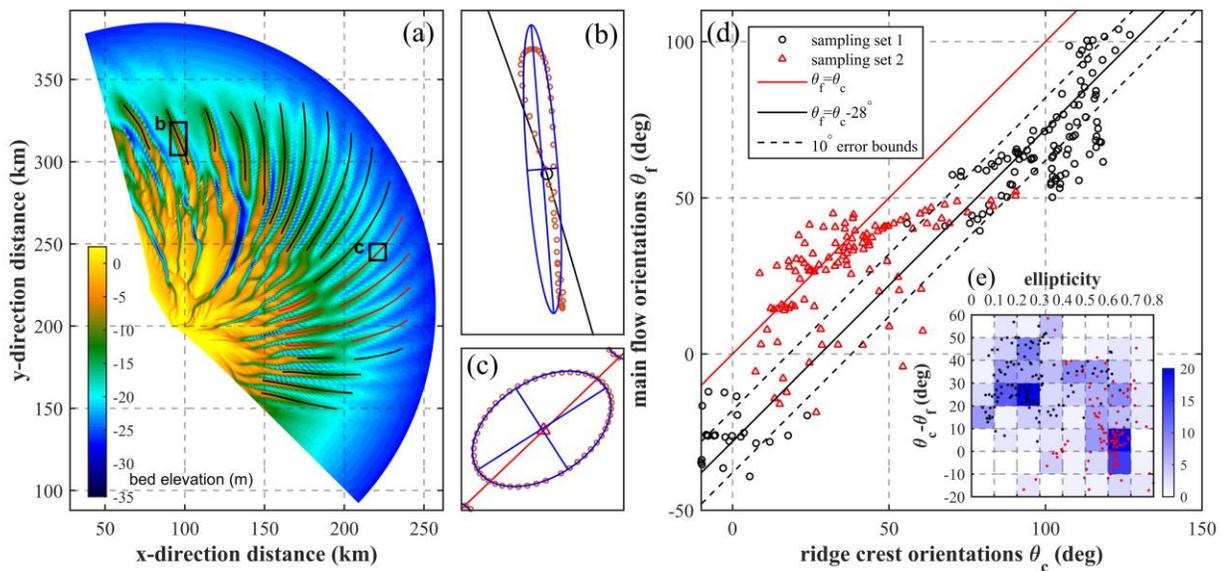


323

324 **Figure 5.** (a) Co-tidal charts and (b) the tidal current ellipses of the  $M_2$  tidal constituent and (c)  
 325 the morphology at year 0 simulated in run REF. Panels (d-f) show their 2000-year counterparts.

326 Huthnance (1982a) suggested that an approximately  $28^\circ$  angle between the orientations of  
 327 bidirectional tidal current and linear sand ridge crest is necessary to form linear sand ridges. A  
 328 series of elongated sand ridges with clear crest lines spreading outside the huge sand bodies are  
 329 analyzed (Figure 6a). A least squares method is applied to fit the best ellipses to the tidal vector

330 trajectories and their long axes are used as the main directions of the tidal currents (Figure 6b  
 331 and 6c). The local orientations between the tidal current (denoted as “ $\theta_f$ ”) and the sand ridge  
 332 crest (denoted as “ $\theta_c$ ”) are compared in Figure 6d (10 points are sampled on each crest). The  
 333 sand ridge crests mainly fall into two groups characterized by  $\theta_f \approx \theta_c - 28^\circ$  (red triangles) and  
 334  $\theta_f \approx \theta_c$  (black circles) respectively. The spatial distribution of these two types of sand ridge  
 335 crests is shown in Figure 6a. Both relationships are also observed in numerical studies which  
 336 focus on the tidal current in the RSRs (e.g., Xu et al., 2016). The sand ridge crests following  $\theta_f \approx$   
 337  $\theta_c - 28^\circ$  mainly locate in the north and the south end of the embayment (see the black lines in  
 338 Figure 6a), where bidirectional tidal currents prevail. The other ones indicating  $\theta_f \approx \theta_c$  are  
 339 situated in the mid-south part (see the red lines in Figure 6a), which are dominated by rotational  
 340 tidal currents. Figure 6e shows the distribution of the sampling points in an angle-ellipticity  
 341 plane, in which the color code indicates the number of points within an elementary area (i.e.,  
 342 density). The angle  $\theta_c - \theta_f$  overall shows a decrease tendency with the increase of the ellipticity.  
 343 Moreover, the sampling points concentrate in two regions: (1)  $20 < \theta_c - \theta_f < 30$  and  $0 < E <$   
 344  $0.3$  ( $E$  denotes the ellipticity), which indicates bidirectional tidal currents; and (2)  $-10 < \theta_c -$   
 345  $\theta_f < 10$  and  $0.6 < E < 0.7$ , which represents rotational tidal currents. Notice that the  
 346 orientations of the sand ridge crests are in fact difficult to be exactly identified, since the  
 347 morphology is complicated and the top of the sand ridges is flat. This may result in the relatively  
 348 scattered distribution of sampling points in Figure 6d and 6e.

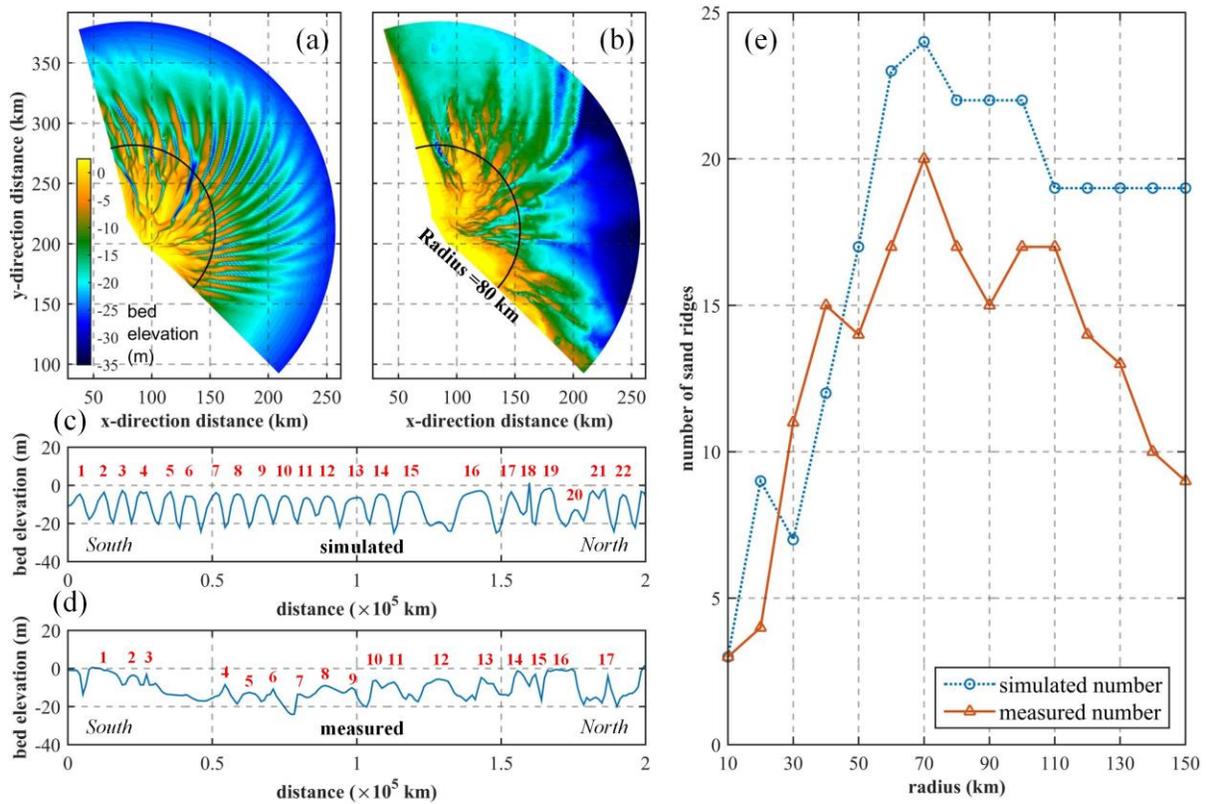


349

350 **Figure 6.** Comparison between orientations of the sand ridges and the main directions of the  
 351 tidal currents simulated in run REF. Panel (a) indicates the locations of the sampled sand ridge  
 352 crests, on each 10 points are sampled. Panels (b-c) illustrate the main directions of the tidal  
 353 currents (red circles) based on the best fitting oval. The main directions of the tidal currents are  
 354 approximated by the long axes of the ovals. Panel (d) compares the orientations of the sand  
 355 ridges  $\theta_c$  and the main directions of the tidal currents  $\theta_f$ . The crests as well as the associated  
 356 sampling points, which show consistency with  $\theta_f = \theta_c - 28^\circ$  (as suggested by Huthnance,  
 357 1982a), are marked in black. The rest ones are marked in red, which indicate  $\theta_f = \theta_c$ . The black  
 358 dashed lines represent the  $10^\circ$  error bounds. Panel (e) shows the distribution of all sampling

359 points in an angle-ellipticity plane. The color code shows the number of points within the range  
 360 (i.e., density).

361 To further evaluate the performance of the numerical model, the numbers of sand ridges  
 362 simulated in run REF are compared with the real RSRs. The sand ridges are counted along 15  
 363 radial sections centered on the apex with radiuses increasing from 10 to 150 km (Figure 7). The  
 364 total number of the sand ridges is overestimated by the numerical model, especially in the  
 365 seaward sections (radius larger than 110 km), where the total number does not decrease as  
 366 significantly as the real RSRs. It can be hypothesized that the sediment availability is excessive  
 367 in the model and that sand ridges can extend longer than the real ones. However, the overall  
 368 variation tendency is consistent with the real RSRs such that the total number initially increases  
 369 and then decreases, peaking at approximately 70 km (Figure 7e).



370

371 **Figure 7.** Comparison in the sand ridge numbers between run REF and the real RSRs. (a) The  
 372 2000-year bathymetry simulated in run REF. (b) The measured bathymetry of the RSRs. (c-d)  
 373 The bed elevations and the correspondent sand ridge numbers at the cross-section with the radius  
 374 of 80 km (see the black arc line in panel (a-b)). (e) The sand ridge numbers at 15 cross-sections  
 375 with the radius varying from 10 km to 150 km.

#### 376 4.3 Sensitivity analysis of key parameters

377 In addition to the reference simulation examining the correspondence between the tidal regime  
 378 and the radial morphology of the RSRs, four sets of numerical experiments are performed to  
 379 analyze the effects of the tidal boundary conditions (runs T1-T3), the Coriolis Force (runs C1-

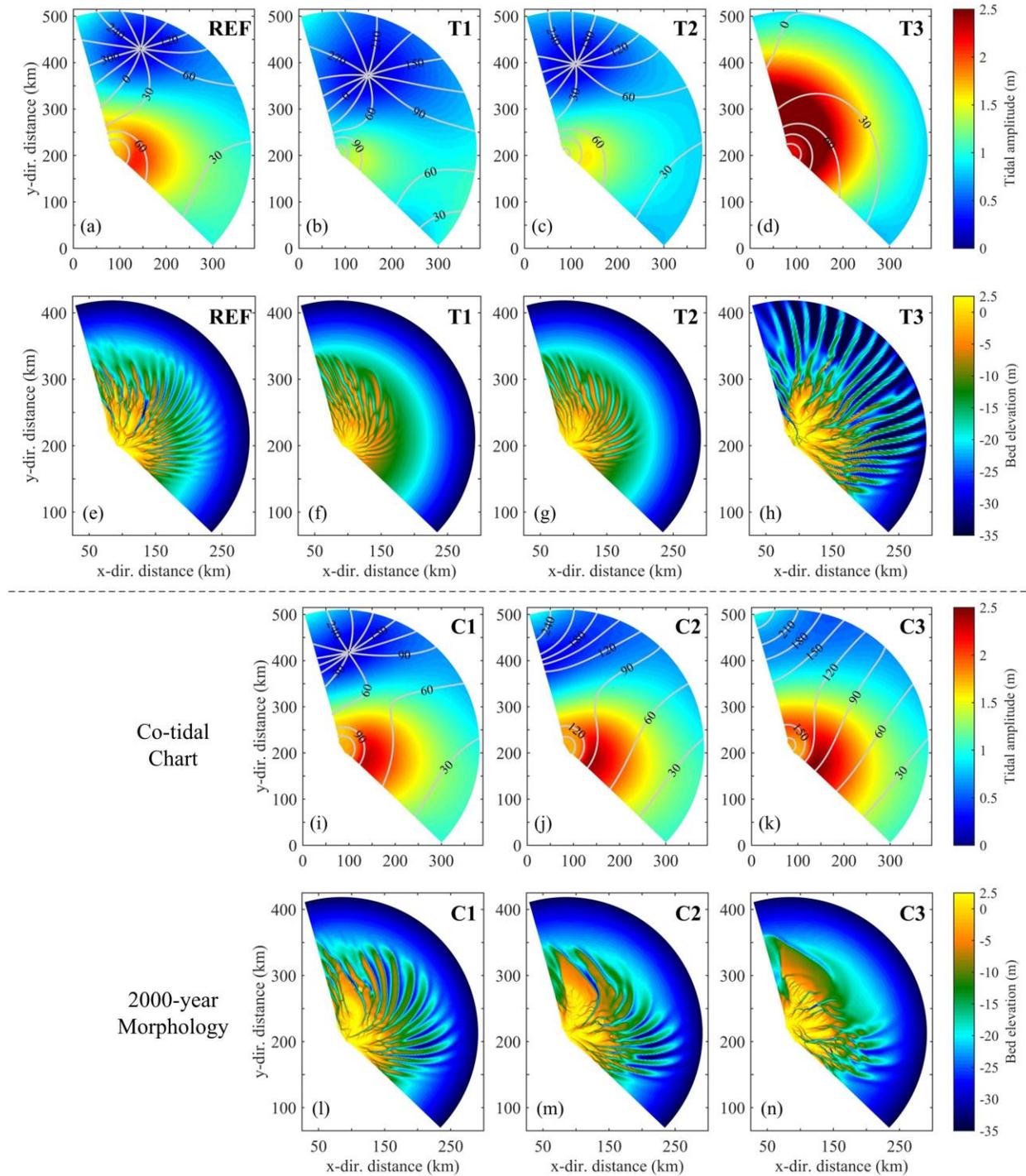
380 C3), the bed resistance (runs R1-R3) and the sediment availability (runs S1-S3) on the tidal  
381 regime and the morphology of the RSRs.

382 The tidal phase is modified linearly varying from  $0^\circ$  to  $270^\circ$  along the seaward boundary in run  
383 T1. The amphidromic point moves close to the central area, so that the tidal amplitude is reduced  
384 (Figure 8b). Correspondingly, the sand ridges are not well developed and the overall scale of the  
385 morphological pattern is reduced (Figure 8f). In run T2 with constant amplitude along the  
386 seaward boundary and the same phase lag as run REF, similar phenomena are observed: the tidal  
387 wave is less concentrated and the overall sand ridges are not well developed (Figure 8c and 8g).  
388 The tidal wave directly converges to the center of the embayment in run T3, since both the tidal  
389 amplitude and phase are uniform along the boundary (Figure 8d). This leads to the largest tidal  
390 amplitudes and the most pronouncedly developed sand ridges among all the scenarios (Figure 8d  
391 and 8h). However, these sand ridges are overall radially distributed, while the asymmetric pattern  
392 in reality is not reproduced (Figure 8h).

393 The amphidromic point shifts landward as the latitude decreases (i.e., the Coriolis Force  
394 decreases, Figure 8i). When the latitude is set  $10^\circ\text{N}$  or smaller (i.e., runs C2 and C3, Figure 8j  
395 and 8k), the amphidromic point vanishes, such that the tidal wave almost directly propagates  
396 across the embayment from south to north rather than converges to the central area. However,  
397 without the constraint of the amphidromic point, runs C2 and C3 are of larger tidal amplitude in  
398 the central area than run REF. Therefore, huge sand bodies instead of elongated sand ridges are  
399 formed in the north of the embayment, which are seemingly more similar as the real morphology  
400 of the RSRs (Figure 8m and 8n). It is worth noting that this can be an artefact due to model  
401 simplifications. Since the main directions of tidal currents do not orient to the center of the  
402 embayment, the sand bodies do not show radial pattern (Figure 8n).

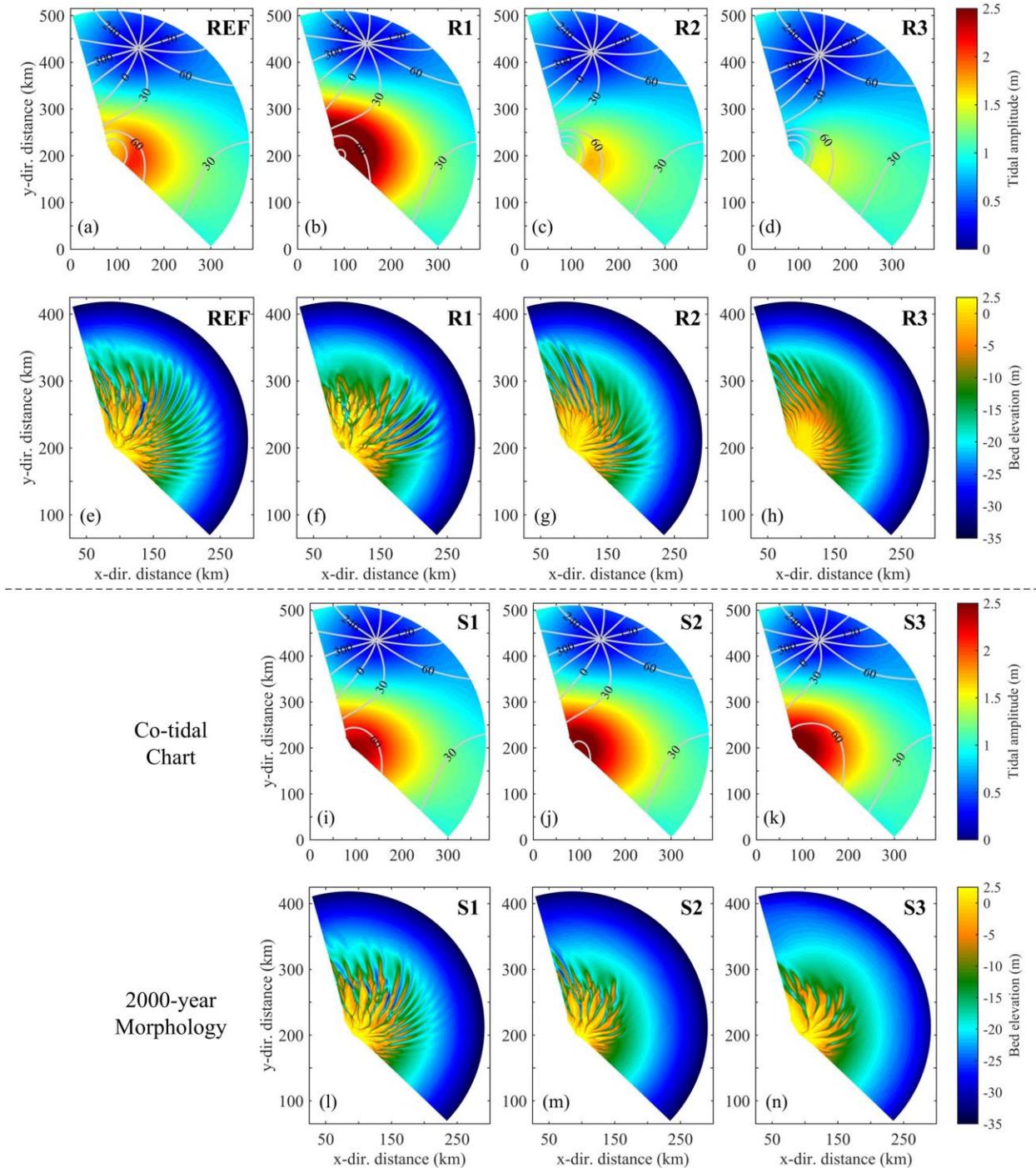
403 An increase in bottom friction leads to decreases in the magnitudes of tidal amplitudes and tidal  
404 current velocities, and hence, a decrease in the sediment transport by tidal flow. Correspondingly,  
405 runs R2 and R3, which adopt relatively large friction coefficients, indicate smaller sizes of tidal  
406 sand ridges than those of run REF (Figure 9g and 9h). Moreover, varying the friction coefficient  
407 changes the location of the amphidromic point (Figure 9a-9d), such that the overall tidal wave  
408 system and its associated tidal current fields are affected. This further lead to several different  
409 characteristics of the sand ridges from run REF, such as the orientation and the bending (Figure  
410 9e-9h). Notice that the Manning coefficient used in run R3 ( $0.025 \text{ s/m}^{1/3}$ ) is a common value  
411 adopted in coastal areas (e.g., Soulsby, 1997). However, much less and smaller sand ridges are  
412 reproduced. This leads to a hypothesis that the reduction of the hydraulic drag due to high  
413 sediment concentration is relevant for the formation of the RSRs (e.g., the drag reduction  
414 suggested by e.g., Winterwerp & Wang, 2013; Winterwerp et al., 2013).

415 Runs S1 and S2 indicate that both the sizes and the number of the simulated sand ridges decrease  
416 as the initial water depth increases (Figure 9l and 9m). This is consistent with the theory  
417 proposed by Off (1963) that the development of sand ridges favors abundant sediment  
418 availability. Run S3 also show smaller and less sand ridges than run REF (Figure 9n), even  
419 though their initial sediment availabilities are the same. Notice that the only difference between  
420 these two runs is that the initial bed slope of run S3 is smaller than run REF.



421

422 **Figure 8.** Comparison between run REF and runs T1-T3 and C1-C3 (Latitude = 20, 10, and 0  
 423 °N) on the co-tidal charts of the  $M_2$  tidal constituent and the resultant morphologies at year 2000.  
 424 The reader is referred to Table 1 for detailed model setup.



425

426 **Figure 9.** Comparison between run REF and runs R1-R3 (Manning coefficient = 0.01, 0.02 and  
 427  $0.025 \text{ s/m}^{1/3}$ ) and S1-S3 (initial slope = 0.167, 0.153 and 0.13 ‰) on the co-tidal charts of the  $M_2$   
 428 tidal constituent and the resultant morphologies at year 2000. The reader is referred to Table 1  
 429 for detailed model setup.

## 430 **5 Discussion**

### 431 5.1 Tidal regime, sediment availability and morphology

432 It has been suggested that the formation of the rotational tidal wave system in the north of the  
433 RSRs results from the constraint by the east coastline of China, such as the reflection of the tidal  
434 waves by Shandong Peninsula (Zhang et al., 1999). The constraint by the coastlines is not  
435 explicitly considered, but implicitly represented by the tidal boundary conditions in the present  
436 model (Figure 1b). As shown in runs T1 and T2, modifying the phases or the amplitudes along  
437 the seaward boundary shifts the position of the amphidromic point and further result in limited  
438 development of sand ridges. Moreover, the magnitude of the Coriolis Force, which is determined  
439 by the geographic latitude, also considerably affects the tidal wave systems and the formation of  
440 linear sand ridges (runs C1-C3, see Figure 8). Therefore, both the current tidal regime and the  
441 morphology of the RSRs depend on the east coastline of China as well as their specific  
442 geographic latitude.

443 Off (1963) suggested that the formation of sand ridges requires abundant sediment availability  
444 and strong current velocities. The effects of these two factors are represented in runs R1-R3 and  
445 S1-S3. The sediment transport capability of the tidal current is low in the runs with relatively  
446 large Manning coefficient (i.e., runs R2 and R3). Therefore, the resultant morphology indicates  
447 that both the development of sand ridges and the accretion of sediment in the central area are  
448 limited (Figure 9g and 9h). When simulating with low sediment availability (i.e., runs S1 and  
449 S2), large sand bodies are formed in the central area (Figure 9m and 9n), which is attributed to  
450 the convergence of the sediments driven by the tidal regime. However, the seaward extension of  
451 the sand ridges is limited. The comparison between runs S3 and REF further suggests that the  
452 sediments from outer sea is less efficient than those near the coast in forming of the RSRs. This  
453 result highlights the contribution of the littoral sediment transport to the development of the  
454 RSRs, such as the sediment supply from the Abandoned Yellow River Delta (as suggested by  
455 Wang et al., 2012b; Du, et al., 2018).

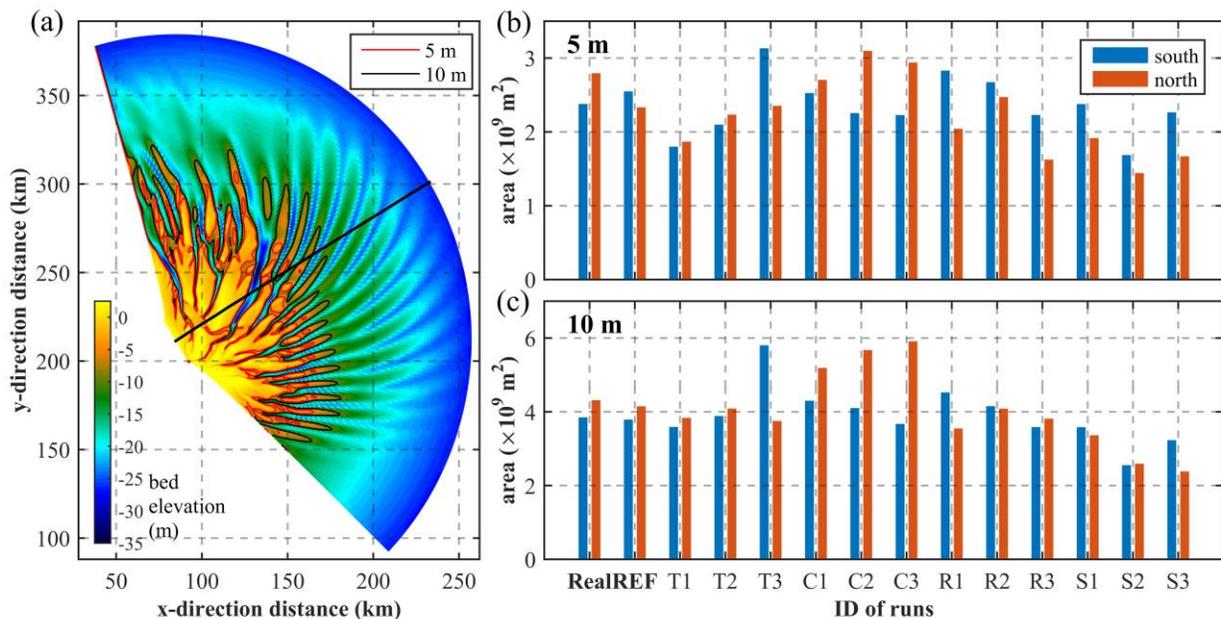
### 456 5.2 The asymmetric pattern of the RSRs

457 One of the typical characteristics of the RSRs is their asymmetric pattern showing larger  
458 northern sand ridges than the southern ones (Xu et al., 2016). Therefore, we are motivated to  
459 divide the computational domain into two halves from the middle radial line (see the black bold  
460 line in Figure 10a) and compare the planar areas of the sand ridges between the northern and  
461 southern parts (Figure 10b and 10c). We calculate the areas of the regions with water depth  
462 smaller than 5 m and 10 m respectively, for the consideration of the underwater sand ridges (see  
463 black and red contour lines in Figure 10a). The 10-m areas of run REF indicate a favorable  
464 distribution consistent with the real RSRs. Moreover, both the 5-m and the 10-m areas of run  
465 REF agree well with the real RSRs in magnitude. On the other hand, most sensitivity runs exhibit  
466 less consistency with the real RSRs, which highlights the rationality of the parameterizations  
467 selected in the run REF.

468 The major sediment source for the present-day RSRs came from the Abandoned Yellow River  
469 Delta in the north (Wang et al., 2012b; Du, et al., 2018). However, run REF starts from equally  
470 distributed sediment availability between the south and the north. As a result, the 5-m area of run  
471 REF appears to be smaller in the north than that in the south, which is inconsistent with the real  
472 RSRs. It thus can be inferred that the larger size of the northern sand ridges over the southern

473 ones is partly attributed to the unequal sediment supply between the south and north. On the  
 474 other hand, the consistency indicated by the distribution of the 10-m area of run REF confirms  
 475 that the tidal regime over the RSRs does prefer a larger scale of the northern sand ridges than the  
 476 southern ones.

477 When the rotational tidal wave vanishes and hence the entire embayment is dominated by the  
 478 progressive tidal wave (run C3, Figure 8k), the advantage in size of the northern area over the  
 479 southern one is amplified (Figures 8n, 10b and 10c). It can thus be inferred that the asymmetric  
 480 pattern of the RSRs is promoted by the progressive tidal wave system in the south, while is  
 481 restricted by the rotational one in the north. However, run C3 does not show elongated sand  
 482 ridges as presented in the real RSRs. This implies that the RSRs cannot be formed without the  
 483 convergence of the tidal waves to the central region.



484

485 **Figure 10.** Comparison of the sand ridge areas between the real RSRs and the numerical runs.  
 486 Panel (a) illustrates the method of calculating the areas of the southern and the northern  
 487 sand ridges. The computational domain is divided into southern and northern halves from the middle  
 488 radial line (see the black bold line). Panels (b) and (c) illustrate the planar areas enclosed by the  
 489 5-m and 10-m contour lines respectively.

### 490 5.3 Comparison with other sand ridges

491 Sand ridges over the world have a wide variety of forms due to the difference in hydrodynamic  
 492 and sediment regimes (Dyer & Huntley, 1999; Off, 1963). However, the growth of sand ridges  
 493 always requires mechanisms that drive the sediment flux to converge to the ridge crest and to  
 494 diverge from the channels (e.g., Calvete et al., 2001; Huthnance, 1982a, 1982b). In this section,  
 495 the mechanisms underlying the formation of the RSRs are compared with two typical categories  
 496 of sand ridges, viz. the linear sand ridges (e.g., Hulscher et al., 1993) and the shoreface-  
 497 connected sand ridges (e.g., Swift, 1975).

498 The linear sand ridges (also known as “linear sand banks”) generally occur in open shelf seas,  
499 where oscillatory tidal currents prevail. The offshore sand ridges lying on the seabed of the North  
500 Sea are representative linear sand ridges, of which the dimensions are typically tens of  
501 kilometers long, several kilometers broad and tens of meters high, and the directions slightly  
502 deviate from the principle axis of the tidal ellipses. It has been shown that linear sand ridges can  
503 be formed on a flat seabed under back-and-forth tidal movements and a faster-than-linear  
504 sediment transport rate related to the tidal current velocity (Hulscher, 1993; Huthnance, 1982a,  
505 1982b). A possible mechanism leading to the positive feedback between the tidal currents and  
506 the erodible seabed has been given (Huthnance, 1982a): when the tidal current moves over a  
507 sand ridge, which cyclonically rotates with respect to the main current direction, an anticyclonic  
508 residual circulation can be formed around the sand ridge by both the Coriolis and frictional  
509 torques. Both torques vanish at the ridge crest, such that sediment can be accreted exactly on the  
510 ridge crest.

511 The shoreface-connected ridges are usually observed on storm-dominant inner shelves, where net  
512 longshore currents are strong. There are significant morphological differences between the  
513 storm-induced ridges (i.e., shoreface-connected ridges) and tide-induced ridges (i.e., tidal sand  
514 ridges). The spatial sizes of tide-induced ridges are evidently larger than those of the storm-  
515 induced ridges. On the other hand, the orientations of the tidal sand ridges are cyclonically  
516 rotated with respect to the major directions of the tidal currents, while the orientations of the  
517 shoreface-connected ridges are primarily related to the orientations of the coastlines. The  
518 formation of the shoreface-connected ridges has been attributed to the presences of the residual  
519 longshore currents and the transversal seabed slope in the inner shelf regions. Since the seabed is  
520 inclined, the Coriolis and frictional torques do not vanish as in the flat bed case. Therefore, the  
521 anticyclonic residual circulation is constrained to the coastlines (Calvete et al., 2001;  
522 Trowbridge, 1995).

523 The RSRs have been classified as tide-induced sand ridges formed during Holocene  
524 transgression (Wang et al., 1999; Yang, 1989). The stationary tidal wave system covering the  
525 South Yellow Sea, which has been suggested to be crucial for the formation of the RSRs, have  
526 been demonstrated to exist since the early Holocene (Wang et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 1999).  
527 Although the ends of the RSRs connect to the Jiangsu Coast, which seems to be similar with the  
528 shoreface-connected ridges, the hydrodynamic regime and the spatial dimensions of the RSRs  
529 apparently differ from those of the shoreface-connected ridges (Wang et al., 2012b).  
530 Comparatively, acting as tidal sand ridges, the RSRs represent evidently tidal-sand-ridge  
531 characteristics. For example, the orientations of the sand ridges are anti-clockwise deviating from  
532 the major directions of the tidal currents (Figure 6) (Huthnance, 1982b), and the sizes of the  
533 seaward parts of the sand ridges are in accordance with tidal sand ridges (Wang et al., 1999).

534 On the other hand, the RSRs, which are situated at a semi-open sea area, differ from those tidal  
535 sand ridges observed in open sea regions (e.g., the North Sea) remarkably in terms of their fan-  
536 shaped spatial patterns and the huge exposed sand bodies in the central region (Figure 1b, see  
537 also Wang et al., 2012b). Controlled by both the land boundaries of China and Korea Peninsula  
538 and the slope of the South Yellow Sea Shelf, the tidal waves converge to the central region of the  
539 RSRs, and further produce the distinct fan-shaped tidal current field covering this region (Qian et  
540 al., 2015). Correspondingly, as shown in Figure 3a, the sand ridges which are formed in the early  
541 stage of the simulation, are radially distributed with their spacing diminishing landward, rather  
542 than approximately parallel to each other (as e.g., North Sea). As the sediments continuously

543 accumulate in the central region owing to the landward residual movements of the sediment  
544 (Xing et al., 2012), the channels between the sand ridges are filled up, and hence the landward  
545 parts of the sand ridges merge and finally expose above the water surface (Figure 3b-3d).  
546 Overall, the RSRs are tide-induced sand ridges, while the morphological details are determined  
547 by their specific geographical position and the typically fan-shaped and converging tidal current  
548 fields.

#### 549 5.4 Model capability and further research

550 The idealized model used in this study is developed based on the current tidal regime over the  
551 RSRs. This can help us to understand the relationship between the present tidal regime and  
552 morphology of the RSRs. However, this model does not aim to solve the controversy related to  
553 the origin of the RSRs (Li et al., 2001; Wang et al., 1999, 2012b), because the historical  
554 transitions of the coastline (e.g., the Jiangsu coastline) and the sediment source (e.g., the  
555 migration of the Yellow River mouth) (Wang et al., 2012b) remain elusive. Moreover, the  
556 current boundary condition implies no external sediment supply. Therefore, the model cannot be  
557 used to explain whether the sediments are from the Yangtze River (Milliman et al., 1986; Wang  
558 et al., 2012b) or the Yellow River (Lee & Chough, 1989; Saito & Yang, 1994; Zhou et al.,  
559 2014a). In addition to the simplifications related to the idealized modelling configurations,  
560 several processes that may play a certain role in shaping the RSRs are neglected and deserve  
561 further research:

562 (1) Only non-cohesive sand with a single representative grain size of 125  $\mu\text{m}$  is considered in the  
563 model, while the RSRs are characterized by the presence of mixed grain sizes from very fine  
564 sand to fine sand (Zhang, 2012). The modelled sand ridges are more irregular than the simulated  
565 ones, because of the homogeneous bed sediment configurations used in the present model. On  
566 the other hand, processes such as sediment sorting and sand-mud interactions should be  
567 addressed in future research, which can play an important role on the morphodynamics evolution  
568 of sand ridges (De Swart et al., 2008; Vis-Star et al., 2009).

569 (2) Winds and waves are not considered. Previous studies have shown that waves affect the  
570 morphology of sand ridges (Calvete et al., 2002), particularly during low tidal levels (Reynaud et  
571 al., 1999). Similarly, storm surges have been found to effectively modify the morphologies of the  
572 sand ridges in the short term (Calvete et al., 2001), while tidal currents act as a restoring force in  
573 the long term (Zhang et al., 1999).

574 (3) The effect of long-term sea-level rise and riverine sediment supply are not considered in this  
575 model, although it has been argued that they played an important role in the evolution of tidal  
576 sand ridges (Gao, 2013; Uehara et al., 2002; Uehara & Saito, 2003; Wang et al., 2012b).  
577 Sensitivity simulations of Nnafie et al. (2014) indicate that a rising sea-level results in an  
578 increasing height of sand ridges. At the same time, their simulated results suggest that sand  
579 ridges do not form if the rate of the sea-level rise is too high, or if the initial depth of the inner  
580 shelf is too small. On the other hand, major rivers can affect the long-term morphodynamic  
581 evolution of the RSRs by favoring sediment deposition and modifying the local morphology near  
582 the outlet (Zhou et al., 2014b), which should be properly considered in further research.

583 (4) Extensive human interferences (e.g., the large-scale land reclamations along the Jiangsu  
584 Coast) have not been taken into account. According to Song et al. (2013), Tao et al. (2011, 2018),  
585 Wang et al. (2012a) and Zhang and Chen (2011), large-scale human activities can modify the

586 tidal wave systems and sediment transport patterns, hence have effects on the morphological  
587 development of the RSRs. The fact that these details concerning the hydrodynamic forcing and  
588 sediment transport processes can be ignored for simulating the formation of the RSRs and for  
589 reproducing their major characteristics reveals that the presented modeling has captured the  
590 major controlling factors for the development of the RSRs.

591 The neglected factors and processes also imply that not all the details of the morphology of the  
592 RSRs can be reproduced by the model. Albeit the simplified nature, the model can capture the  
593 main features of the RSRs and provide insights into the mechanisms underlying the formation of  
594 the RSRs.

## 595 **6 Conclusions**

596 An open source numerical model (Delft3D) is employed to investigate the morphodynamics of  
597 the RSRs of the southern Yellow Sea off the Jiangsu Coast, China. The computational domain is  
598 schematically fan-shaped and all the runs start from a smooth sloped bathymetry. The following  
599 conclusions can be drawn from this study:

600 (1) Close-to-reality sand ridge patterns can be modelled with the configurations consistent with  
601 the current tidal regime of the RSRs. The numerical results directly demonstrate that the  
602 formation and the maintenance of the current morphology of the RSRs are governed by the  
603 specific tidal regime over the southern Yellow Sea.

604 (2) The current distributions of the rotational and progressive tidal wave systems over the RSRs  
605 are important and are determined by the east coastline of China (e.g., the reflection of Shandong  
606 Peninsula) and the geographic latitudes (i.e., the Coriolis Force) of the RSRs.

607 (3) Deviation in the location of the amphidromic point can reduce the convergence of the tidal  
608 waves to the central area of the RSRs, such that the development of the sand ridges is limited.

609 (4) Sediment can accrete to the central area under the control of the current tidal regime, which  
610 results in the formation of the large sand bodies of the RSRs. However, the seaward extension of  
611 elongated sand ridges is subject to the availability of sediment supply.

612 (5) The asymmetric spatial patterns of the RSRs characterized by larger northern sand ridges  
613 than the southern ones are promoted by the progressive tidal waves and restricted by the  
614 rotational tidal waves.

615 (6) Insufficient sediment supply is another reason that the southern sand ridges are smaller than  
616 the northern ones in the RSRs.

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