



River-enhanced non-linear overtide variations in river 1 estuaries 2 3 Leicheng Guo^{1, *}, Chunyan Zhu^{1, 2}, Huayang Cai³, Zheng Bing Wang^{1, 2, 4}, 4 lan Townend ⁵, Qing He ¹ 5 6 7 ¹ State Key Lab of Estuarine and Coastal Research, East China Normal 8 University, Shanghai 200241, China 9 ² Department of Hydraulic Engineering, Faculty of Civil Engineering and Geosciences, Delft University of Technology, Delft 2600GA, the Netherlands 10 ³ School of Marine Engineering and Technology, Sun Yat-Sen University, 11 12 Guangzhou, China ⁴ Marine and Coastal Systems Department, Deltares, Delft 2629 HV, the 13 Netherlands 14 ⁵ School of Ocean and Earth Sciences, University of Southampton, 15 Southampton, UK 16 17 * Corresponding author, E-mail: lcguo@sklec.ecnu.edu.cn 18 19 Abstract: Tidal waves traveling into estuaries are modulated in amplitude and 20 21 shape due to bottom friction, funneling planform and river discharge. The role of river discharge on damping incident tides has been well-documented, 22 whereas our understanding of the impact on overtide is incomplete. Inspired by 23 findings from tidal data analysis, in this study we use a schematized estuary 24 model to explore the variability of overtide under varying river discharge. Model 25 results reveal significant M₄ overtide generated inside the estuary. Its absolute 26 amplitude decreases and increases in the upper and lower parts of the estuary, 27 respectively, with increasing river discharge. The total energy of the M_4 tide 28 integrated throughout the estuary reaches a transitional maximum when the 29





30 river discharge to tidal mean discharge (R2T) ratio is close to unity. We further identify that the quadratic bottom stress plays a dominant role in governing the 31 M₄ variations through strong river-tide interaction. River flow enhances the 32 effective bottom stress and dissipation of the principal tides, and reinforces 33 energy transfer from principal tide to overtide. The two-fold effects explain the 34 nonlinear M₄ variations and the intermediate maximum threshold. The model 35 results are consistent with data analysis in the Changjiang and Amazon River 36 estuaries and highlight distinctive tidal behaviors between upstream tidal rivers 37 and downstream tidal estuaries. The new findings inform study of compound 38 flooding risk, tidal asymmetry, and sediment transport in river estuaries. 39 Key words: River discharge; Overtide; Bottom stress; Estuary

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42 **1. Introduction**

43 Tides are a primary force driving water motion and transport of sediment and contaminant in estuarine and coastal environments. Examination of tidal 44 wave dynamics supports many aspects of coastal management, including 45 46 flooding risk mitigation, coastal erosion defense, and wetland conservation. 47 Tidal dynamics in oceanic and coastal waters have been extensively studied 48 for centuries (Green, 1837; Talke and Jay, 2020). It is already well established 49 that tidal waves traveling into estuaries are altered in amplitude and shape due to water depth changes, channel convergence (Jay, 1991; Friedrichs and 50 Aubrey, 1994; Lanzoni and Seminara, 1998; Talke and Jay, 2020), and river 51 52 discharge (Godin, 1985; Horrevoets et al., 2004; Cai et al., 2014). Given tidal wave celerity is a function of water depth in shallow environments, high water 53 travels faster than low water, leading to shorter rising tide and longer falling 54 tide, i.e., tidal wave deformation and tidal asymmetry. Tidal wave deformation 55 at the daily time scale is nicely represented by superimposition of M₂ and its 56 first overtide M₄ (Pugh, 1987). The amplitude of M₄ overtide is basically small 57 and insignificant in relatively deep and open coastal seas, but may become 58 profound inside tidal estuaries. The energy of M₄ overtide inside estuaries is 59





extracted from astronomical tides through the nonlinear processes (Parker, 1984; Talke and Jay, 2020). The behavior and dynamics of M₄ tide in tide-dominant estuaries and lagoons have been extensively examined because the resultant tidal asymmetry controls tide-averaged sediment transport and morphological changes (Parker, 1984; Speer and Aubrey, 1985; Friedrichs and Aubrey, 1988; Le Provost, 1991 etc.).

River flow enhances tidal energy dissipation and stimulates wave 66 deformation (Jay and Flinchem, 1997; Godin, 1999; Horrevoets et a., 2004; 67 Toffolon and Savenije, 2011). River discharge reinforces wave deformation by 68 prolonging falling tides and shortening rising tides, which is featured by larger 69 overtide amplitude under higher river discharge (Stronach and Murty, 1989; 70 Gallo and Vinzon, 2005). However, a small number of studies suggest that the 71 impact of river flow on tidal wave deformation and overtide generation exhibits 72 73 more spatial variability within river estuaries under varying river discharge. For instance, Godin (1985, 1999) reported accelerated low water and retarded 74 high water in the upper Saint Lawrence Estuary under larger river discharge, 75 76 whereas the high water is hastened and the low water delayed in the lower part 77 of the estuary. In the Changjiang River estuary, the amplitude of the 78 quarter-diurnal tidal species (overtides and compound tides), resolved by 79 continuous wavelet transform method, becomes larger in the lower part of the estuary, but smaller in the upper part of the estuary under high river flow 80 conditions (Guo et al., 2015). These findings imply that the M₄ overtide is 81 82 sensitive to river discharge magnitude and it displays different spatial variations under different river discharge conditions, which is, however, 83 insufficiently understood. 84

The overtide generated locally within estuaries is inherently related to the nonlinear dynamics in shallow waters. Non-linearity enters the mathematical representation of a tidal system through the divergence of excess volume in the continuity equation and the advection and bottom friction terms in the momentum equation (Speer and Aubrey, 1985; Parker, 1984, 1991; Wang et al.





90 1999, 2002). Pioneering studies with scaling analysis suggested that the advection term is insignificant when scaled with estuarine length or wavelength 91 in short and tide-dominated estuaries, thus was ignored in past analytical study 92 of tides (Speer and Aubrey, 1985; Friedrichs and Aubrey, 1994). However, in 93 the presence of a river flow, the advection term may play a role in slowing 94 down incident tidal waves and speeding up the reflected waves (Godin, 1985, 95 1991; van Rijn, 2011; Kästner et al., 2019). This is because river flow enlarges 96 the mean current, therefore the advection term becomes significant and cannot 97 be ignored in river estuaries (Talke and Jay, 2020). Parker (1984) provided a 98 thorough analysis of the importance of frictional effects on tidal interactions. 99 100 The quadratic bottom shear stress has the effect of reducing tidal amplitudes and decreasing wave celerity (Proudman, 1953; Godin, 1985, 1991, 1999; Jay, 101 1991; Horrevoets et al., 2004), and stimulating the generation of new 102 103 harmonics (Proudman, 1953; Pingree and Maddock, 1978; Parker, 1984, 1991; Wang et al., 1999). Given all the three nonlinear terms are attributed to 104 creating forced harmonics (Parker, 1984; Walters and Werner, 1991; Wang et 105 106 al., 1999), it would be helpful to determine their relative importance. Gallo and 107 Vinzon (2005) provided an evaluation of the relative importance of the 108 nonlinear terms on overtide for the Amazon River estuary. But the results were 109 only presented for a mean river discharge condition. It still remains an open question as to which nonlinear term plays a more significant role under varying 110 river discharge conditions. 111

In this contribution we deploy a numerical model to explore river-tide interaction and subsequent impact on overtide behavior in a schematized long estuary. We aim to explore 1) how varying river discharge would modulate the overtides, and 2) what is the controlling impact of the nonlinear terms on the spatial variability of overtide under different river discharge.

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118 **2. Model setup and data analysis**

2.1 Inspirations from the Changjiang River estuary





The rationale of this study comes from tidal analysis in the Changjiang 120 River estuary, which is a large tidal system with a tide-influenced river reach as 121 along as 650 km (Figure 1a). River discharge at the tidal wave limit, Datong, 122 varies seasonally in the range of 10,000-60,000 m³/s in the post-Three Gorges 123 Dam period (Figure 1b; Guo et al., 2018). The incoming tides are semi-diurnal 124 with a maximum tidal range of 5.9 m, and the M₂ is the most significant 125 126 constituent, followed by S2, O1, and K1. Based on harmonic analysis (Pawlowicz et al., 2002) of tidal height data in the time periods when river 127 discharge varies in a small range (close to a stationary situation, see Guo et al. 128 129 (2016) for further details), we see that the incoming tidal waves are firstly amplified before they travel into the estuary, owing to a landward decrease in 130 water depth (Figure 1c). They are, however, predominantly dissipated inside 131 the estuary, despite the width convergence in the lower part of the estuary 132 seaward of Jiangyin, because of stronger influence of bottom friction and/or 133 river discharge. The river-enhanced tidal damping is more significant in the wet 134 season when the river discharge is higher, particularly in the upper part of the 135 136 estuary upstream of Jiangyin.







Figure 1. (a) The geometry and tidal gauges in the Changjiang River Estuary, (b) river discharge variations within a year course, along-river (c) M_2 , and (d) M_4 amplitude variations in the dry and wet seasons, (e) amplitude ratios of the quarter-diurnal to semi-diurnal tides, and (f) skewness of the time derivative of tidal water levels in the upper (Nanjing) and lower (Xuliujing) estuaries. Details of the Changjiang River estuary and the tidal data are given in Guo et al. (2015). The numbers in the brackets in panel (a) indicate the seaward distance





from Datong. The data in panels (c)-(e) is from Guo et al. (2016) and that in panel (f) is from Guo et al. (2019).

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A significant M₄ overtide is detected inside the estuary while it is 148 149 insignificant to seaward of the estuary (Figure 1d). The smaller M_4 amplitude in the region km-380 and km-520 in both dry and wet seasons is attributed to 150 151 interaction between the two main branches around Xuliujing. Apart from that, the M₄ amplitude is larger in the lower part of the estuary in the wet season 152 when the river discharge is higher (Figure 1d). Moreover, the amplitude ratios 153 of the guarter- to semi-diurnal tidal species (derived by continuous wavelet 154 transform) decrease with increasing river discharge in the upper part of the 155 estuary but increase in the lower estuary (Figure 1e; Guo et al., 2015). Similar 156 analyses, using the skewness of the time derivative of tidal water levels, show 157 158 that the duration asymmetry between falling and rising tides exhibits similar variations as the amplitude ratios (Figure 1f; Guo et al., 2019). These results 159 regarding the longitudinal M₄ amplitude variations by harmonic analysis 160 161 (Figure 1d), the amplitude ratios of the quarter- to semi-diurnal tidal species 162 (Figure 1e), and the derivative skewness variations (Figure 1f) consistently 163 demonstrate that the overtides display distinctive variations between the upper 164 and lower parts of the estuary in response to low and high river discharge conditions. However, such changing behavior was insufficiently discussed in 165 previous studies. One challenge is that the river discharge varies continuously 166 167 in reality and induces non-stationary variations in tidal dynamics. Conventional harmonic analysis is unable to accurately resolve the tidal changes when the 168 river discharge varies continuously in a big range (Jay and Flinchem, 1997; 169 Jay et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2015). Specifically, it is unknown how the overtides 170 will behave as the river discharge varies between the low and high limits other 171 than the results shown in Figure 1d. 172

- 173
- 174 **2.2 Model setup**





175 Examination of tidal data has provided a basic framework for our understanding of tidal dynamics (Dronkers, 1964; Godin, 1985). However, 176 conventional harmonic analysis may not accurately resolve tidal constituents 177 owing to the non-stationary river discharge variations (Jay and Flinchem, 178 179 1997). In addition, analytical solutions of the tidal dynamic equations have facilitated exanimation of leading-order wave propagation such as landward 180 181 damping or amplification of astronomical tides, given its advantages in terms of fast setup and transparency in unraveling physical processes (Jay, 1991; 182 Friedrichs and Aubrey, 1994; Lanzoni and Seminara, 1998; Savenije, 2005). 183 However, analytical models usually assume tidal propagation as a single wave 184 component, based on simplified tidal dynamic equations after scaling analyses, 185 e.g., adopting a linear assumption or a nonlinear expansion of the friction term 186 (Green, 1837; Kreiss, 1957; Jay, 1991; Parker, 1991; Friedrichs and Aubrey, 187 188 1994; van Rijn, 2011). Analytical models may not fully capture the nonlinearity imbedded in tidal dynamics, considering that the importance of different 189 nonlinear terms is likely not the same in different parts of long systems, 190 191 particularly under strong river flow conditions in long estuaries.

192 In this study we seek to capture the nonlinear dynamics by using a 193 numerical model, i.e., the open-source Delft3D codes, which has been widely 194 validated and used in varying estuarine and coastal environments (Lesser et al., 2004). We construct a schematized 1D estuary model with a convergent 195 planform mimicking the Changjiang River estuary. The model domain 196 197 describes a 650 km long estuary that is composed of a weakly convergent upstream segment (km-0 to km-400, width varying from 2 to 5 km) and a 198 strongly convergent downstream segment (km-400 to km-650, width varying 199 from 5 to 32 km (Figure 2a). Another situation with a uniform prismatic channel 200 (i.e., 2 km width and similar length) is adopted as part of the sensitivity analysis 201 to see the influence of basin geometry (Figure 2b). 202







Figure 2. Sketches of the schematized estuary model outline and settings considering (a) a convergent and (b) a prismatic planform. The shade face indicates the equilibrium bed profile. The RWL and MSL indicate residual water level and mean sea level, respectively.

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209 The model is forced by river discharge and tides. A combination of different tidal constituents is imposed, and for simplicity we mainly consider a 210 semi-diurnal M₂ constituent with an amplitude of 1.0 m. Extra simulations 211 212 considering both M_2 and S_2 constituents (an amplitude of 0.5 m) are included to facilitate more tidal interactions and generation of representative compound 213 tide such as MS₄. Other astronomical constitutes like O₁ and K₁ are excluded 214 because they would not affect the M₂ propagation very much. River discharge 215 is prescribed by constant values of 0, 10,000, 30,000, 60,000 m³/s, symbolized 216 as Q0, Q1, Q3, and Q6 scenarios, respectively, to facilitate harmonic analysis 217 with a stationary assumption. A dimensionless parameter, defined as the ratio 218 of river discharge to tide-averaged mean discharge (i.e., tidal prism divided by 219 tidal period) at the mouth section (R2T ratio), is estimated to be 0, 0.5, 2.6, and 220 42, which can be classified into tide-dominant, low, medium, and very high 221 river discharge circumstances, respectively (see section 3.3). The size of the 222 schematized estuary and the forcing conditions are characterized for a large 223 river estuary and in this case key dimensions from the Changjiang River 224 Estuary are used. 225

To obtain a suitable bottom profile for the tidal model, we first run a





227 morphodynamic simulation based on the above-mentioned model outline, with an M₂ tide and a river discharge seasonally varying between 10,000 and 228 $60,000 \text{ m}^3$ /s as the boundary forcing conditions, as that in Guo et al. (2016). 229 The long-term morphodynamic simulation starts from an initial sloping bed with 230 depth varying from 5 m to 15 m seaward, considers sediment transport and 231 bed level changes, which leads to a morphodynamic equilibrium when bed 232 233 level changes become small at the time scales greater than decades (Guo et al., 2016). The eventual equilibrium bed profile is then used as the bottom level 234 condition in the tidal simulations. The purpose of using this equilibrium bed 235 profile is to maintain consistency between the forcing and morphological 236 conditions. Based on this equilibrium bed profile and given high river discharge 237 imposed, the incoming tides are largely dissipated in the landward region of 238 the estuary, thus the influence of wave reflection is minimized. Details of the 239 240 morphodynamic model can be found in Guo et al. (2016), thus are not 241 repeated here.

Past studies using similar 1D representation of tidal estuaries confirm the 242 243 capture of leading-order dynamic processes (Friedrichs and Aubrey, 1994; 244 Lanzoni and Seminara, 1998). But it is noteworthy that the 1D model excludes 245 tidal flats and assumes uniform water density. These excluded processes may 246 have additional impact on tidal dynamics, e.g., additional momentum loss, reduction in bottom drag, and extra tidal asymmetry (Friedrichs and Aubrey, 247 1988; Talke and Jay, 2020). Although simplified, the model provides a virtual 248 249 lab where tidal wave propagation, deformation and associated overtide dynamics under varying river discharge can be isolated from the influences of 250 basin geometry and irregular shoreline, which enables straightforward 251 exploration of river-tide interactions. 252

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254 2.3 Data analysis

The 1D model solves the width-averaged shallow water equations, i.e., the continuity and momentum conservation equations, when the effect of Coriolis





²⁵⁷ force and density variations are neglected (Dronkers, 1964), as follows,

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$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u(h+\eta)}{\partial x} = 0$$
(1)

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$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + g \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} + \frac{g u |u|}{C^2 (h + \eta)} = 0$$
(2)

where *u* is velocity, η is water height above mean sea level, *h* is water depth below mean sea level, *g* is gravitational acceleration (9.8 m²/s), and *C* is a Cheźy friction coefficient prescribed as 65 m^{1/2}/s uniformly.

As the bed level is prescribed as an equilibrium profile, the water depth *h* is constant. In the presence of a river discharge, the water level height is composed of two parts, namely a mean water height related to river flow η_{0} , and a tide-induced water level oscillation,

267
$$\eta(x,t) = \eta_0(x) + \eta_{M2}(x)\cos(\omega t - kx)$$
 (3)

in case of the presence of M₂ tide only, in which η_{M2} is the surface amplitude of M₂, and ω is the frequency of M₂, and *k* is tidal wave number. Similarly, the current is composed of a mean current and a tidal component,

271
$$u(x,t) = u_0(x) + u_{M2}(x)\cos(\omega t - kx - \theta)$$
(4)

in which u_0 is the mean current velocity, u_{M2} is the velocity amplitude of M₂, θ is the phase difference between tidal surface wave and tidal currents.

Three nonlinear terms are identified in the tidal wave equations, namely the discharge gradient term in the continuity equation, and the advection and quadratic friction terms in the momentum equation:

277 • discharge gradient:
$$\frac{\partial u(h+\eta)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial (uh)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (u\eta)}{\partial x}$$
 (5)

278 • advection:
$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\frac{u^2}{2})$$
 (6)

• bottom friction:
$$\frac{gu|u|}{C^2(h+\eta)} \approx \frac{g}{C^2} \left(\frac{u|u|}{h} - \frac{\eta u|u|}{h^2}\right)$$
(7)

The bottom friction term is approximately expanded into a bottom shear stress term and a term considering depth variations, as the two terms on the right hand of Eq. (7), respectively, according to Godin and Martinez (1994), given the tidal amplitude to water depth ratio ($|\eta|/h$) is generally smaller than





284 one. Note that the bottom friction term can be calculated accurately with resolved water depths and velocities in the numerical model, while the 285 approximation of Eq. (7) is just used to analytically demonstrate how the 286 friction would lead to local generation of compound tides and overtides. Firstly 287 considering a situation when river discharge is small and the associated mean 288 current (u_0) is insignificant, the quadratic bottom stress can be further 289 expressed by Fourier decomposition according to Le Provost (1991) and Wang 290 et al. (1999): 291

292
$$\frac{u |u|}{h} \approx \frac{u_{M2}^2}{h} \sum_{n=0,1,2,\dots} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{8}{(2n-1)(2n+1)(2n+3)\pi} \cos(2n+1)\omega t \cos(nkx)$$
(8)

Equation (8) suggests that the self-interaction of M_2 tide through the quadratic bottom stress produces a series of overtide harmonics with odd-multiple frequencies, e.g., M_6 and M_{10} (Parker, 1984). In addition, Eq. 8 also yields a contribution to the same frequency as M_2 (when n=0), which suggests tidal energy dissipation via the quadratic shear stress term (Wang et al., 1999). Similarly, the depth variation term in Eq. 7 can be expressed as:

299
$$\frac{\eta u |u|}{h^2} \approx \frac{\eta_{M2} u_{M2}^2}{h^2} \sum_{n=0,1,2,...} (...) \cos(\omega t) \cos[(2n+1)\omega t]$$

300
$$= \frac{\eta_{M2} u_{M2}^2}{h^2} \sum_{n=0,1,2,\dots} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos(2n\omega t) + \frac{1}{2} \cos(2n+2)\omega t\right]$$
(9)

301 Equation (9) suggests that the self-interaction of M₂ tide through the depth variation term generates even-multiple frequency harmonics, e.g., M₄ and M₈. 302 303 Similar decomposition analysis for the advection and discharge gradient term suggests the generation of even-frequency overtide as well (Parker, 1984; 304 305 Wang et al., 1999). Following similar logic, when two components such as M_2 and S₂ tides are prescribed, compound tides with frequencies the sums (e.g., 306 MS_4) or differences (e.g., MS_f) of the prescribed constituents are generated. 307 The main focus of this study is devoted to M₄ overtide, given it is the first 308 overtide of M₂ and of profound importance for tidal asymmetry. 309

310 Following the above analyses that qualitatively indicates the possibility of





local overtide generation, we attempt to further quantify the relative
contribution of the nonlinear terms. For this purpose, we employ another
approximation of the quadratic shear stress term, as follows, according to
Godin and Martinez (1994) and Godin (1999),

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$$u \mid u \mid \approx 0.35u + 0.71u^3$$
 (10)

Replacing the Eq. (7) with Eq. (10) and using the expansion of Eqs. (3) and (4), a harmonic decomposition using the sine and cosine summation rules is used to identify the contribution of the nonlinear discharge gradient, advection, and bottom friction terms based on Eqs. (5) to (7). It follows the method in Gallo and Vinzon (2005) and Leberthal et al. (2019), but considering both quadratic bed shear and depth variation terms.

• discharge gradient:
$$0.5u_{M2} \frac{d\eta_{M2}}{dx} + 0.5\eta_{M2} \frac{du_{M2}}{dx}$$
 (11)

323 • advection:
$$0.5u_{M2} \frac{du_{M2}}{dx}$$
 (12)

324 • friction:
$$\frac{1.065g}{C^2h}u_0u_{_{M_2}}^2 + \frac{g}{C^2h^2}[1.065\eta_0u_0u_{_{M_2}}^2 + 0.525u_0^2\eta_{_{M_2}}u_{_{M_2}} + 0.355\eta_{_{M_2}}u_{_{M_2}}^3]$$
(13)

The first term in Eq. 13 is ascribed to the guadratic bottom shear while the 325 other terms are attributed to the depth variations. Again, the Eqs. (11) to (13) 326 suggest that the interaction between the mean current and M₂ velocity would 327 generate even-frequency harmonics like M₄ via both the quadratic bed shear 328 stress and depth variation terms, implying river influence through river-tide 329 interaction. Harmonic analyses of the model-output time series of water levels 330 and currents provide mean water height, mean current, and the amplitudes 331 and phases of surface wave and velocity of M₂ and M₄ tides for Eqs. (11) to 332 (13). To indicate their relative importance, the advection and friction terms are 333 then normalized by squared maximum velocity, and the discharge gradient 334 term is normalized by the product of maximum velocity and maximum water 335 level range. Comparison of the four scenarios forced by different river 336 discharge thus helps to demonstrate the variability (see section 3.3). 337





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339 3. Model results

340 3.1 Tidal variations under varying river discharge

The longitudinal amplitude variations of both the principal and forced 341 constituents are shown in Figure 3. The M_2 tide is firstly slightly amplified in the 342 utmost seaward regions close to the mouth, owing to channel convergence, 343 344 (Figure 3a). Landward of that, the incoming M₂ tide is predominantly dissipated, and river discharge enhances the damping. In addition, a considerable M₄ tide 345 is detected in the Q0 scenario (no river discharge) with a local amplitude 346 maximum around km-450. The M₄ amplitude becomes larger throughout the 347 estuary in the Q1 scenario compared with that that in Q0 (Figure 3b). However, 348 under higher river discharge, the M₄ amplitude reduces in the upper part of the 349 estuary, e.g., landward km-300, but continues to increase in the lower reaches, 350 e.g., seaward km-500 (Figure 3b). The location with maximal M4 amplitude 351 moves slightly landward as the river discharge increases from zero (i.e., from 352 km-450 in the Q0 scenario to km-400 in the Q1 scenario), but seaward as the 353 354 river discharge further increases (i.e., from km-420 in the Q3 scenario to 355 km-500 in the Q6 scenario). The M_4 to M_2 amplitude ratio exhibits similar 356 variations as the absolute M₄ amplitude, but the ratio is overall larger in the 357 upper parts of the estuary in which the absolute amplitudes of both M₂ and M₄ tides are small (Figure 3d). The increasingly damped and distorted tidal waves 358 further illustrate the river impact on the incoming tides (see Figure S1 in the SI). 359 360 When both M_2 and S_2 are imposed in the seaward boundary, a compound overtide MS₄ is detected inside the estuary, which exhibits similar spatial 361 variations as the M₄ tide (Figure 3c). We then focus on the M₄ overtide in the 362 following discussions. 363









Figure 3. The model-reproduced longitudinal variations of (a) M_2 tidal amplitude, (b) M_4 tidal amplitude, (c) MS_4 amplitude (in the extra scenario when both M_2 and S_2 are imposed at the boundary), and (d) the M_4 to M_2 amplitude ratios in the convergent estuary.

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370 3.2 Sensitivity to channel convergence

Channel convergence is expected to affect tidal wave propagation and 371 wave deformation (Jay, 1991; van Rijn, 2011; Talke and Jay, 2020). To 372 demonstrate the sensitivity of the model results to width variations, we setup a 373 prismatic channel model with similar settings as the convergent estuary. A 374 close-to-equilibrium bed profile is again obtained via morphodynamic 375 simulation for the prismatic estuary. River discharge elevates the mean water 376 377 level and mean current (Figure 4a). The incoming M₂ tide is overall damped 378 inside the estuary, without any amplification (Figure 4b). Similar M₄ overtide is 379 generated as well, but its amplitude is approximately 30% smaller than that in 380 the convergent estuary (Figure 4c). A smaller tidal prism owing to a smaller 381 mouth width and surface area explain the smaller tidal amplitude in the rectangular estuary. Apart from the differences in the absolute amplitudes, the 382





383 longitudinal variations of both the principal and forced tides and their spatial dependence on river discharge exhibit similar patterns as the convergent 384 estuary (Figures 3 and 4). These consistent results imply that channel 385 convergence does not fundamentally changes the spatial dependence of 386 overtide behavior on river discharge, thus the findings from the prismatic 387 estuary is taken to have implications for estuaries in general and will be the 388 389 focus of further more detailed examination in order to highlight the controlling impact of river discharge. 390



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Figure 4. Model-reproduced longitudinal variations of (a) mean water level height, (b) M_2 tidal amplitude, (d) M_4 tidal amplitude, and (d) the M_4 to M_2 amplitude ratio under different river discharge in the prismatic estuary.

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396 3.3 Contribution of the nonlinear terms

We then use the harmonic decomposition method proposed in section 2.3 to quantify the contribution of the different nonlinear terms on M_4 variations. In the absence of river discharge (Q0 scenario), the discharge gradient term is the largest contribution owing to strong landward damping of M_2 and subsequent longitudinal flux gradients, followed by bottom friction and advection (Figure 5a). The bottom friction term becomes more significant in the

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presence of river discharge (Figures 5b-d). The impact of the quadratic bottom 403 shear stress is much more important than that of depth variations. The 404 influence of the advection term is relatively small compared to the other two 405 nonlinear terms. Spatially, the impact of bottom friction is more profound in the 406 upper parts of the estuary, whereas the impact of discharge gradient and 407 advection is more apparent in the regions close the estuary mouth. The 408 location of maximal M₄ amplitude coincides with the peak in the combined 409 contribution of discharge gradient and advection in the Q0 scenario, but with 410 the peak in bottom friction in the other three scenarios. Overall, these results 411 suggest that the three nonlinear terms are equally important in the 412 tide-dominated long estuary, whereas the importance of the bottom friction, or 413 more precisely the quadratic bottom shear stress, stand out when there is 414 415 significant river discharge.



Figure 5. Quantification of the relative importance of three nonlinear terms on
M₄ overtide amplitude in the (a) Q=0 (R2T ratio=0), (b) Q=10,000 (R2T
ratio=0.5), (c) Q=30,000 (R2T ratio=2.6), and (d) Q=60,000 m³/s (R2T ratio=42)
scenarios. The contribution of bottom friction is divided into the components of





421 bottom shear stress and depth variation. The relative M_4 amplitude is 422 normalized by the maximal value in each scenario.

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The importance of the quadratic bottom shear stress can be furthermore 424 425 inferred when comparing the model results under guadratic and linear bottom shear stress. The quadratic bottom shear stress can be linearized using the 426 427 first order of the energy dissipation condition (Lorentz, 1926), as that applied by Zimmerman (1992) and Hibma et al. (2003) (see SI for more details). When 428 similar simulations are run using linear bottom stress, the landward damping 429 rates of the principal tides become smaller (see Figure S4). Measurable M₄ 430 overtide is still detected, which is ascribed to the effects of other nonlinear 431 effects (e.g., the advection and depth variations), but its amplitude is 432 comparably smaller than that under a quadratic bottom stress (Figure S4). 433 434 Moreover, increasing river discharge neither induces more tidal wave damping, nor more overtide generation under a linear bottom stress. 435

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437 **3.4 Quantification of the river discharge threshold**

The abovementioned model results imply that the M_4 amplitude tends to first increase and then decrease as the principle M_2 is increasingly dissipated by larger river discharge. To better reveal the nonlinear variations, we run extra simulations under constant river discharge in the range of 0 to 60,000 m³/s at an increment of 5,000 m³/s. Since the tidal amplitudes vary along the estuary, we then integrate the total (tide-averaged) energy of M_2 and M_4 tides (kg·m²/s²) throughout the estuary to represent overall tidal strength (van Rijn, 2011) by:

445 $\int_{0}^{L} 0.5 \rho g b A(x)^{2} dx / L$ (14)

where: *L* is the channel length, ρ is the water density, *b* is channel width which is uniform in the rectangular channel, and *A* is the surface amplitude of the M₂ or M₄ tide which varies along the estuary.

449 We see that the total energy of the M_2 tide decreases approximately





exponentially with increasing R2T ratios (Figure 6a). The decrease is more 450 significant for R2T<5 (see Figure S2a). The total energy of M₄ overtide, 451 however, first increases with increasing R2T ratio from zero and reaches a 452 peak when the R2T ratio is approximately unity, followed by a decrease as the 453 R2T ratio further increases (Figure 6a). The maximum total energy of M₄ is 4.7 454 times the case with no river discharge, under the model framework in this study. 455 456 Similarly, the energy ratio of M₄ to M₂ displays similar variations as the total energy variation of the M₄ tide, with a peak reached when the R2T ratio is 457 around 1-2 (Figure 6b). These results confirm that an intermediate river 458 discharge with R2T ratio close to unity, benefits maximal M₄ overtide 459 generation. Below this threshold, increased river discharge favors more M₄ tide 460 generation, whereas a larger river discharge above the threshold constrains 461 M₄ generation. 462



Figure 6. (a) The ratio of the total energy of M_2 and M_4 tides integrated throughout estuary in the scenarios with river discharge to the case without river discharge, and (b) the total energy ratio of M_4 tide to M_2 tide, as a function of the ratio of river discharge to tide-mean discharge at the estuary mouth (R2T ratio). Also see Figure S2 in the SI.

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463

470 4. Discussion

471 **4.1 Comparison with actual estuaries**

472 The findings regarding overtide variability in the model are overall





473 consistent with data analyses in actual estuaries like the Changjiang and Amazon River estuaries. The modeled results between the Q1 and Q3 474 scenarios are consistent with the along-channel variations of the principle tide 475 and overtide under low and high river discharge in the Changjiang River 476 Estuary. The changes in the M_4 to M_2 amplitude ratios with varying river 477 discharge between the upper and lower parts of the Changjiang River Estuary 478 479 also agree well with model results in the schematized convergent estuary (see Figure S3). In the Amazon River estuary where the river discharge is similarly 480 high and varies in a large range, the M_4 amplitude was overall larger under a 481 mean river discharge throughout the estuary compared to an idealized 482 situation with zero discharge (Figure 7c; Gallo and Vinzon, 2005). This result is 483 qualitatively consistent with the modeled differences between the Q0 and Q1 484 scenarios in this study. In the Columbia River estuary, a maximum in M₄ 485 486 amplitude is approached in the lower part of the estuary, followed by a subsequent decrease upriver under a year-mean river discharge (Figure 7d; 487 Jay et al., 2014). The model results can also explain why a higher river 488 489 discharge hastened the high water and delayed the low water in the lower part 490 of the Saint Lawrence Estuary (Godin, 1985, 1999). These field data and 491 model results confirm that the findings regarding the spatial dependence of 492 overtide on river discharge are likely to be ubiquitous for river estuaries.

Similar reports of the overtide behavior were, however, not widely found in 493 many other estuaries, given that the tidal dynamics have been intensively 494 495 studied worldwidely. We think that it maybe because the majority of estuaries worldwide are tide-dominated, such that river discharge is overall small and 496 rarely reaches a magnitude that exceeds R2T=1. Therefore, the role of river 497 discharge in stimulating wave deformation and associated overtide generation 498 has been widely observed and confirmed (when R2T<1), whereas the further 499 changes when R2T>1 are far less prevalent and hence less well documented. 500 Another possible explanation is that most tidal estuaries are small in physical 501 length (compared to wavelength), hence the spatial variations are less 502







⁵⁰³ apparent compared to long estuaries such as the Amazon, Changjiang, and



504 Columbia systems.

River estuary and (b, d) Columbia River estuary, from Gallo and Vinzon (2009) and Jay et al. (2014), respectively.

509

510 4.2 Role of river discharge

511 The majority of past studies have focused on either the damping effect of river flow on principal tides or the enhancing effect on overtide. When linking 512 them together, we see that the two-fold effects of river flow nicely explain the 513 514 nonlinear overtide changes in river estuaries (Figure 8). River discharge enlarges the currents and the effective friction on the moving flow. It induces 515 more damping of the principal tides, i.e., more energy dissipation of incident 516 tides. In addition, river-enhanced bottom friction reinforces the energy transfer 517 from the principal tide to overtide, i.e., stimulated overtide generation. As more 518 principal tidal energy is dissipated, particularly in the landward part of estuaries, 519 the energy available for transfer to overtide is also constrained. As a result, an 520 intermediate river discharge (when the R2T ratio is close to unity) provides an 521

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effective bottom stress that will not dissipate the principal tides too much, and at the same time stimulates considerable energy transfer to overtides, leading to the occurrence of a maximum in overtide energy. Note that other high-frequency overtides display similar spatial variations as M_4 , e.g., MS_4 (see Figure 3c) and MN_4 tide when M_2 and N_2 constituents are prescribed (not shown).

River impact on tidal wave propagation is space-dependent. River 528 discharge substantially elevates the mean water level in the upper part of 529 estuaries; the consequent larger water level gradient restricts landward wave 530 propagation (Godin, 1985; Cai et al., 2019). In the lower part of estuaries 531 where the incident tides are less dissipated, river flow plays a more important 532 role in reinforcing the effective bottom friction. As a result, dissipation of the 533 principal tide is more prominent in the upper part of estuaries, while tidal 534 535 energy transfer and overtide generation is more substantial in the lower part of 536 estuaries (Figures 8). These space-dependent dynamics explain the contrasting behavior of overtide in response to increasing river discharge, and 537 538 also confirm that tidal wave deformation maybe one of the degrees-of-freedom 539 of estuaries to maintain a state of minimum work by adjusting tidal wave 540 shapes in response to different river discharge (Zhang et al., 2016).



Figure 8. Sketches (a) showing the two-fold effects of river discharge on tides
mainly through the bottom friction, and (b) showing the intermediate river





544 discharge threshold that benefits maximum overtide generation.

545

The two-fold river impact on tidal propagation is coherently related to the 546 547 bottom friction. Past studies have indicated that the effects of river flow on tidal damping are exerted by a mechanism identical to bottom stress (Horrevoets et 548 al., 2004; Cai et al., 2014). River-tide interaction enhances the bottom stress, 549 which subsequently induces larger tidal damping (Alebregtse and de Swart, 550 2016). Past studies have also suggested that the nonlinear advection term is 551 the main cause of M_4 generation in tide-dominant estuaries, whilst the 552 nonlinear bottom stress term leads to generation of M₆ (Pingree and Maddock, 553 1978; Parker, 1984, 1991; Wang et al., 1999). In this work we see that the 554 quadratic bottom stress term also leads to significant M₄, through river-tide 555 interaction, i.e., between a river-enhanced mean current and M₂ current. This 556 557 explains why the M₄ amplitude is larger in the presence of a river discharge and a quadratic bottom stress, compared to the situation with no river 558 559 discharge and/or a linear bottom stress.

560 Given the comprehensive past studies of tidal dynamics in estuaries, the 561 contribution of this work lies in revealing the nonlinear overtide changes and identification of a river discharge threshold that benefit maximum overtide 562 563 generation. A river flow above or below the threshold induce contrasting overtide behavior along estuaries. Although the model results are obtained 564 under constant river discharge, the findings still hold true when considering 565 566 time-varying river discharge (see SI). One slight difference is that the tidal damping rate would be slightly different during the rising and falling limb of a 567 river discharge hydrograph (Sassi and Hoitink, 2013), which may be due to a 568 time lag in the influence of river discharge along the length of the estuary. 569

570

571 4.3 Implications and limitations

572 Better understanding of the overtide behavior has implication for studies of 573 tidal bores, interpretation of extreme high water and associated flood risk, and





574 tide-averaged sediment transport. Tidal wave deformation changes the height of high water and low water, which may then influence flooding risk 575 management and the water depth of navigational channels. Tidal bores are an 576 extreme phenomenon of tidal wave deformation when tides are concurrently 577 amplified and distorted to some degree (Bonneton et al., 2015). Tidal bores are 578 less likely to occur in river estuaries because of river-enhanced damping, 579 although deformation is enhanced. The interaction between tidally-averaged 580 mean current and guarter-diurnal overtide current may contribute to net water 581 transport (Alebreqtse and de Swart, 2016). Tide-averaged sediment transport 582 induced by tidal asymmetry related to M2-M4 interaction plays a profound role 583 in controlling sediment import or export and resultant infilling or empty of 584 estuaries (Postma, 1961; Guo et al., 2014). It is noteworthy that the horizontal 585 velocity of the quarter-diurnal tide may exhibit more spatial variations than its 586 587 surface amplitude, owing to interaction with estuarine morphology and inter-tidal interactions of eddy viscosity etc. (Dijkstra et al., 2017b; Lieberthal et 588 al., 2019). 589

590 Although we have argued that channel convergence will not fundamentally 591 change the model results and main findings, the potential impact of the 592 simplified model setting in this study still mandates careful evaluation when 593 applying them to actual estuaries. For instance, regional narrowing and shallowness in geometry and morphology is expected to induce variations in 594 tidal damping rates and distribution of amplitudes. River-influenced estuaries 595 596 can be partially or highly stratified, and a density difference and associated stratification affect tides by reducing the effective drag coefficient and changing 597 the pressure-gradient term (Talke and Jay, 2020). This impact maybe further 598 manifested in surface amplitude of overtide given the role of river-tide current 599 interaction in the nonlinear terms (Dijkstra et al. 2017a). Inter-tidal flats are 600 known as a sink of momentum and would exert additional impact on tidal wave 601 propagation (Hepkema et al., 2018). Exclusion of inter-tidal flats in this work 602 thus may lead to overestimation of the overtide amplitude. Furthermore, the 603





intermediate river discharge threshold that satisfies R2T=1 is expected to vary
with estuarine size and shape, given that the tidal mean discharge is strongly
affected by estuarine morphology. These dynamic complexities merit further
study for site-specific cases.

608

609 **5. Conclusions**

Based on past intensive studies of tidal dynamics in estuaries, this work is 610 devoted to examining the forced overtide behavior under varying river 611 discharge and the controlling nonlinear mechanism. We use a numerical 612 model for a schematized long estuary to capture the nonlinear dynamics as 613 much as possible. Model results reveal local overtide generation whose 614 amplitude however exhibits strong spatial dependence. While the principal M_2 615 tide is increasingly dissipated as the R2T ratio increases from zero, the M₄ 616 617 overtide amplitude decreases in the upper part of estuaries but increases in 618 the lower part of estuaries. With increasing R2T ratio, the total energy of M₄ 619 overtide integrated throughout the estuary first increases and reaches a peak 620 when the R2T ratio approaches unit. Further larger river discharge induces a 621 decline in total energy of both M_2 and M_4 . The modeled nonlinear changes in 622 overtide are quantitatively validated by data in actual estuaries like the 623 Changjiang and Amazon River estuaries.

Further sensitivity simulations confirm the significant role of bottom friction 624 that is enhanced by river-tide interaction in controlling the overtide behavior. 625 626 The effective bottom friction is enhanced by the river discharge, and this has two-fold impact: (1) dissipation of principal tidal energy and (2) stimulation of 627 energy transfer to overtides. The two-fold effect explains the occurrence of an 628 intermediate river discharge threshold that benefits maximal overtide 629 amplitude. This study demonstrates the need to look at both tidal wave 630 propagation and deformation at the same time in tidal wave dynamics, as well 631 as their nonlinear spatial variations in large river estuaries. The findings have 632 implications for study of tidal bores and tidal asymmetry and associated 633





- 634 morphological changes in river estuaries.
- 635

636 Author contribution

- 637 LG designed the experiments and carried them out. LG and IT prepared the
- 638 manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.
- 639
- 640 Declare of interest conflict
- 641 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 642

643 Data availability

- ⁶⁴⁴ The model data are available on request at the corresponding author.
- 645

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