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13

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36

37 **ABSTRACT**

38 Submarine channels deliver globally important volumes of sediments, nutrients,  
39 contaminants and organic carbon into the deep sea. Knickpoints are significant  
40 topographic features found within numerous submarine channels, which most likely  
41 play an important role in channel evolution and the behaviour of the submarine  
42 sediment-laden flows (turbidity currents) that traverse them. Although prior research  
43 has linked supercritical turbidity currents to the formation of both knickpoints and  
44 smaller crescentic bedforms, the relationship between flows and the dynamics of these  
45 seafloor features remains poorly constrained at field-scale. This study investigates the  
46 distribution, variation and interaction of knickpoints and crescentic bedforms along the  
47 44 km long submarine channel system in Bute Inlet, British Columbia. Wavelet  
48 analyses on a series of repeated bathymetric surveys reveal that the floor of the  
49 submarine channel is composed of a series of knickpoints that have superimposed,  
50 higher-frequency, crescentic bedforms. Individual knickpoints are separated by  
51 hundreds to thousands of metres, with the smaller superimposed crescentic bedforms  
52 varying in wavelengths from *ca* 16 m to *ca* 128 m through the channel system.  
53 Knickpoint migration is driven by the passage of frequent turbidity currents, and acts  
54 to redistribute and reorganize the crescentic bedforms. Direct measurements of  
55 turbidity currents indicate the seafloor reorganization caused by knickpoint migration  
56 can modify the flow field and, in turn, control the location and morphometry of  
57 crescentic bedforms. A transect of sediment cores obtained across one of the  
58 knickpoints show sand–mud laminations of deposits with higher aggradation rates in  
59 regions just downstream of the knickpoint. The interactions between flows, knickpoints  
60 and bedforms that are documented here are important because they likely dominate  
61 the character of preserved submarine channel-bed deposits.

62 Keywords: Crescentic bedforms; Knickpoints; Sedimentary records; Submarine  
63 channels; Turbidity currents

## 64 INTRODUCTION

65 Submarine channels are conduits for turbidity currents, which are one of the most  
66 volumetrically important processes for the delivery of sediments, nutrients, organic  
67 carbon and pollutants into the deep sea (Bouma, 2000; Peakall *et al.*, 2007; Paull *et*  
68 *al.*, 2010; Azpiroz-Zabala *et al.*, 2017). Turbidity currents are not only important for  
69 global sediment transport (Peakall & Sumner, 2015), but also because of the hazards  
70 they pose to seafloor infrastructure, such as communication cables or pipelines (Piper  
71 *et al.*, 1999; Cooper *et al.*, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2014). The triggers that generate such  
72 powerful flows have been ascribed to submarine landslides (Prior *et al.*, 1981; Obelcz  
73 *et al.*, 2017), plunging of hyperpycnal river discharge (Mulder *et al.*, 2003; Dietrich *et*  
74 *al.*, 2016), sediment remobilized by internal waves and tides (Puig *et al.*, 2004; Pomar  
75 *et al.*, 2012; Normandeau *et al.*, 2014) and sediment settling from surface river plumes  
76 (Parsons *et al.*, 2001; Hizzett *et al.*, 2017; Hage *et al.*, 2019).

77 Current understanding of how these currents transport sediments mainly derives from  
78 interpreting their deposits (turbidites) in the field, together with laboratory scale (flume)  
79 experiments and numerical modelling (e.g. Kuenen & Migliorini, 1950; Bennett & Best,  
80 1995; Best, 2005b; Talling *et al.*, 2012; Cartigny *et al.*, 2014; Kostic, 2014; Hage *et al.*,  
81 2018). These methods have produced major advances in understanding, but until  
82 recently there were very few direct measurements from turbidity currents in action  
83 (Inman *et al.*, 1976; Prior *et al.*, 1987; Talling *et al.*, 2015; Clare *et al.*, 2016). New  
84 detailed insights have been gained through direct monitoring of active turbidity  
85 currents, in particular using acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCP) (e.g. Hughes  
86 Clarke, 2016; Paull *et al.*, 2018; Simmons *et al.*, 2020). These achievements provide

87 extraordinary new insights into the flow fields and the internal structure and behaviour  
88 of turbidity currents (Khripounoff *et al.*, 2009; Talling *et al.*, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2014;  
89 Hughes Clarke, 2016; Azpiroz-Zabala *et al.*, 2017), their interaction with the seafloor  
90 and their resultant sedimentary deposits (e.g. Smith *et al.*, 2007; Paull *et al.*, 2018;  
91 Vendettuoli *et al.*, 2019; Guiastrennec-Faugas *et al.*, 2020; Heijnen *et al.*, 2020).

92 Prior studies have recognized the prevalence of crescentic bedforms over a range of  
93 subaqueous depositional settings, including delta slopes (Hughes Clarke *et al.*, 2012;  
94 Turmel *et al.*, 2015; Hage *et al.*, 2018), the axis of shallow-water submarine channels  
95 (Smith *et al.*, 2005; Hughes Clarke *et al.*, 2014; Normandeau *et al.*, 2014; 2015), the  
96 axis of deep-water channels (Babonneau *et al.*, 2013; Heijnen *et al.*, 2020) and across  
97 unconfined submarine fans (Normark *et al.*, 2002; Shao *et al.*, 2021). Recent  
98 bathymetric mapping has revealed that the upper sections of submarine channels are  
99 often dominated by upslope-migrating crescentic bedforms (Symons *et al.*, 2016;  
100 Hughes Clarke, 2016). Integration of sediment cores with repeat seafloor bathymetric  
101 surveys showed how frequent, supercritical turbidity currents can drive the upstream-  
102 migration of crescentic bedforms, reworking and reorganizing previous deposits (Hage  
103 *et al.*, 2018; Vendettuoli *et al.*, 2019). This reworking was found to leave behind  
104 ungraded or poorly-graded units of massive sands that infill scours (Hage *et al.*, 2018;  
105 Vendettuoli *et al.*, 2019; Englert *et al.*, 2020). These bedforms also shed light on the  
106 transition from river flow to submarine density flows and on the resulting modifications  
107 of seafloor geomorphology, and can be linked to observations of back-stepping beds  
108 and scour fills preserved in the sedimentary record (Hage *et al.*, 2018).

109 Another important morphological feature found in a number of submarine channels  
110 are knickpoints, which comprise abrupt changes in channel gradient and can vary in  
111 morphology along the channel (Mitchell, 2006; Paull *et al.*, 2010; Heijnen *et al.*, 2020).

112 Herein, knickpoints are defined as steep steps on the order of tens to hundreds of  
113 metres in height, differentiated from smaller crescentic bedforms by the larger scales  
114 and sharper crests (see Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). This definition of knickpoint or crescent  
115 bedform is based on a description of morphological features. Those definitions do not  
116 imply specific flow types or processes (for example, subcritical or supercritical flow) as  
117 diagnosed in some previous studies, where large-scale ‘cyclic step’ morphologies are  
118 referred to as supercritical flow derived knickpoints (e.g. Postma & Cartigny, 2014;  
119 Zhong *et al.*, 2015). Knickpoints in rivers are known to play a major role in governing  
120 subaerial channel formation, evolution and adjustment in response to either regional  
121 or local perturbations in fluvial/alluvial systems (Gilbert, 1895; Holland, 1974;  
122 Hayakawa & Matsukura, 2003; Cantelli & Muto, 2014; Pederson & Tressler, 2012;  
123 Baynes *et al.*, 2018). However, similar features in submarine environments are much  
124 less well understood. First-order questions remain concerning how submarine  
125 knickpoints migrate upstream, and how knickpoint migration interacts with smaller-  
126 scale associated crescentic bedforms, influencing the longer-term submarine channel  
127 evolution and the resulting sedimentary record. Although the morphology and  
128 formation mechanisms might differ, knickpoints are observed globally in various  
129 settings, and have been reported from erosional submarine canyons (for example,  
130 San Antonia Canyon, offshore Chile; Mitchell, 2006), open continental slopes (New  
131 Jersey continental slope; Mitchell, 2006), deep-water ‘waterfalls’ (Monterey Fan;  
132 Masson *et al.*, 1995), headless channels (Girardclos *et al.*, 2012) and submarine  
133 channel meander bend cut-offs (Cantelli & Muto, 2014; Sylvester & Covault, 2016). In  
134 a previous study of Bute Inlet, Heijnen *et al.* (2020) showed that submarine knickpoints  
135 can dominate submarine channel and channel-bend evolution, and can migrate  
136 upstream very rapidly (hundreds of metres per year). However, the influence and

137 interactions of knickpoints and their migration with superimposed crescentic bedforms,  
138 and the associated sedimentary signature that results, remain poorly documented.  
139 Here a sequence of bathymetric surveys acquired in Bute Inlet, British Columbia,  
140 Canada (see Heijnen *et al.*, 2020, for more details) are analysed. The first aim is to  
141 investigate the variability in seafloor morphology across a range of scales along the  
142 length of the system. The second aim is to explore the details of knickpoint migration,  
143 and the relationships between knickpoint dynamics and the response of superimposed  
144 crescentic bedforms. The third aim is to investigate the depositional architecture and  
145 sedimentary facies over a single closely-studied knickpoint through a suite of sediment  
146 cores, which in turn sheds light on the impact of spatial and temporal morphological  
147 changes and the interactions with turbidity current dynamics. A new knickpoint model  
148 is proposed that captures the coupling between turbidity currents, knickpoints and  
149 superimposed crescentic bedforms, and their potential impact on longer-term channel  
150 morphological evolution and preserved channel-floor deposits.

151

## 152 **STUDY SITE**

153 Bute Inlet is located along the coast of British Columbia, Canada (Fig. 1). The glacially  
154 carved fjord has a length of over 70 km. It hosts an active submarine channel that is  
155 44 km long, developing under the activity of traversing turbidity currents (Bornhold *et al.*  
156 *et al.*, 1994; Conway *et al.*, 2012; Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). The channel extends to a water  
157 depth of 600 m at the distal end of the system, where it terminates in a depositional  
158 lobe. Two main rivers, the Homathko and Southgate rivers, drain large watersheds  
159 within the mountainous hinterlands, and feed into Bute Inlet at the head of the fjord,  
160 contributing respectively *ca* 80% and *ca* 15% to the total river discharge (Fig. 1;  
161 Syvitski & Farrow, 1983). The remaining 5% is provided by minor tributaries of the fjord



162 (Syvitski & Farrow, 1983; Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). Discharge into Bute Inlet is highly  
163 seasonal, peaking in July because of snow and ice melt from the interior watershed.  
164 Short-lived flood discharges can be up to 1000 m<sup>3</sup>/s during peak season in the summer  
165 and early autumn (Bornhold *et al.*, 1994; Canadian Hydrographic Office data available  
166 from <https://wateroffice.ec.gc.ca/>). The lowest input occurs in the winter months as the  
167 precipitation is stored as snow and ice at higher altitudes in the watershed. With a  
168 range of 4 to 5 m during spring tides, the fjord is also affected by a relatively strong  
169 tidal forcing (Hughes Clarke, 2016). Very fine to coarse sand or fine gravel dominate  
170 the fjord delta top and the adjoining submarine channel (Syvitski & Farrow, 1983; Zeng  
171 *et al.*, 1991). A series of knickpoints has been discovered along the submarine channel  
172 of Bute Inlet, and has been described in detail previously (Gales *et al.*, 2019; Heijnen  
173 *et al.*, 2020).

174

## 175 **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

### 176 **Bathymetry**

177 Repeat multibeam bathymetric survey data was acquired from Bute Inlet over a period  
178 from 2008 to 2018 (for more details see Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). The bathymetric data  
179 cover the entire submarine-channel system, and they were obtained using a  
180 Kongsberg Maritime EM710 Multibeam Echosounder system (Kongsberg Gruppen  
181 ASA, Kongsberg, Norway) operating at 70–100 kHz, deployed on the Canadian  
182 Coastguard Research vessel *CCGS Vector*. These data were supplemented with  
183 higher-resolution bathymetric data from October 2016 and November 2018 surveys at  
184 the two fjord-head river deltas (i.e. Homathko River Delta and Southgate River Delta),  
185 which are used for the detailed analysis of crescentic bedform characteristics in the  
186 *Crescentic bedform characteristics at the Homathko and Southgate deltas* section

187 (see supplementary data Table 1). These complementary data were acquired using a  
188 Reson Seabat 7125 Multibeam Echo Sounder (Teledyne Reson AS, Slangerup,  
189 Denmark) mounted over the side of University of Victoria's *R/V Strickland*. This  
190 Multibeam Echo Sounder system operates at a frequency of either 200 or 400 kHz  
191 and has centimetric precision, with a horizontal resolution of tens of centimetres  
192 (Parsons *et al.*, 2005; Leyland *et al.*, 2016). All bathymetric data were processed using  
193 CARIS-HIPS software, applying sound velocity corrections, and pitch-roll-yaw  
194 calibrations. The accuracy of vessel position was improved post-survey using POSPac  
195 software which uses combined positional data fixes from local GPS stations recorded  
196 during the survey period. These positions were imported into CARIS within the  
197 processing workflow. CARIS was used to generate integrated bathymetric surfaces  
198 that were then exported to ArcGIS to analyse the bed elevation data, extract channel  
199 longitudinal profiles, and generate difference maps.

200

### 201 **Turbidity current dynamics**

202 Six down-looking acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCP) were deployed on  
203 moorings along the submarine channel for a duration of about four months from June  
204 to October 2016. These moorings were labelled ADCP6 to ADCP1, moving from the  
205 proximal delta to the distal lobe (Fig. 1). These moored ADCPs were positioned from  
206 the proximal, upper section of the channel to the distal lobe, with two ADCPs placed  
207 close together (ADCP5 and ADCP4) across a particular knickpoint for closer study,  
208 located *ca* 11 km downstream of the fjord-head along the channel course. The ADCPs  
209 were suspended above the channel bed via a two-point mooring for the shallower four  
210 ADCPs (ADCP6 to ADCP3), and suspended on a syntactic midwater buoy for the two  
211 deeper distal moorings (Clare *et al.*, 2020; for more details see supplementary data

212 Table 2). Acoustic backscatter data were recorded at all moorings, with one ADCP also  
213 capturing three-dimensional flow velocity data. The six ADCPs captured the passage  
214 and evolution of episodic turbidity currents through their four-month deployment as the  
215 flows progressed through the channel system. About 20 turbidity currents were  
216 observed during the first six-week period of deployment. The most proximal mooring  
217 (ADCP6) stopped recording after a particularly powerful turbidity-current event on 31  
218 July 2016; hence no record was generated at that location for the remaining 2.5  
219 months (Fig. 2). Throughout the monitoring period, most of the flows dissipated in the  
220 proximal part of the channel system, with 11 events observed at the primary study  
221 knickpoint (located between ADCP5 and ADCP4; Figs 1 and 2). Only three flow events  
222 traversed the entire channel reaching its lower section, and approaching the distal lobe  
223 zone. Because this study mainly focuses on channel morphological features and  
224 sedimentary architectures, detailed analysis of the turbidity current ADCP data is not  
225 presented in the *Results* section. Rather, this study uses ADCP data to determine  
226 turbidity current timing, frequency and front speeds, and utilises this information to  
227 relate knickpoint migration and sediment deposits to turbidity currents.

228

### 229 **Wavelet analysis and bedform discrimination**

230 The quantification of bedform geometry is essential to understanding the interactions  
231 between flow and bed morphology (Kostaschuk, 2006), explaining cross-strata  
232 formation processes (Reesink & Bridge, 2011), and quantifying sediment transport  
233 over the bedforms (Wilbers & Ten Beinke, 2003). The bedform geometries were  
234 extracted along transect lines at both Homathko and Southgate deltas, and were  
235 analysed with the bedform tracking tool (BBT; Van der Mark *et al.*, 2008) in Matlab®,  
236 along with manually picking out the bedform features. The differences in bedform

237 dimensions through time and space were quantified and analysed using analysis of  
238 variance (ANOVA) methodologies. Wavelet analysis was also performed on the  
239 bedform spatial series, using the Bedform-ATM (Bedform analysis toolkit for multiscale  
240 modelling) code (Gutierrez *et al.*, 2013, 2018). First, the longitudinal channel profile  
241 was extracted and detrended using a moving average method. The gradient was  
242 derived from a fitted trendline and the amplitude was calculated as the residual after  
243 subtracting the trendline from the series. A one-dimensional continuous wavelet  
244 analysis approach was adopted (Torrence & Compo, 1998) and applied to the  
245 detrended along-channel residual of the transects. The wavelet power spectrum  
246 demonstrates the dominant constituent wavelengths along the channel as a function  
247 of distance. Values that fall outside a cone of influence and that fall below significant  
248 power levels, which are limited by the length of the series and/or noise (Gutierrez *et*  
249 *al.*, 2018), are screened out.

250

### 251 **Sediment core analysis**

252 Seven box cores and one piston core were collected in this study, covering the study  
253 knickpoint and an area farther downstream (Fig. 1A). The piston core (STN007, 170  
254 cm) was collected during the June 2016 survey and the seven box cores were  
255 collected during the October 2016 survey. The October to June 2016 bathymetric  
256 difference maps show net deposition of between 1 m and 4 m adjacent to these box  
257 cores. Given the shorter length of the box cores (up to ca 0.32 m), these bathymetric  
258 differences represent deposits laid down during the survey period from June to  
259 October 2016. Cores were logged at the Institute of Ocean Science, British Columbia,  
260 to provide a description of the depositional signatures resulting from the passage of  
261 turbidity currents over the knickpoint and the superimposed bedforms. The orientation

262 of the cores could not be controlled during the sampling meaning that any dip  
263 orientations could not be recovered from the cores.

264

## 265 **RESULTS**

### 266 **Distribution of knickpoints and crescentic bedforms along a submarine channel**

267 The bathymetric difference map between surveys conducted in 2008 and 2018 is  
268 shown in Fig. 1. The difference map highlights the geomorphology of the submarine  
269 system and reveals a kilometre-scale pattern of alternating erosion and deposition  
270 along the entire channel across the ten years of the survey (see Heijnen *et al.*, 2020,  
271 for additional analysis). Two primary zones of erosion are present between the  
272 locations of ADCP4 and ADCP3, and between ADCP3 and ADCP2, where multiple  
273 knickpoints occur (i.e. termed 'knickpoint zones' in Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). Repeat  
274 bathymetric surveys over shorter timescales reveal that these knickpoints have been  
275 actively migrating upstream during at least the last ten years, resulting in locally  
276 intensive incision and entrenchment (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). Depositional zones also  
277 occur in the relatively flatter sections along the channel slope.

278 A thalweg-parallel longitudinal profile from the October 2016 survey, with a length of  
279 over 44 km, is shown in Fig. 3A. The channel gradient decreases from *ca* 8° at the  
280 delta front to <0.25° distally. The vertical black lines in Fig. 3A mark the location of the  
281 major knickpoints along the channel with a slope gradient variation from 1.0° to 0.25°.  
282 Knickpoint locations correspond to maxima in both channel gradient (Fig. 3B) and  
283 bedform amplitude (Fig. 3C), with apparent clustering. The wavelet power spectrum of  
284 the detrended profile shows that knickpoint locations correspond to the increases in  
285 spectral power of wavelengths, typically in the range of *ca* 16 to *ca* 128 m (Fig. 3D).  
286 These wavelengths are typical of the crescentic bedforms visible in bathymetric data.

287 Crescentic bedforms associated with knickpoints are a pervasive feature of the entire  
288 channel system, as shown in Fig. 3C, with the data indicating that bedform  
289 characteristic wavelengths decrease downstream of knickpoints.

290 Knickpoints are typically separated by lower-gradient regions that stretch over  
291 distances of hundreds to thousands of metres (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). Two main  
292 knickpoint zones (corresponding to the red erosional zones in Fig.1) are present in the  
293 medial (from *ca* 17 km to 22 km) and lower channel sections (from *ca* 30 km to 34  
294 km). There is seemingly no systematic pattern in the scales (amplitude, gradient and  
295 wavelength) of knickpoints observed along the entire channel. However, the frequency  
296 of crescentic bedforms appears to be higher in the shallower proximal part of the  
297 system than the deeper part of the channel (Fig. 3C), although this may be related to  
298 the decline in sensing capability with increasing water depth.

299

### 300 **Crescentic bedform characteristics at the Homathko and Southgate deltas**

301 The clinoforms of the Homathko and Southgate deltas are dominated by trains of  
302 crescentic bedforms, with zones of both degradation and aggradation across a range  
303 of incoming riverine flow conditions, as evident from repeat mapping during the study  
304 period (Fig. 4). The subaqueous channel morphologies for the Homathko and  
305 Southgate deltas are shown in Fig. 4C and 4D, respectively. The Homathko Delta  
306 clinoform gradient varies from *ca* 8° to *ca* 3°. A range of flow channel/pathways are  
307 observed across the clinoform delta front, notably shallower than *ca* 30 m water depth,  
308 where there is an average seabed gradient of 6.25°. At *ca* 75 m water depth these flow  
309 pathways merge into three principal channels in the along the slope, and then into a  
310 single channel at the base of the delta clinoform, at *ca* 115 m depth. A large  
311 subaqueous ridge is present at the south-west side of the delta (Fig. 4A, labelled 'a')

312 with a maximum width of 100 m, height of 30 m above the channel bed and a length  
313 of 1030 m (Fig. 4C). The ridge extends from 40 m to 115 m water depth and has been  
314 slowly eroded over the ten-year survey period, likely due to flank failures.

315 At Southgate Delta, the clinoform slope has a steeper gradient compared to Homathko  
316 Delta (Fig. 4B). The main channel, to the north of the delta, is dominated by large-  
317 scale crescentic bedforms. A few smaller channels are situated in the central section  
318 of the delta clinoform. In the southern section of the delta, a narrower shallow channel  
319 exists. All these delta clinoform channels merge into one wider conduit at a depth of  
320 *ca* 130 m.

321 Wavelet analysis (Fig. 5) allows the examination of the complex relationship between  
322 bedform scales and the underlying channel morphology. Crescentic-bedform  
323 wavelengths generally increase as water depth increases and as channel gradient  
324 declines down the clinoform (Fig. 5C and F). Despite the different gradient profiles of  
325 the two deltas, the ranges of dominant crescentic bedform wavelengths show similar  
326 trends down the clinoform face.

327 A statistical analysis of the handpicked bedform geometric features obtained from  
328 higher-resolution bathymetric mapping is given in Fig. 6. Comparisons of bedform  
329 height, wavelength and steepness (the ratio of bedform height to wavelength) are  
330 shown for the Homathko Delta surveys conducted in both October 2016 and  
331 November 2018, and for the Southgate Delta survey of November 2018. The following  
332 observations are made:

333 (1) Crescentic bedform heights mostly vary from 0.5 m to 2.0 m on both delta  
334 clinoforms. The mean value of bedform height of the Homathko 2018 survey data is  
335 smaller than both the Homathko 2016 and Southgate 2018 survey data. The

336 Homathko 2018 survey data show a higher proportion of bedform heights below 1 m  
337 and a wider variability (Fig. 6A).

338 (2) The bedform wavelengths of the Homathko 2018 survey vary from 5 m to 40 m.  
339 Over two-thirds of the bedform wavelengths fall into the range from 15 m to 45 m in  
340 the Homathko 2016 survey data, with a slightly higher percentage of longer  
341 wavelengths of over 50 m (Fig. 6B).

342 (3) As shown in Fig. 6C, over 90% of the steepness values are within the range from  
343 0.01 to 0.09. The Homathko 2018 survey data have dominant steepness values of *ca*  
344 0.06, which are higher than the mean of steepness in both the Homathko 2016 and  
345 Southgate 2018 survey data. As such, although the height and wavelength are smaller,  
346 the Homathko 2018 survey data tend to show higher bedform steepness values.

347 Generally, the bedform heights and wavelengths in the October 2016 survey of the  
348 Homathko Delta are higher than those determined from the November 2018 survey.  
349 Additionally, the differences in steepness are analysed by using the analysis of  
350 variance (ANOVA), which shows that the results fall into the 95% significance level,  
351 suggesting that there are statistically significant differences of crescentic bedform  
352 steepness between both the Homathko 2016 and 2018 data, as well as the Homathko  
353 2018 and Southgate 2018 datasets.

354

### 355 **The influence of knickpoints on crescentic bedforms**

356 The morphology of the Bute Inlet submarine channel is dominated by multiple  
357 knickpoints that are superimposed by higher-frequency, smaller crescentic bedforms  
358 (Fig. 3). Knickpoints migrate upstream through the erosion of the steep knickpoint face  
359 (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). The geometry and scale of the study knickpoint is illustrated in



360 the red dashed box 'b' in Fig. 3D and the red dashed box in Fig. 1A. The difference in  
361 water depth over the knickpoint is revealed by the repeat seafloor surveys in June  
362 2016 and May 2018, and is shown in Figs 7 and 8.

363 Wavelet analysis (Fig. 8) across the study knickpoint indicates a spatial variability in  
364 the wavelengths (extending from *ca* 16 to 128 m) of the crescentic bedforms that are  
365 superimposed across the larger knickpoint. In the June 2016 survey, crescentic  
366 bedforms occur within a region *ca* 140 m downstream of the knickpoint. Further  
367 downstream, crescentic bedforms return to much shorter wavelengths, which are  
368 similar in scale to bedforms located just upstream of the knickpoint. The wavelet power  
369 spectrum from the May 2018 survey shows similar bedform scale patterns to June  
370 2016, and the wavelength composition of the knickpoint remains stable while migrating  
371 up the channel, with the whole unit (knickpoint and the associated downstream  
372 crescentic bedforms) being elongated. A few extremely long-wavelength (up to 120 m)  
373 bedforms are present and extend to 400 m, downstream of the knickpoint.

374

### 375 **Sedimentary record of turbidity currents over a knickpoint**

376 Cores obtained from the central axis of the channel (see Fig. 9B for locations and  
377 context) over the closely studied knickpoint show that the highly active channel is a  
378 predominantly sandy system, reworked by repeated turbidity currents (Fig. 9B). Some  
379 of the sediment cores may have been disturbed during the coring process due to tube  
380 friction, resulting in convex deformation of the lamination (for example, STN009 and  
381 STN010). Contacts between beds are generally sharp and erosive, with erosional  
382 discontinuities in STN007 and STN018. Sediments in the cores can be correlated via  
383 comparison with the bathymetric difference maps. All sediment cores downstream of  
384 the knickpoint, collected in the October 2016 survey, were deposited between June

385 and October 2016, most likely by the last few larger flows that passed ADCP5 and  
386 ADCP4 during 2016 (Figs 2A and 9A). A layer of light-grey mud (1 to 2 cm) distinct  
387 from the darker-grey mud layers in the deeper sections of cores is seen at the very top  
388 of sediment cores, likely representing background hemipelagic deposition or the late  
389 waning stage deposits of the previous turbidity current.

390 Core STN017, situated upstream of the knickpoint head, is composed of coarse sand  
391 fining upward to medium/fine sand, showing a relatively minor change in grain size.  
392 (Fig. 9A and B). At a similar location, piston core STN007 was collected during the  
393 June 2016 survey and the core length is around seven times longer than core STN017,  
394 presenting better developed textural grading from very coarse to fine sand. Core  
395 STN016 features well-developed cross-stratification. At the toe of the knickpoint, core  
396 STN015 sampled a sandy bed comprising woody organic fragments at the top.  
397 Interbedded sand and mud laminations are present at STN009 and STN010 which are  
398 located just downstream of the knickpoint. The dark-grey mud layer within the sand-  
399 mud laminations likely settled in the wake of the flows. Each lamina in core STN009  
400 contains an upward-fining sand layer and a dark mud/silty layer (typical turbidites).  
401 Farther down the system, cores STN014 and STN018 present a normally-graded sand  
402 sequence with a mud cap. Compared to STN009 and STN010, the muddy sections of  
403 STN014 and STN018 could have all been eroded (or may not have been deposited  
404 homogeneously), with the exception of the very last mud drape. The aggradation just  
405 downstream of the knickpoint is thicker than farther down system over the study period  
406 (see Fig. 9A), likely related to rapid fallout of sand eroded from the knickpoint face.

407

## 408 **DISCUSSION**

### 409 **Characterizing the seafloor morphology of the submarine channel**

410 A recent study of Bute Inlet by Heijnen *et al.* (2020) demonstrated how exceptionally  
411 fast-moving and internally-generated knickpoints dominate the evolution of the  
412 submarine channel and cause channel-wide erosion, potentially resulting in channel  
413 geometry asymmetry and lateral migration of the channel thalweg. Turbidity currents  
414 transport sediment eroded by upstream knickpoint migration and deposit them  
415 downstream of knickpoint and even farther down channel, which exerts a strong  
416 control on the erosion and deposition pattern of the overall submarine channel system.  
417 The bathymetric surveys and wavelet analyses indicate that the entire submarine  
418 channel is composed of a train of knickpoints with superimposed higher frequency  
419 crescentic bedforms. Previous observations have shown how similar crescentic  
420 bedforms are eroded and migrate upslope due to hydraulic jumps within supercritical  
421 turbidity currents (Hughes Clarke, 2016; Hage *et al.*, 2018). Crescentic bedforms are  
422 omnipresent along the two deltaic clinoforms, with bedform wavelengths varying from  
423 10 to 50 m and with heights from 0.2 to 2.5 m. The generally higher values of bedform  
424 height and wavelength in the Homathko October 2016 survey data compared to the  
425 November 2018 survey data might be related to the lower river discharge in 2018 than  
426 in 2016 (Canadian Hydrographic Office). As the channel becomes deeper and the  
427 channel gradient declines distally, a train of knickpoints is formed along the main  
428 channel system that have smaller-scale superimposed crescentic bedforms with  
429 dominant wavelengths varying from *ca* 16 to *ca* 128 m. The scale of bedform  
430 wavelength changes over knickpoint features and their dynamics appear to be closely  
431 coupled. The authors posit that as flows pass over the steep knickpoint face, they  
432 accelerate; the downstream effect of which serves to modify the scale of crescentic  
433 bedforms created by the flows. The extent of that modification is therefore likely a  
434 function of the distance over which elevated flow velocity is maintained. However,

435 more work is needed to quantify the possible relationships between knickpoint  
436 gradients, bedform dimensions and the formative currents.

437 In addition, the variation in the length of the zone downstream of knickpoints, within  
438 which crescentic bedforms are superimposed, may suggest that hydrodynamic  
439 differences in the interaction between knickpoints and turbidity currents can induce a  
440 variability in the spatial and temporal distribution of the crescentic bedforms. This has  
441 important implications because these zones immediately downstream of knickpoints  
442 are likely sites of higher preservation potential for deposits accumulated by turbidity  
443 currents. Thus variations in the size and distribution of bedforms deposited within this  
444 region, particularly if they are significant along the overall extent of the channel bed,  
445 might prove a key factor to explore process–product relationships in these systems.  
446 Such variability would need to be included in new models (e.g. Hage *et al.*, 2018) and  
447 allow for alterations in the thickness of crescentic bedforms to be accounted for.

448 The variability of knickpoints and bedforms will also impact bed roughness. Bed  
449 roughness is an essential parameter for the understanding of hydrodynamics and  
450 sediment dynamics in sedimentary systems (Kleinhans, 2005; Lefebvre *et al.*, 2011;  
451 Dorrell *et al.*, 2013). Due to the large dimensions and wide distribution of knickpoints  
452 and associated crescentic bedforms, these compound seabed morphologies exert a  
453 strong local impact on flow dynamics and evolution and on sediment transport in  
454 overlying turbidity currents. Since the dimension and size of knickpoints and crescentic  
455 bedforms vary from the proximal portions of the channel to the distal lobe, bedform  
456 roughness of the channel seafloor will change accordingly. Channel depth (i.e. depth  
457 from channel seabed to levee top) generally decreases from ca 35 m proximally to a  
458 few metres at the outlet adjoining distal lobe, with a few locally deepened erosion  
459 zones along the channel (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020). Most of the turbidity currents captured

460 in the ADCP data dissipated within the upper channel, and only three turbidity currents  
461 reached the end of the instrument array (Fig. 2A). The often-powerful nature of turbidity  
462 currents can significantly modify the channel seafloor morphology (Hughes Clarke,  
463 2016; Paull *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the bedform roughness variation along the  
464 channel seafloor suggests corresponding changes in the Chézy coefficient (the  
465 relation between friction on flow boundary and flow velocity) longitudinally along the  
466 system, as well as changes in its impact on bed shear stress and turbidity current  
467 hydrodynamics (for example, shear velocity, turbulence and suspended sediment  
468 concentration). Although a range of empirical formulae have been developed to  
469 estimate roughness in unidirectional riverine flow (Swart, 1976; Grant & Madsen, 1982;  
470 Van Rijn, 1984; Nielsen, 1992; Soulsby, 1997), there remains debate on how to best  
471 quantify bedform roughness in submarine environments. Further investigation is  
472 needed to quantitatively understand how flows evolve along submarine channels  
473 based on seabed morphology, and to constrain the effects of changing Chézy  
474 coefficient on currents crossing the system. For example, further study of the role of  
475 roughness on the runout distance of turbidity currents will provide significant advances  
476 to understanding and predicting how such currents evolve down-system, thus  
477 providing additional insights for the interpretation of their sedimentary deposits.

478

### 479 **Role of slope gradient on controlling channel morphological features**

480 This section explores how seabed gradient affects knickpoints and bedforms. Similar  
481 scales of knickpoints and superimposed crescentic bedforms have been observed in  
482 the seafloor of Monterey Canyon (offshore California, USA) and the upper part of the  
483 Capbreton submarine canyon (offshore western France), which maintain a longitudinal  
484 gradient of 1.6° and 1.0° respectively (Paull *et al.*, 2011; Guiastrennec-Faugas *et al.*,

485 2020). The South Taiwan Shoal and West Penghu submarine canyons in the South  
486 China Sea also host a series of large-scale features that can be interpreted as  
487 knickpoints, ranging in average gradient from  $0.26^\circ$  to  $1.24^\circ$  (Zhong *et al.*, 2015). In  
488 this study, knickpoints start to form at *ca* 7 km from the Homathko Delta lip. The  
489 knickpoints extend to the distal channel across an average slope varying from  $1.0^\circ$  to  
490  $0.25^\circ$ , a similar gradient to the features observed in canyons of the South China Sea.  
491 Knickpoint formation in Bute Inlet occurs in a system with a similar seabed gradient to  
492 other locations, and therefore knickpoint formation could indeed be a function of slope.  
493 Previous research has reviewed bedform features which are morphologically similar  
494 to crescentic bedforms, termed cyclic steps. Cyclic steps are defined as a type of  
495 upper-flow-regime bedforms consisting of trains of upstream-migrating and upslope-  
496 migrating bed undulations (Slootman & Cartigny, 2020), although such upper-stage  
497 flow regime conditions are likely not a prerequisite for the formation of all crescentic  
498 bedforms (Paull *et al.*, 2010). Slope controls on cyclic steps have been noted by  
499 previous research, such as the Monterey East Channel ( $0.61^\circ$ ; Fildani *et al.*, 2006),  
500 the Eel Canyon ( $1.61^\circ$ ; Lamb *et al.*, 2008), the Redondo Fan Valley ( $1.28^\circ$ - $2.09^\circ$ ;  
501 Normark *et al.*, 2009) and the San Mateo Channel ( $1.94^\circ$ ; Covault *et al.*, 2014). Kostic  
502 (2011), on the basis of numerical simulations, suggested that cyclic steps could not  
503 form on higher slope gradients. Crescentic bedforms formed in the Squamish Delta  
504 have been interpreted as cyclic steps based on direct flow-monitoring data (Hughes  
505 Clarke, 2016). In this study, crescentic bedforms present at both deltas are  
506 morphologically similar to the bedforms in the Squamish Delta and thus the authors  
507 infer that these crescentic bedforms are cyclic steps. The slope gradient of both deltas  
508 is up to  $8^\circ$ , which indicates that cyclic steps could be formed at relatively steep slope  
509 gradients. Therefore, the model from Kostic (2011) may be applicable to a wider range

510 of systems than previously thought. Additionally, prior research proposed that slope  
511 gradient controls the aspect ratio (ratio of bedform wavelength to height) of the  
512 bedforms (Normandeau *et al.*, 2016; Dietrich *et al.*, 2016); however, the present study  
513 shows that river discharge could also influence the aspect ratio of crescentic bedforms,  
514 as is evident from the bathymetric changes in the Homathko Delta in 2016 and 2018  
515 (Fig. 6C).

516

### 517 **A new model of the interaction between turbidity currents, knickpoints and** 518 **crescentic bedforms**

519 Turbidity current structure and the associated depositional signature have drawn  
520 significant attention in the last decades (e.g. Walker, 1967; Komar, 1985; Sumner *et*  
521 *al.*, 2013; Postma & Cartigny, 2014; Paull *et al.*, 2018) and their sedimentary deposits  
522 play a significant role in current understanding of turbidity-current flow dynamics and  
523 evolution (e.g. Kuenen & Migliorini, 1950; Pirmez & Imran, 2003; Talling *et al.*, 2012;  
524 Hubbard *et al.*, 2014). Hage *et al.* (2018) has identified sedimentary architectures  
525 related to back-stepping bedforms and scour fills in the delta front. Sediment cores  
526 enable the deciphering of depositional processes and the sedimentary environment  
527 from which the stratigraphic evolution associated with turbidity currents can be  
528 reconstructed. The flow monitoring, repeat seafloor surveys and a series of sediment  
529 cores are now integrated, to present a new model for the depositional architecture and  
530 sedimentary facies that occur across a knickpoint, with specific reference to the  
531 interactions between the knickpoint, crescentic bedforms and the successive flows  
532 that drive their upstream migration (Fig. 10).

533 *Phase (1): Slow-moving turbidity current upslope of the knickpoint*

534 The channel bed surface gradient is relatively low between adjacent knickpoints  
535 (typically 0.12 to 0.27 degrees), and the turbidity-current frontal speed is thus  
536 reasoned to be relatively slower upslope of the knickpoint.

537 *Phase (2): Acceleration of the turbidity current over the knickpoint*

538 Large-scale crescentic bedforms (in terms of height and wavelength) are  
539 superimposed on the knickpoint and are altered during knickpoint retreat, clustering  
540 around and tracking the knickpoints spatially. Bedform morphologies on the high-  
541 gradient leeside of the knickpoint are related to flow acceleration over the knickpoint,  
542 and could indicate the presence of a supercritical flow region. Low levels of mud  
543 preservation occur within cores recovered from the steep face of the knickpoint. Mud  
544 layers deposited in the wake of the flow, and from settling of hemipelagic sediments,  
545 are unlikely to be preserved in the bedform region associated with the knickpoint; this  
546 is due to entrainment by successive flows.

547 *Phase (3): Potential hydraulic jump*

548 The deposition of large sand volumes (i.e. core STN015) is possibly linked to flow  
549 deceleration at the transition from supercritical to subcritical over the knickpoint,  
550 leading to rapid settling of sand from suspension in a region just downstream of the  
551 knickpoint. The transition from net-erosion to net-deposition in Fig. 9 is the region  
552 where a hydraulic jump may have occurred (i.e. at ca 500 m in Fig. 9A).

553 *Phase (4): Decrease in bedform wavelength with distance downstream of the*  
554 *knickpoint*

555 Farther downstream of the knickpoint, bedform wavelengths gradually decrease to  
556 smaller scales similar to bedforms in Phase (1). The deposits of sand-mud lamination  
557 due to flow deceleration indicate higher preservation potential.



558 *Phase (5): Downslope deposition of sediment*

559 In the downslope region, typically over thousands of metres distance from the previous  
560 knickpoint (and upslope of the next knickpoint), aggradation gradually decreases  
561 down-channel. Turbidity currents primarily deposit sand overlain by a mud cap. It could  
562 be inferred that the mud layer is easily eroded and entrained by a successive flow and  
563 thus the mud may play a role in sustaining turbidity currents over the shallow gradients  
564 between knickpoints.

565 Cyclic steps are bounded by local flow transitions from supercritical to subcritical  
566 states (Kostic & Parker, 2006; Slooman & Cartigny, 2020). Sediment cores, collected  
567 over crescentic bedforms that are interpreted as cyclic steps at Squamish Delta  
568 (Hughes Clarke, 2016; Covault *et al.*, 2017), reveal multiple units of ungraded or poorly  
569 graded sandy deposits without a regular top mud layer and lamination (Hage *et al.*,  
570 2018). In this study, deposits do show mud and sand beds as part of the depositional  
571 signature; however, these tend to be located within specific zones that are clustered  
572 downstream of knickpoints. Previous work has suggested trends in grain-size and  
573 facies variation downstream of knickpoints (Postma & Cartigny, 2014); however such  
574 a trend is not observed here. Possible reasons for the absence of such a trend could  
575 be: (i) sampling bias due to preferential sampling of the shallow surface sediments in  
576 this study, thus not capturing deeper part of the sediments; (ii) the possible role of  
577 different flow magnitudes in producing different facies signatures; and (iii) the  
578 possibility that the depositional model of Postma & Cartigny (2014) may be inadequate  
579 as a generalization;

580 The amount of aggradation immediately downstream of a knickpoint is greater than  
581 farther down-slope, suggesting a better preservation potential at this position over at  
582 least short timescales (Fig. 9A). This rapid deposition indicates that most of the sand

583 eroded locally at the knickpoint rapidly falls out of suspension just downstream of the  
584 knickpoint. The lack of mud layers suggests that the flows are likely sustained by the  
585 mobilization of fluid-mud layers (the uncompacted mud layer rich in water) on the  
586 seafloor, rather than by the basal sand. The regions downstream of knickpoints will  
587 likely dominate in terms of the preservation in submarine channel deposits due to  
588 higher aggradation rate and better preservation potential at these specific locations.  
589 Therefore such variability, and the space–time coupling of knickpoints and crescentic  
590 bedform interactions, need to be better integrated into our conceptual  
591 sedimentological models for these systems.

592

## 593 **CONCLUSIONS**

594 The geomorphology of submarine channel knickpoints and associated crescentic  
595 bedforms have been analysed in unusual detail within Bute Inlet, western Canada,  
596 using a combination of bathymetric measurements, sediment cores and acoustic  
597 Doppler current profiler data. The results of wavelet analysis on the bathymetric data  
598 reveal distinct trends and a specific spatial-temporal coupling between the larger  
599 knickpoint features and superimposed crescentic bedforms. Due to the variable  
600 dimensions of knickpoints and associated crescentic bedforms, bedform roughness  
601 and its systematic variation along the channel seafloor potentially exert a significant  
602 influence on turbidity-current hydrodynamics and runout, which remains an avenue for  
603 future research. Analyses of sediment cores suggest that deposits accumulated in  
604 regions immediately downstream of knickpoints will likely dominate the preservation  
605 within submarine channel systems. This shows why a detailed examination of the  
606 coupling between knickpoints and crescentic bedforms is needed to inform a process–  
607 product understanding for these subaqueous systems affected by turbidity currents.

608

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622

623 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

624 Data related to this paper are available online at “NOAA data repository”  
625 (<https://accession.nodc.noaa.gov/0202076>).

626

627

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893 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

894

895 Figure 1. (A) Submarine channel difference map of Bute Inlet between 2018 and 2008 highlighting  
896 channel dynamics. The positive values (blue) imply the deposition and negative values (red) imply  
897 erosion. Six acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCP) were located on moorings placed from the  
898 proximal to the distal lobe of the channel. The Homathko and Southgate River deltas are the principal  
899 sources of sediment for the submarine channel. The study knickpoint (red dashed box) and a set of  
900 sediment cores are shown in Figs 7 and 9C. (B) Location of Bute Inlet in British Columbia, Canada.

901

902 Figure 2. (A) Schematic of turbidity-current frequency and runout from the six ADCP moorings between  
903 June and October 2016. The light-grey shade rectangle (upper right) denotes the period of time after  
904 failure of ADCP6 (Fig. 1) during the passage of a strong turbidity current. The dates of three major  
905 turbidity currents captured by ADCP3 are shown. (B) Velocity magnitude of a turbidity current event at  
906 ADCP3 on 20 June 2016.

907

908 Figure 3. (A) Longitudinal profile of the dominant submarine channel from the Homathko Delta to the  
909 distal lobe from the October 2016 bathymetric survey. Water depth varies from *ca* 58 m to *ca* 600 m.  
910 The red line (1.3 km) denotes the break of slope at the bottom of the Homathko Delta clinoform. The  
911 blue line (4 km) denotes the confluence of the Southgate Delta and the main channel. The black lines  
912 denote the locations of major knickpoints along the channel. (B) Channel longitudinal gradients. (C)  
913 Detrended channel profile showing bedform amplitude variation. Due to the vertical resolution of the  
914 survey, amplitudes smaller than 2 m and below *ca* 400 m depth between surveys should be considered  
915 with caution. (D) Wavelet power spectrum of the detrended channel profile. The colour scale shows  
916 spectral power of signal, which highlights the dominant frequency of variation (bedform wavelength)  
917 within the series. Red dashed boxes denote areas discussed in the *Crescentic bedform characteristics*  
918 *at the Homathko and Southgate deltas* section (labelled 'a') and *The influence of knickpoints on*  
919 *crescentic bedforms* section (labelled 'b'), respectively.

920

921 Figure 4. (A) Geomorphology of the upper part of Bute Inlet submarine channel system. The blue and  
922 black lines represent the profiles of Homathko and Southgate deltas. The red dashed box represents

923 the subaqueous ridge (labelled 'a'). (B) Longitudinal profiles of Homathko and Southgate deltas shown  
924 in Fig. 4A. (C) Detailed bathymetric images of Homathko River Delta and (D) Southgate River Delta.

925

926 Figure 5. Analysis of crescentic bedform of the Homathko River Delta (A), (B) and (C) and Southgate  
927 River Delta (D), (E) and (F). (A) and (D) water depth. (B) and (E) detrended profiles showing bedform  
928 amplitudes with distance down delta clinoform; and (C) and (F) wavelet power spectrum. The colour  
929 scale shows spectral power of signal, which highlights the dominant frequency of variation (bedform  
930 wavelength) within the series.

931

932 Figure 6. Box plots of: (A) bedform height; (B) bedform wavelength; and (C) steepness (the ratio of  
933 bedform height to wavelength) from Homathko 2016 survey data, Homathko 2018 survey data and  
934 Southgate 2018 survey data. The tan and yellow colours denote the October 2016 and November 2018  
935 Homathko River Delta surveys, respectively. The light-blue colour denotes the November 2018  
936 Southgate River Delta survey.

937

938 Figure 7. Bathymetric images of the study knickpoint at June 2016 (A) and May 2018 (B). The results  
939 show that the study knickpoint has migrated upstream *ca* 430 m during this period (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020).  
940 The location of the study knickpoint is shown in Fig. 1A. (C) The difference map between May 2018 and  
941 June 2016. The positive values (blue) imply the deposition and negative values (red) imply erosion.

942

943 Figure 8. Longitudinal profiles over the study knickpoint of June 2016 and May 2018. (A) and (D) Water  
944 depth; (B) and (E) bedform amplitude; and (C) and (F) wavelet power spectrum. The red lines denote  
945 the position of the knickpoint head. The blue lines denote the toe of the knickpoint. The black lines  
946 denote the distalmost position of measured crescentic bedforms and the transition into a less variable  
947 morphology.

948

949 Figure 9. (A) Longitudinal profiles of the study knickpoint in the June and October 2016 surveys. Blue  
950 and red dots denote the sediment cores collected in June and October 2016, respectively. STN007  
951 denotes the piston core and the rest of the cores refer to box cores. The potential hydraulic jump may  
952 occur at *ca* 500 m. (B) Sedimentary logs from piston core and box cores located over the study

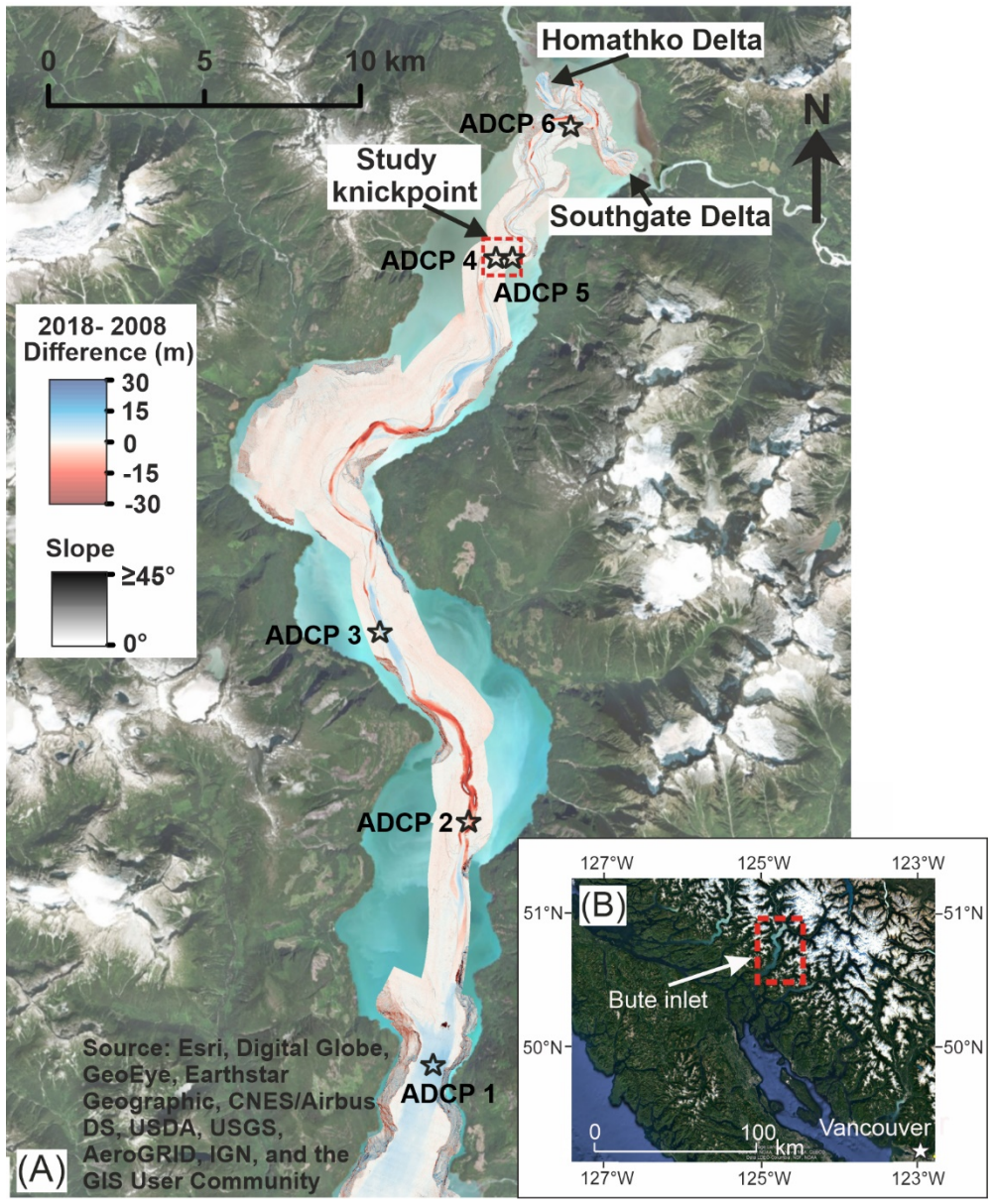
953 knickpoint. Note that the vertical scale of piston core STN007 is different from other box cores. (C) Plan  
954 view of the study knickpoint (as shown in Fig. 1A) and the locations of sediment cores. The locations of  
955 ADCP5 and ADCP4 are shown in the two sets of three black triangles each. The two triangles at both  
956 sides of each set, located on the channel bank and terrace, denote the two-point anchors and the central  
957 triangle denotes the ADCP location.

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959 Figure 10 Conceptual model of different scales of bedforms and their distribution patterns over the  
960 knickpoint and resulting depositional signatures. The horizontal scale changes over the figure. The  
961 conceptual model is strongly vertically exaggerated.

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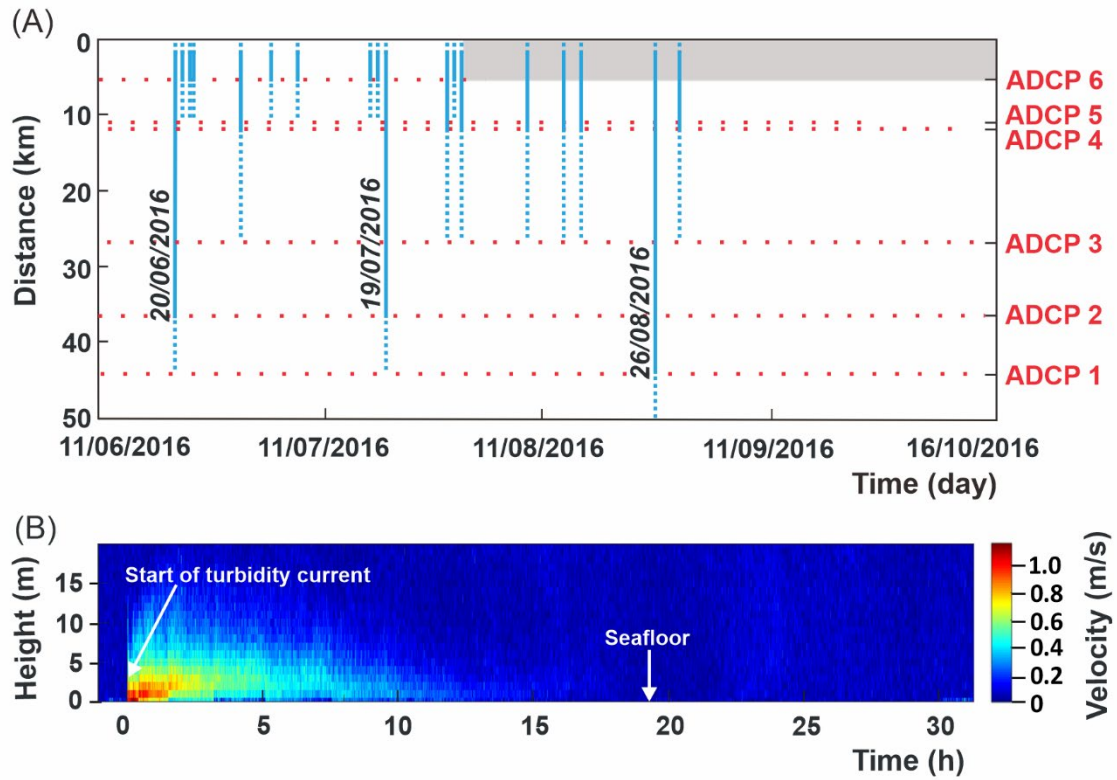
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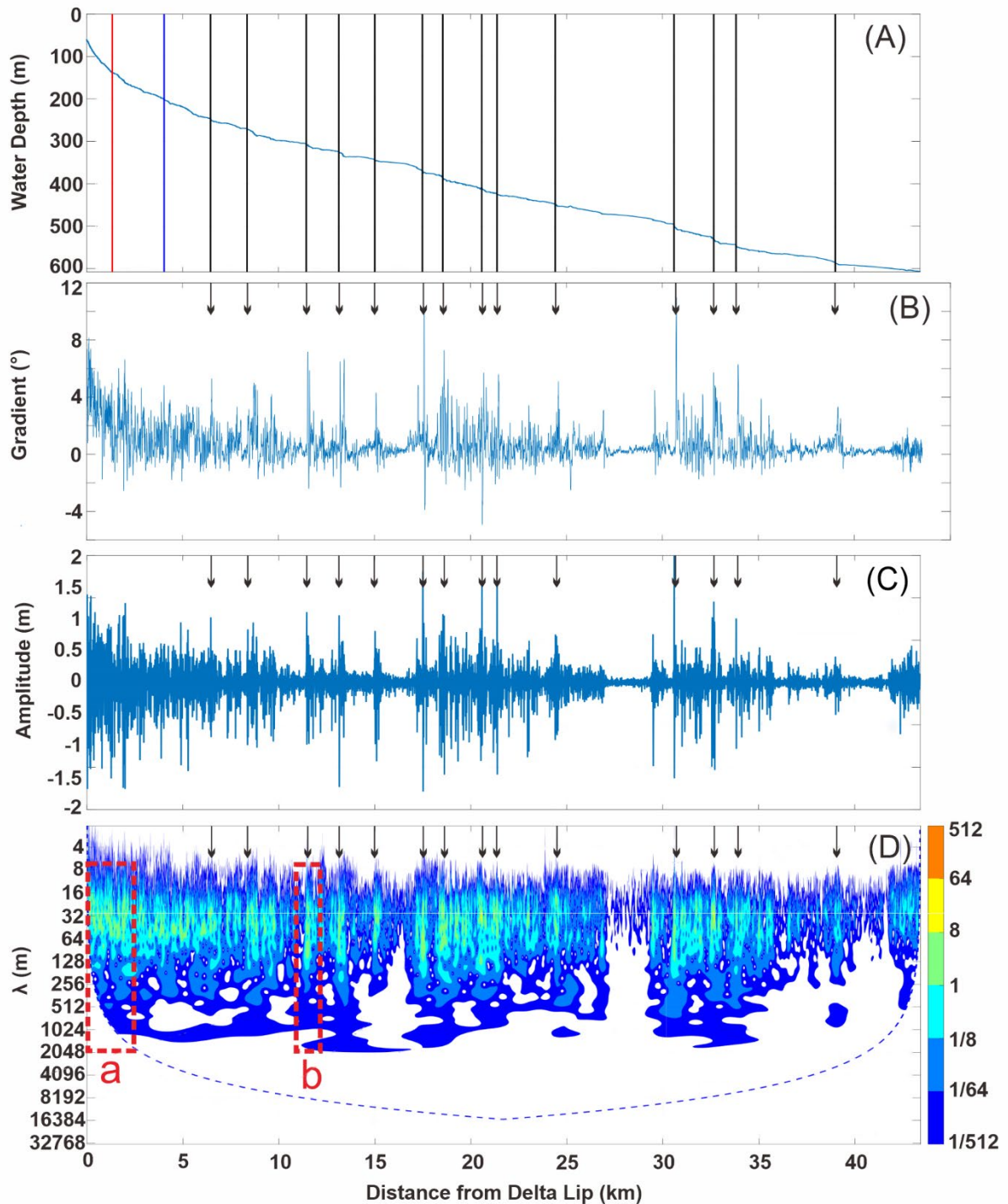




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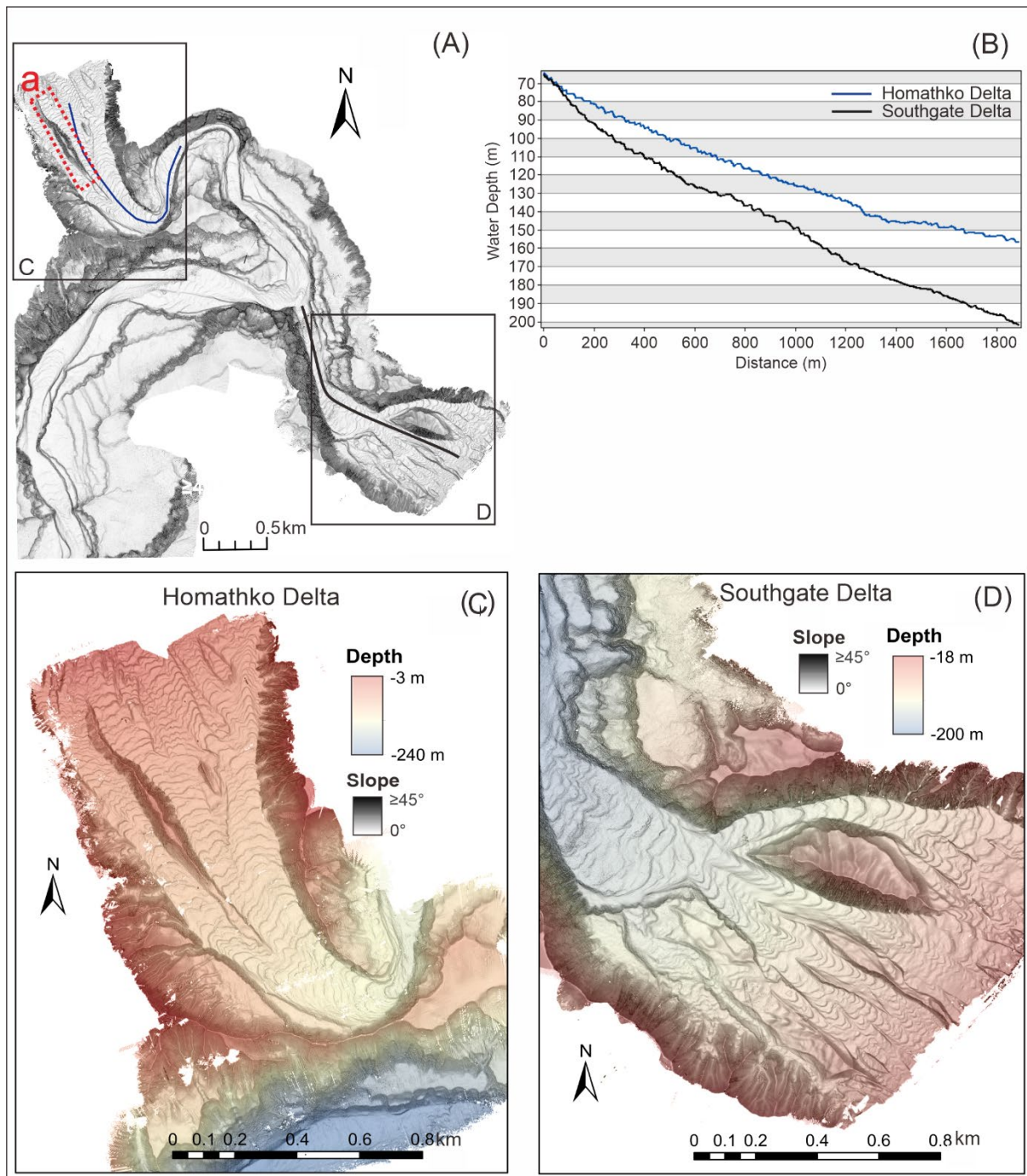
979

980 Figure 3. (A) Longitudinal profile of the dominant submarine channel from the Homathko Delta to the  
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 983 blue line (4 km) denotes the confluence of the Southgate Delta and the main channel. The black lines  
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991 *crescentic bedforms* section (labelled 'b'), respectively.

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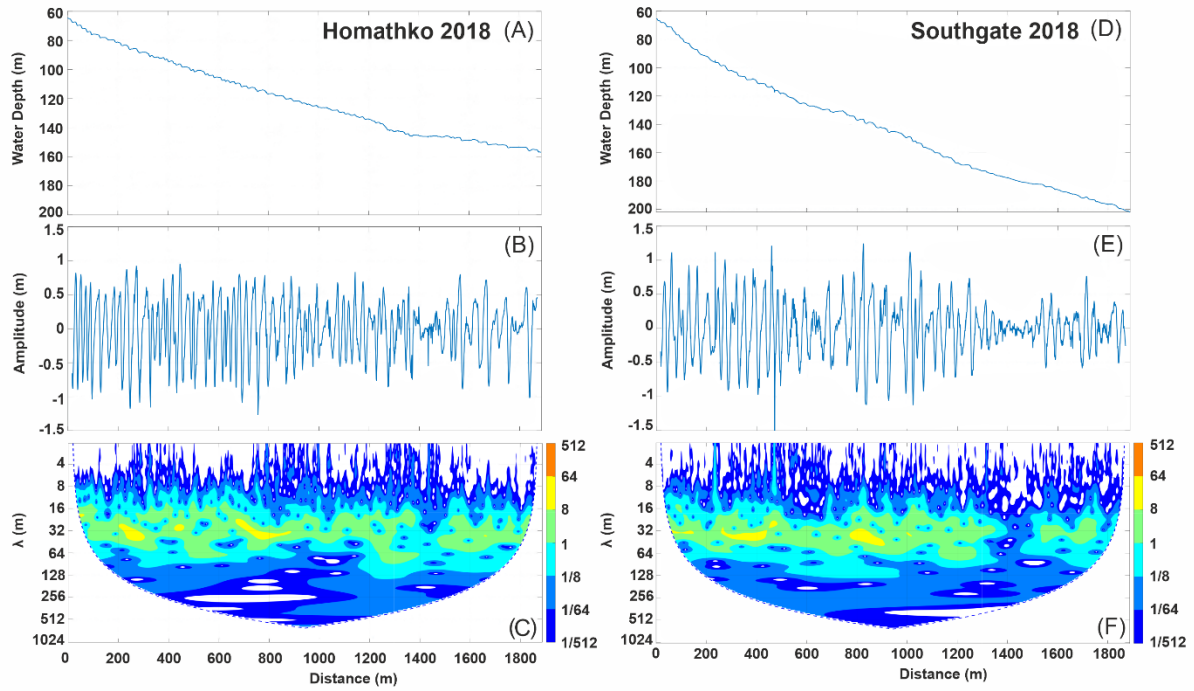
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995 Figure 4. (A) Geomorphology of the upper part of Bute Inlet submarine channel system. The blue and  
 996 black lines represent the profiles of Homathko and Southgate deltas. The red dashed box represents  
 997 the subaqueous ridge (labelled 'a'). (B) Longitudinal profiles of Homathko and Southgate deltas shown  
 998 in Fig. 4A. (C) Detailed bathymetric images of Homathko River Delta and (D) Southgate River Delta.

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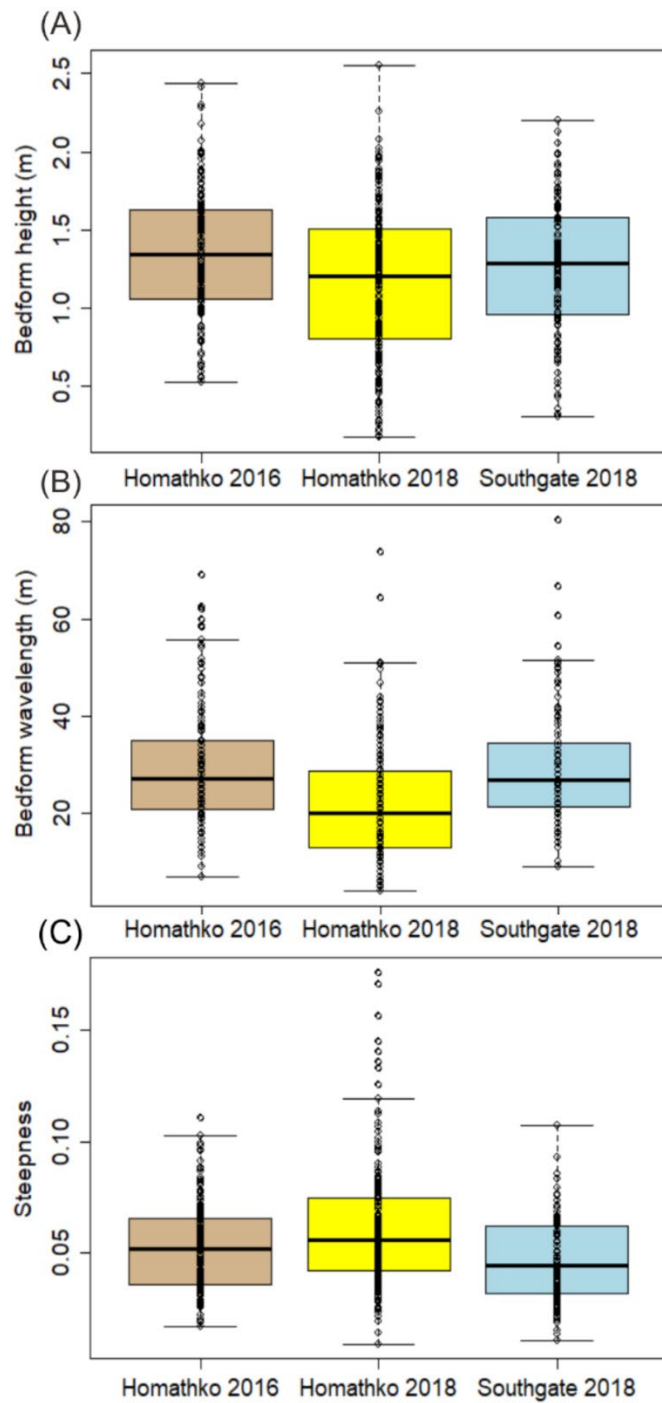
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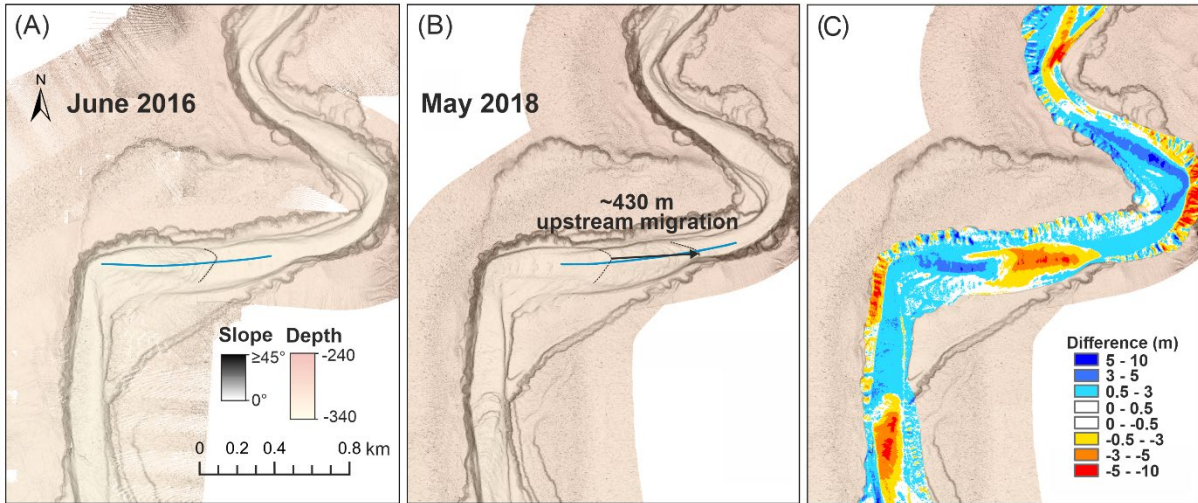
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Figure 5. Analysis of crescentic bedform of the Homathko River Delta (A), (B) and (C) and Southgate River Delta (D), (E) and (F). (A) and (D) water depth. (B) and (E) detrended profiles showing bedform amplitudes with distance down delta clinof orm; and (C) and (F) wavelet power spectrum. The colour scale shows spectral power of signal, which highlights the dominant frequency of variation (bedform wavelength) within the series.



1007

1008 Figure 6. Box plots of: (A) bedform height; (B) bedform wavelength; and (C) steepness (the ratio of  
 1009 bedform height to wavelength) from Homathko 2016 survey data, Homathko 2018 survey data and  
 1010 Southgate 2018 survey data. The tan and yellow colours denote the October 2016 and November 2018  
 1011 Homathko River Delta surveys, respectively. The light-blue colour denotes the November 2018  
 1012 Southgate River Delta survey.



1013

1014 Figure 7. Bathymetric images of the study knickpoint at June 2016 (A) and May 2018 (B). The results  
 1015 show that the study knickpoint has migrated upstream *ca* 430 m during this period (Heijnen *et al.*, 2020).

1016 The location of the study knickpoint is shown in Fig. 1A. (C) The difference map between May 2018 and  
 1017 June 2016. The positive values (blue) imply the deposition and negative values (red) imply erosion.

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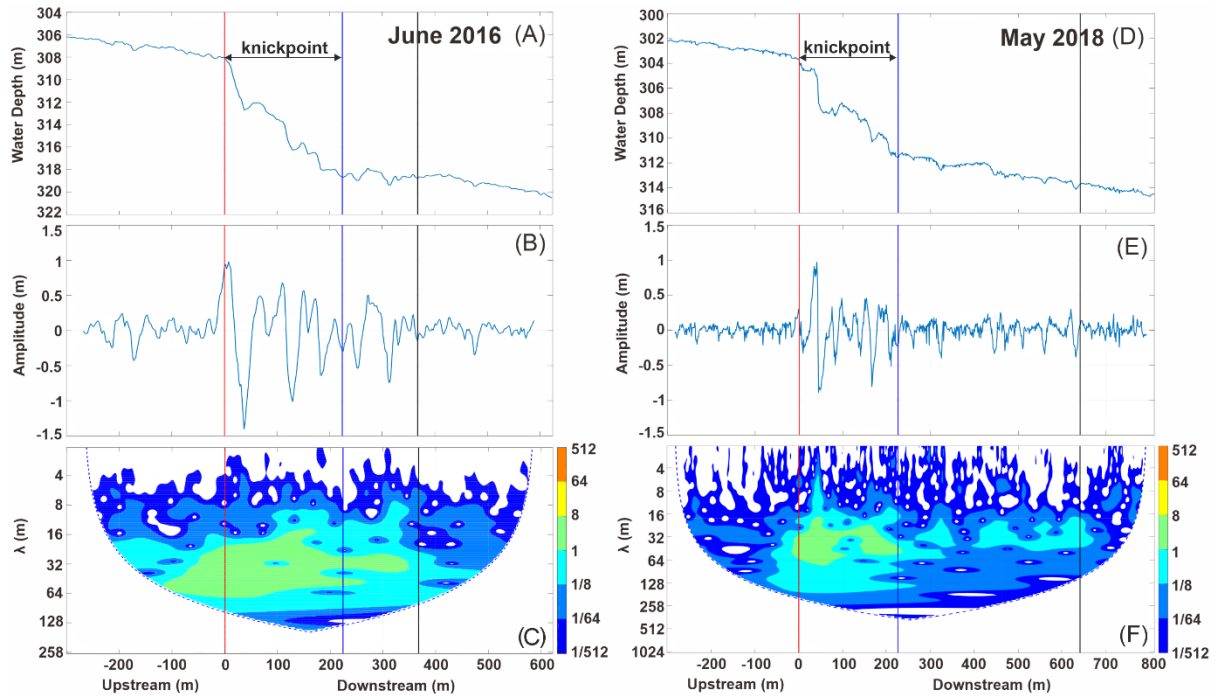
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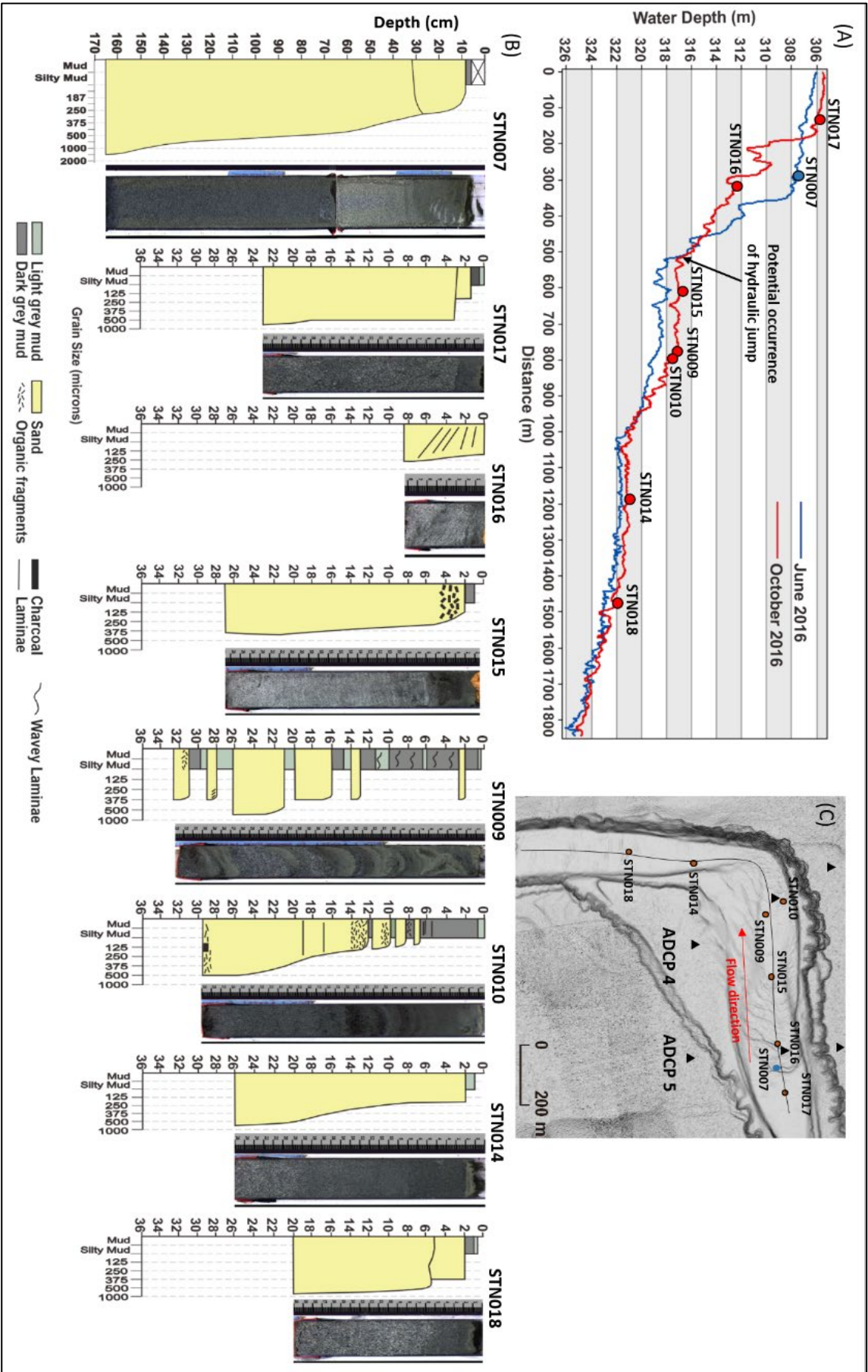
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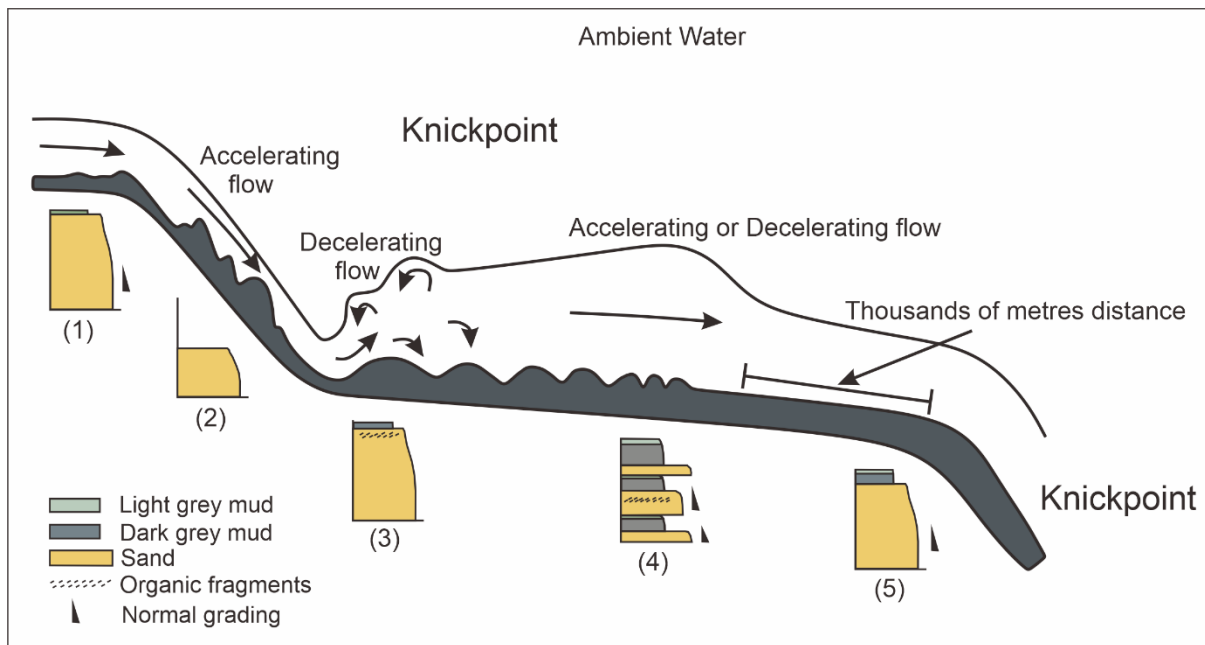
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Figure 8. Longitudinal profiles over the study knickpoint of June 2016 and May 2018. (A) and (D) Water depth; (B) and (E) bedform amplitude; and (C) and (F) wavelet power spectrum. The red lines denote the position of the knickpoint head. The blue lines denote the toe of the knickpoint. The black lines denote the distalmost position of measured crescentic bedforms and the transition into a less variable morphology.





1033 Figure 9. (A) Longitudinal profiles of the study knickpoint in the June and October 2016 surveys. Blue  
 1034 and red dots denote the sediment cores collected in June and October 2016, respectively. STN007  
 1035 denotes the piston core and the rest of the cores refer to box cores. The potential hydraulic jump may  
 1036 occur at *ca* 500 m. (B) Sedimentary logs from piston core and box cores located over the study  
 1037 knickpoint. Note that the vertical scale of piston core STN007 is different from other box cores. (C) Plan  
 1038 view of the study knickpoint (as shown in Fig. 1A) and the locations of sediment cores. The locations of  
 1039 ADCP5 and ADCP4 are shown in the two sets of three black triangles each. The two triangles at both  
 1040 sides of each set, located on the channel bank and terrace, denote the two-point anchors and the central  
 1041 triangle denotes the ADCP location.  
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 1044 Figure 10 Conceptual model of different scales of bedforms and their distribution patterns over the  
 1045 knickpoint and resulting depositional signatures. The horizontal scale changes over the figure. The  
 1046 conceptual model is strongly vertically exaggerated.

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1053 **Supplementary Table**

<i>CCGS Vector Survey</i>		Resolution (m)	Coverage
March 2008		(5, 5)	Entire system
June 2016		(2, 2)	Entire system
October 2016		(1, 1)	Entire system
May 2018		(1, 1)	Entire system
November 2018		(1, 1)	Entire system
<i>RV Strickland Survey</i>			
October 2016		centimetric precision	Two deltas and upper channel
November 2018		centimetric precision	Two deltas and upper channel

1054 Table 1. Overview of the date, resolution and coverage of *CCGS Vector* and *RV Strickland* surveys used  
 1055 in this study.

1056

2016	Frequency (kHz)	Mean range to bed (m)
ADCP6	614.4	15
ADCP5	614.4	14
ADCP4	614.4	14
ADCP3	614.4	27
ADCP2	307.7	48
ADCP1	307.7	52

1057 Table 2. The frequency and mean range to bed of six acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCP).