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A review of undulated sediment features on Mediterranean prodeltas: distinguishing sediment transport structures from sediment deformation

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Abstract :

Most Mediterranean prodeltas show undulated sediment features on the foresets of their Holocene wedges. These features have been described all along the Mediterranean for the last 30 years and interpreted as either soft sediment deformation and incipient landsliding, and more recently, as sediment transport structures. We perform a review and detailed analysis of these undulated sediment features using ultrahigh-resolution seismic and bathymetric data as well as geotechnical information and hydrodynamic time series and hydrographic transects. In this study we show that the characteristics of the sediment undulations (configuration of the reflections down section and between adjacent undulations and overall morphologic characteristics) are incompatible with a genesis by sediment deformation alone and do not show evidence of sediment deformation in most cases. Various processes in the benthic boundary layer can be invoked to explain the variety of features observed in the numerous areas displaying sediment undulations.

33 Keywords

34 Undulated sediments, prodeltas, slope failure, sediment waves, hyperpychal flows,35 internal waves

36 Introduction

37 The last two decades have provided profuse evidence of undulated sediment features on 38 Mediterranean prodeltas (Galignani, 1982; Mougenot et al., 1983; Aksu and Piper, 39 1988; Checa et al., 1988; Trincardi and Normark, 1988; Romagnoli and Gabbianelli, 1990; Agate and Lucido, 1995; Ercilla et al., 1995; Chiocci et al., 1996; Correggiari et 40 41 al., 2001; Lykousis et al., 2001; Marsset et al., 2004; Cattaneo et al., 2004; Fernandez-42 Salas et al., 2007; Urgeles et al., 2007; Lykousis et al., 2008; Agate et al., 2009; 43 Rebesco et al., 2009; Bárcenas et al., 2009)). Early studies on these features proposed 44 interpretations involving sediment deformation and slope failure phenomena (Galignani, 45 1982; Mougenot et al., 1983; Aksu and Piper, 1988; Checa et al., 1988; Romagnoli and 46 Gabbianelli, 1990; Agate and Lucido, 1995; Ercilla et al., 1995; Chiocci et al., 1996; Correggiari et al., 2001; Lykousis et al., 2001; Fig. 1). Such evidences came from 47 48 seismic reflection profiles where sediment undulations appeared to be separated by 49 shear planes.

50 With popularization of very high resolution chirp-sonar profiling and mapping systems 51 based on multibeam technology, seafloor surface geometries compatible with submarine 52 slope deformation alone were questioned (Cattaneo et al., 2004; Urgeles et al., 2007; 53 Fernandez-Salas et al., 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009). An intense debate started on 54 whether these features were in fact created by sediment transport processes on the 55 bottom boundary layer (i.e. we were imaging sediment waves), or by deformation. 56 Mixed theories (i.e. initial sediment deformation and growth by differential sediment 57 accumulation patterns) were also proposed (Cattaneo et al., 2004). The resolution of the 58 geophysical data used to investigate those features appeared not high enough or not 59 comparable to the outcrop scale analogs, where soft sediment deformation structures 60 can be readily identified on paleo-prodeltas (Bhattacharya and Davies, 2001), to be able 61 to assign a genetic mechanism to these structures. The debate was not restricted to the 62 Mediterranean Sea, a few specific case studies in shallow water settings (Bornhold and 63 Prior, 1990; Mosher and Thompson, 2002; Boe et al., 2004; Hill et al., 2008) and deep-64 water settings (Field and Barber, 1993; Gardner et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2002) of various areas of the world ocean also attracted quite vivid debate (e.g. the Humboldt slide off
northern California; Normark et al., 1979; Normark, 1980; Gardner et al., 1999).
Significant efforts have been carried out to understand undulated sediment features in
deep-water settings, which has been shown that a variety of process are also able to
shape undulated sediment features in these environments (Wynn and Stow, 2002),
though deep-water undulations are at least one order of magnitude larger (Nakajima and
Satoh, 2001).

72 In the case of Mediterranean prodeltas, with one of the most heavily populated 73 coastlines of the world, the identification of the sediment undulations as depositional or 74 deformation features has important implications for offshore and coastal management 75 (Trincardi et al., 2004; Urgeles et al., 2007). This triggered a multidisciplinary 76 investigation that included collection of oceanographic and geotechnical data. Efforts 77 were put to model and monitor active sediment transport on the seafloor (Puig et al., 78 2007; Sultan et al., 2008). The aim of this paper is to provide new data and the latest 79 view on the origin of these undulated seafloor features in the prodeltas of the 80 Mediterranean Sea, where this type of structures share many characteristics that are not 81 found in deeper water settings.

82

83 Mediterranean setting

84 The Mediterranean region is seismically active, and is currently undergoing rather rapid 85 deformation (Vannucci et al., 2004; Jiménez-Munt et al., 2006). In a very simplified 86 way, the Mediterranean region records, from west to east, a passage from a simple 87 deformation at the oceanic plate boundaries of the Atlantic, characterized by narrow 88 seismic belts, to a broad belt of seismicity and deformation that characterizes the 89 continental collision setting (McKenzie, 1972; England and Jackson, 1989). Seismicity 90 is widespread in the Mediterranean region, although it is not restricted to narrow 91 seismogenic boundaries, but is generally rather diffuse. The eastern Mediterranean and 92 the Aegean Sea in particular, are the most active seismic regions.

93 The system of extensional Mediterranean basins have been formed during the latest 94 phases of subduction of several segments of the Tethys oceanic lithosphere and the 95 extensional orogenic collapse caused either by delamination of thickened continental 96 lithosphere (Platt and Vissers, 1989; Docherty and Banda, 1995; Vissers et al., 1995; 97 Seber et al., 1996; Platt et al., 1998; Calvert et al., 2000), rollback of oceanic plates

98 (Lonergan and White, 1997), or a combination of both processes (Faccenna et al., 99 2004). Subduction is also responsible for the formation of contractional belts like the Apennines or the Betics. Typically those belts have also undergone extensional 100 101 processes, which in a number of cases are currently active, as is the case in the Betics 102 (Balanyá et al., 1997; Johnson et al., 1997; Martínez-Martínez y Azañón, 1997) and in 103 the Apennines (Collettini, 2004, 2005). The coastal morphology of the Mediterranean 104 Sea is a direct result of the tectonic setting and it is characterized by coastal mountain 105 ranges with high mountain peaks in the catchment basins of the rivers and areas of 106 tectonic uplift.

107 Mediterranean climate and sediment delivery to Mediterranean prodeltas

The Mediterranean climate shows a marked seasonal regime modified locally by complex geographic factors. During the long summer season the subtropical circulation causes warmth and dryness, while in winter the temperate circulation brings milder and wetter air masses from the north-east. The Mediterranean Sea has a role of heat reservoir and source of moisture for surrounding land areas. The Mediterranean climate is also characterized by the presence of regional energetic mesoscale features and cyclogenesis areas (Lionello et al., 2006).

115 Most of the Mediterranean drainage network is made of medium-to-small fluvial 116 systems, with only 9 rivers longer than 450 km (Nile, Ebro, Rhone, Chelif, Po, 117 Moulouya, Ceyhan, Evros and Medjerda; Fig. 1). The Mediterranean river systems 118 show relatively high temperature, small size, high seasonal variability, high population 119 density, and high slope due to the short distance between the mountain ranges and the 120 coast (Liquete et al., in prep.). In general, rivers from the northern Mediterranean region 121 are orographically more abrupt, climatically colder and wetter, and hydrologically more 122 active. The largest runoff (>1000 mm·yr⁻¹) is found in a few Greek and Albanese rivers 123 associated with the greatest precipitation falls over the Albanian and Croatian basins. 124 Italy concentrates the watersheds with more erodable and less vegetated land. The most 125 arid conditions are typically found in North African, Sicilian and Spanish Levantine 126 river basins.

127 The current freshwater surface discharge to the Mediterranean Sea is estimated in 400-128 450km³·yr⁻¹, about one half of what it was at the beginning of the 20th century (UNEP, 129 2003; Ludwig et al., 2009). It is suggested that the overall sediment flux to the 130 Mediterranean Sea is 730×10^6 t·yr⁻¹ (UNEP, 2003). 131 Available measurements from 88 Mediterranean watersheds (Milliman and Syvitski, 132 1992; Probst and Amiotte-Suchet, 1992; UNEP, 2003; RIKZ et al., 2004; EEA, 2006; 133 FAO, 2007; Syvitski and Milliman, 2007; Liquete et al., 2009) allowed estimating their average suspended sediment yield in 352 t·km⁻²·yr⁻¹, which is approximately twice the 134 150-200 t·km⁻²·yr⁻¹ world average (Milliman and Syvitski, 1992). The relatively low 135 136 water discharge of these systems (see for instance FAO, 2007) related to their moderate-137 to-high sediment flux suggests that the Mediterranean watersheds are particularly 138 competent as sediment suppliers to the sea. The lowest sediment discharge values are 139 found in the NW Mediterranean region, notably in France and Spain (UNEP, 2003; 140 EEA, 2006; Liquete et al., 2009), although the fluvial sediment load is known to be 141 highly variable in the area.

142 Mediterranean wave and tidal regime

143 The Mediterranean Sea has a relatively mild climate on the average, but substantial 144 storms are possible, usually in winter. The maximum measured significant wave height 145 reaches 10 m, but model estimates for some non-documented storms suggest much 146 larger values (Cavalieri et al., 2005). The winter mean significant wave height in the 147 Mediterranean ranges from ~ 0.8 to ~ 2 m. The area with the largest winter mean significant wave height is the Gulf of Lions, in the Western Mediterranean Sea 148 149 (Cavalieri et al., 2005). Wave dynamics in the Mediterranean Sea is mostly influenced 150 by the regional orographic conformation and fetch (Lionelli and Sanna, 2005).

151 Tidal currents in the Mediterranean Sea are important only close to major passages (e.g. the Strait of Gibraltar, the Channel of Sicily), in some minor ones (e.g. the Strait of 152 Messina) as well as in all coastal pond outlets where they can reach a few m s^{-1} (Millot 153 154 and Taupier-Letage, 2005b). Over most of the Mediterranean, however, tidal currents can be neglected since they have a velocity of a few mm s^{-1} only (Albérola et al., 1995). 155 156 Also tidal amplitude rarely exceeds 0.5 m except in the Gulf of Gabes off the coast of 157 Tunisia (tide range of nearly two meters) and areas where amplification occurs due to 158 summing of the coastal setup and seiches, as in the northern Adriatic (Tsimplis et al., 159 1995).

160 Oceanography of shallow Mediterranean waters

161 The semi-enclosed Mediterranean Sea is characterized by evaporation exceeding 162 precipitation and river runoff (Le Vourch et al., 1992; Millot and Taupier-Letage, 163 2005a). The tendency for a difference in level between the sea and the Atlantic Ocean 164 leads the surface Atlantic Water to flow into the Mediterranean Sea (Millot and 165 Taupier-Letage, 2005b). The incoming Atlantic Water is continuously modified due to 166 interactions with the atmosphere and mixing with older Atlantic Water remaining at the 167 surface and with the waters underneath (Fig. 1).

168 In winter, cold and dry air masses entrained by relatively brief episodes of strong northerly winds induce marked evaporation and direct cooling of modified Atlantic 169 170 Water, resulting in a dramatic increase in its density which makes it sink. Sinking and deep-water formation occurs in a series of specific zones where deep dense water 171 172 convection takes place, generally located in the northern parts of the basins (Fig. 1). 173 Due to the Coriolis Effect all waters that are forced to circulate at basin scale (at all 174 depths) tend to follow, in the counterclockwise sense, the isobaths corresponding to 175 their density level (Millot and Taupier-Letage, 2005b). Several evidences show that 176 current circulation could be associated with bedforms at several deep-water sites of the 177 Mediterranean, including the Sicily Channel, the Southern Adriatic Margin and the 178 Corsica Basin (Verdicchio and Trincardi, 2009).

179 On the continental shelves of the northern Mediterranean basins (i.e. Gulf of Lions, 180 northern Adriatic and northern Aegean), waters are markedly cooled during wintertime 181 because the reduced depth does not represent a large reservoir of heat. Despite the gain 182 in buoyancy caused by freshwater inputs due to river runoff, dense waters are also 183 generated on the northern Mediterranen shelves. Such dense waters travel along the 184 shelf and cascade to greater depths, mainly through submarine canyons, until reaching 185 their density equilibrium level (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2005). These waters are 186 rapidly lost due to mixing induced by the relatively intense circulation along the slope 187 (Le Vourch et al., 1992).

188 Sea level history in the Mediterranean Sea

The Quaternary is characterized by cyclic climate and related sea-level changes (Shackleton, 1987) that strongly impacted the sedimentary architecture of continental margins. These events have also strongly influenced sediment distribution and architecture of sedimentary bodies in continental shelves of the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Jouet et al., 2006; Berne et al., 2007; Cattaneo et al., 2007; Liquete et al., 2007). The Quaternary climate changes also had a profound effect on adjacent river watersheds,

- which resulted in a sedimentary flux 3 to 3.5 times greater than the present one, duringthe maximum of glaciation (Bossuet et al., 1996).
- 197 During the last glacial-interglacial cycle, the Mediterranean Sea has been connected to 198 the global ocean and therefore has followed the same trends in sea-level changes (Berné 199 et al., 2007). Isotopically-derived sea-level curves for the last 120 kyr (e.g. Shackleton, 200 2000, Waelbroeck et al., 2002) display a general fall until the LGM, punctuated by 201 high-frequency changes. The last sea-level lowstand is generally set around 110 and 120 202 m below present sea-level, but estimates going from 90 to 150 m have also been proposed (Shackleton, 1977, Fairbanks, 1989, Bard et al., 1990, Lambeck and Bard, 203 204 2000 and Clark and Mix, 2002). The position of relative sea-level during the maximum 205 lowstand is at least 115 m in the Mediterranean Sea (Jouet et al., 2006).
- 206 On Mediterranean continental shelves, sediment supply decreased abruptly at 15 kyr 207 BP, because of the rapid landward shift of fluvial outlets during the deglacial sea-level 208 rise (e.g. Jouet et al., 2006). Sea-level rise for the Post Younger Dryas period in the 209 Mediterranean show a constant global sea-level rise with values between 1 and 1.5 210 cm/yr (Lambeck and Bard, 2000; Berné et al., 2007). Archaeological observations along 211 the Mediterranean coast indicate that sea level remained below its present level until 212 about 3 ka BP (Lambeck et al., 2004). High frequency sea-level fluctuations during the 213 last 4 ky were relatively minor, fluctuating by less than 1 m (Lambeck and Bard, 2000; Sivan et al., 2001). Hernández-Molina et al. (1994) also show that during Late 214 215 Pleistocene-Holocene times, climate-induced relative changes in sea level were faster 216 than fault movements or local subsidence, at least on the Iberian Mediterranean coast.

217 Methods

218 The evidences discussed in this manuscript are mainly based on a set of previously 219 published data. Published data were obtained using a variety of tools with differing 220 resolution, penetrations, spatial and temporal coverage. They include shallow water 221 multibeam echosounder (Cattaneo et al., 2004; 2006; Urgeles et al., 2007; Fernández-222 Salas et al., 2007; Rebesco et al., 2009), seismic reflection profiles (Aksu and Piper, 223 1988; Checa et al., 1988; Mougenot et al., 1983; Trincardi and Normark, 1988; Díaz 224 and Ercilla, 1993; Ercilla et al., 1995; Chiocci et al., 1996; Cattaneo et al., 2004; 2006; 225 Urgeles et al., 2007; Fernández-Salas et al., 2007; Lykousis et al., 2008; Rebesco et al., 226 2009; Agtate et al., 2009), high resolution 3D seismic data (Marsset et al., 2004),

227 hydrodynamic time series and hydrographic transects across undulated seafloor features

(Puig et al., 2007), sediment samples for geotechnical tests (Sultan et al., 2004; 2008),
CPT insitu measurements (Sultan et al., 2004; 2008) and river water and sediment
discharge obtained from several regional and global databases (Liquete et al., in prep.).
For the details on these data sets the reader is referred to the original sources were these
data were published.

233 Unpublished data presented in this paper, shedding additional light into the processes at 234 the origin of these undulations, include ultra-high resolution chirp profiles from the 235 Adriatic, Algerian and Llobregat areas. The systems used in these areas are respectively 236 the CHIRP sonar of the R/V Urania, the 2.5-5.5 kHz hull-mounted source of the R/V 237 L'Atalante operated with the 'CHEOPS' acquisition software, and a Simrad TOPAS 238 PS-040 5 kHz parametric echosounder,. We also show bathymetric data from the central 239 Adriatic obtained with an EM300 Simrad multibeam echosounder operated from the 240 vessel Odin Finder (see details in Cattaneo et al., 2004), and Simrad EM3000 data off 241 the eastern Iberian prodeltas. The sediment core data off Bourmedes was acquired from 242 the R/V L'Atalante through a Kullenberg piston core.

243 These high-resolution data are a key to identify the origin of the sediment undulations,

as they provide details that were unadverted in previous lower resolution surveys.

245 Morphology

246 Most sediment undulations in Mediterranean prodeltas develop in water depths ranging 247 between 20 and 100 m, mainly beyond the clinoform rollover point, on the steepest part 248 of Holocene prodeltas. They are found on slopes between 0.2° and 3° (average 2°) and affect areas of different size (3.7 km² in the Ebro prodelta, 25 km² in the Llobregat 249 prodelta, 25.7km² on the Guadalfeo, 100 km² in the Tiber prodelta and about 800 km² 250 251 on the central Adriatic shelf). They commonly present a relatively elongated shape 252 controlled by the two isobaths mentioned above (Fig. 2A). In cross-section the area 253 where the undulations develop is commonly concave upward. Where multibeam data is 254 available the undulation crests are more or less parallel to the bathymetric contours and 255 have slightly sinuous to rectilinear shape in planform view (Cattaneo et al. 2004; 256 Fernandez-Salas et al., 2007; Urgeles et al., 2007; Fig. 2, 3). Exceptions to this occur in 257 the Ebro and Fluvià-Muga prodeltas where the sediment undulations have crests 258 respectively perpendicular and oblique to the bathymetric contours and develop within 259 shallower or deeper depth ranges (8-15 m and 60-100 m respectively; Table 1 and Fig. 260 2C). The undulations often show an intricate pattern of bifurcating and truncated ridges

and can be traced for distances ranging between a few tens of meters to 2 km, but mostcommonly range in between 200 to 400 m.

263 The amplitude and wavelength (see also Cattaneo et al., 2004) of the sediment 264 undulations is variable. From crest to trough the undulations range from as high as 5 m 265 to a few cm (Table 1; Fig. 4). They also range from about 300 m wavelength to about 266 20 m in sediment undulations that develop in relatively shallow waters and those that 267 extend from shallow to deeper waters in the prodelta foresets. However, undulations 268 that develop only in the deeper parts of the prodelta show larger wavelengths that may 269 reach up to 1 km (Fig. 4). Generally no trend is observed in wave amplitude or wave 270 length with water depth and increasing distance from shore. This is specially the case 271 for the deeper prodeltaic undulations. However, where undulations develop over 272 extensive areas and are better developed, such as in the Adriatic (Cattaneo et al., 2004) 273 and in the Llobregat prodelta (Urgeles et al., 2007), the undulations tend to show a 274 decrease both in wavelength and amplitude with water depth, especially for those 275 situated above 40 mwd. The shallower undulations show relatively short upslope limbs 276 and long downslope limbs (near 0 asymmetry values) while in deeper waters the 277 undulations are more symmetric. In the Adriatic Sea these undulations are associated in 278 some cases with small-scale mud reliefs in water depths of 70 to 110 m, with preferred 279 crest orientations that are perpendicular to regional contours (Marsset et al., 2004). The 280 association of these two features is continuous along some kilometers to tens of 281 kilometers in three sectors of the central Adriatic shelf, but it is not ubiquitous (Fig. 5). 282

The undulations that develop on the prodeltas of the Mediterranean Sea generally have 283 L/H ratios in the range of 50-400 (Fig. 4). The wavelength is on the tenths to hundreds 284 of meters scale. This contrasts with deep-water sediment waves that have wavelengths 285 in the km scale (Wynn and Stow, 2002). Similarly sediment undulations on prodelta 286 wedges of the Mediterranean Sea are only a few meters high, while deep-water 287 sediment waves worldwide are tens of meters high (Wynn and Stow, 2002). Within the 288 sediment undulations that develop on the continental shelves of the Mediterranean, 289 those that are attached to the inner shelf have generally shorter wavelengths, than those 290 that occur on the mid-shelf (e.g. Fluvià-Muga; Fig. 2c and Table 1).

291 Seismostratigraphic analysis

On the new and published seismic reflection profiles, the sediment undulations ofMediterranean prodeltas hold the following common characteristics: 1) They are rooted

294 at the Maximum Flooding Surface (MFS) or a secondary flooding surface and develop 295 on the Late-Holocene High-stand Systems Tract (HST) mud wedge (Figs. 3, 6 and 7); 296 2) the shallowest parts of these undulated prodeltas appear largely void of reflectors or 297 these appear with a very low amplitude and more chaotic character (see Trincardi and 298 Normark, 1988; Correggiari et al., 2001; Cattaneo et al., 2004; Urgeles et al., 2007; 299 Lykousis et al., 2009). This facies is distinctive of shallow gas enriched sediment layers, 300 which mask the underlying reflectors (Sultan et al., 2008); 3) in most cases, sediment 301 undulations develop downslope from the gas front, and only at a few locations the 302 uppermost undulations are on top of the gassy zone (e.g. the Ebro prodelta); 4) the 303 sediment undulations are mostly characterized by a uniform wavy stratified pattern of 304 strong to faint prograding seismic reflectors on the prodelta front, in which both 305 wavelength and amplitude of the undulations generally decrease with increasing 306 stratigraphic depth (Figs. 6, 7 and 8).. Where this seismic character is present (most 307 prodelta settings except the prodeltas of Andalusia) the sediments are probably quite 308 homogeneous and fine grained (see Table 1). Borehole samples confirm that the 309 sediment composition of the undulations is quite homogeneous (Cattaneo et al., 2003). 310 Where piston cores are available, the dominant lithology is muddy, as in the case of the 311 the Algerian shelf (Fig. 8) and central Adriatic (Cattaneo et al., 2004; Sultan et al., 312 2008, Fig. 9). The prodeltaic Holocene mud wedges that are affected by the undulations 313 have thicknesses that do not exceed 50 ms TWTT and extend offshore for a few 314 kilometers (generally <10 km).

315 The analysis of high resolution seismic reflection profiles shows that undulations at the 316 seafloor may correspond to more than one undulation below seafloor and the opposite 317 way-round: various undulations on the seafloor may correspond to one single 318 undulation below seafloor (Figs. 6-8). Also areas that do not presently show undulations 319 at the seafloor, may show evidences of seafloor undulations down section, with the 320 undulations being truncated at the seafloor (Fig. 6 and 8). This pattern occurs in the 321 shallowest water depths. At other locations where the seafloor is devoid of undulations 322 but sediment undulations are present on the stratigraphic record, the undulations are 323 masked by more recent sedimentation concealing the undulations (Fig. 8). These two 324 examples of undulation suppression indicate that, within late Holocene prodeltas, 325 differential deposition or erosion may smoothen out pre-existing seafloor undulations.

The crest and trough angle of climb of most sediment undulations are not homogeneous down section (Fig. 6 and 8). Variations are also not consistent, i.e. the angle may increase or decrease or change in trend down section, i.e. displaying alternationsbetween convex and concave shapes (Fig. 6).

The largest sediment undulation fields in the Adriatic and Llobregat prodeltas are predominantly muddy (respective average clay, silt and sand contents of 65%, 35% and 5% in the Adriatic and 15%, 46% and 39% in the Llobregat). In relatively energetic environments like the "Ramblas" in southern Andalusia, (Bárcenas et al., 2009) the sediment undulations may be formed by coarser material, being sand the predominant grain size fraction (Table 1).

336 Geotechnical investigations

337 Samples for deep geotechnical investigation have only been obtained in the Adriatic Sea 338 where a major European effort (project PROMESS-1) aimed to understand the genesis 339 of these undulations through drilling (Sultan et al., 2008). Shallow geotechnical data 340 exists also for other areas such as the Tiber pordelta (Tommasi et al., 1998). The drilling 341 in the Adriatic Sea was targeted to penetrate through one of the potential shear planes in 342 between two sets of undulation packages and through the MFS. This area is particularly 343 active in terms of earthquakes and there was a concern that seismic ground motions 344 where at the origin of the observed seafloor undulations. Undrained shear strength data 345 measured with a hand operated torvane shortly after the cores were acquired, an 346 automated laboratory shear vane and laboratory fall cone showed quite consistent 347 results, indicating that a sharp increase in shear strength of about 12 kPa occurred when 348 moving from the upper to the lower undulation (Fig. 9). Cyclic triaxial tests indicated 349 that silty and sandy sediments such as those occurring near the MFS (Fig. 9) were the 350 most sensitive to earthquake loading. Pre-consolidation pressures measured with an 351 incremental loading oedometer indicated normal to slightly underconsolidated 352 sediments in the upper undulation and a higher degree of underconsolidation within the 353 undulation directly below the plane separating the two undulations (Fig. 9). However, it 354 was found that neither sediment accumulation rates nor earthquake ground motions 355 could explain the excess pore pressure resulting from this consolidation state (Sultan et 356 al., 2004; 2008). It was suggested that overpressure could result from gas generation 357 (Sultan et al., 2008). The facts above were not incompatible with an origin by sediment 358 deformation. To the contrary, such a situation would be favorable to deformation by 359 earthquake shaking. Therefore, an analysis of the slope stability under cyclic ground 360 motions due to earthquakes was undertaken having into account historical earthquake

361 records and in situ ground shaking measurements performed with Ocean Bottom 362 Seismometers (Sultan et al., 2008). Assessment of the sediment liquefaction potential 363 was made using Cyclic1D, a nonlinear finite element program for execution of one-364 dimensional site amplification and liquefaction (Elgamal et al., 2002). The simulation 365 showed that, for characteristic earthquakes in that area, liquefaction of the level above 366 which the undulations detach and deformation of the overlying sediment, could only 367 occur when that level was only 5 mbsf or shallower. It was shown that further burial and 368 increase in confining lithostatic pressure actually prevents sediment liquefaction (Sultan 369 et al., 2008).

370 Sediment transport processes

371 The sedimentary dynamics in the Mediterranean continental shelves has been 372 continuously studied during the last decades in the framework of many research 373 projects. However, few studies have been conducted in prodeltaic areas affected by 374 undulated seafloor features using bottom boundary layer instrumentation (e.g. 375 Cacchione et al., 1990; Jiménez et al., 1999; Puig et al. 2001; Palanques et al., 2002; 376 Fain et al., 2007); and to our knowledge, only one of them (Puig et al., 2007) was 377 addressed to establish relationships between active sediment dynamics and the 378 formation/maintenance of the undulated seafloor features. This study was conducted in 379 the western Adriatic, off Pescara (Fig. 10), in a region characterized to have large 380 portions of the late Holocene prograding mud wedge affected by seafloor undulations.

381 The proposed observational approach consisted in measuring sediment transport process 382 across an undulated clinoform by means of deployments of two boundary-layer tripods 383 in 12 and 20 m water depth and a mooring in 50 m water depth, right in the middle of 384 the undulations. This mooring line was equipped with two RCM-9 current meters 385 placed at 2 meters above the seafloor (masf) and at 20 m water depth, in intermediate 386 waters 30 masf. Thermistors were also mounted on the mooring line at numerous 387 heights above the seabed between the two current meters. Observations took place from 388 late October 02 to early May 03 in two consecutive three-month deployments and 389 hydrographic sections were conducted at the time of instruments deployment, 390 maintenance and retrieval (see Puig et al., 2007 for details).

The across-shelf distributions of temperature, salinity and suspended sediment
concentration (SSC) in the study area during November 2002 are shown in Fig. 10.
Temperature and salinity hydrographic transects clearly reflected the presence of coastal

394 waters influenced by the discharges from the Po and Apennine rivers, which occupied 395 the entire topset region and were characterized by having lower salinities and colder 396 temperatures than the offshore waters. Water temperature distribution in November 397 2002 also reflected the typical late-summer situation for Mediterranean surface waters, 398 showing a wide and well-developed thermocline with the maximum gradient between 399 40 and 80 m water depth, coinciding with the region affected by the undulated seafloor 400 (Fig. 10). SSC distribution indicated the presence of a surface nepheloid layer, being 401 constrained by coastal colder and less saline waters, and the development of a bottom 402 nepheloid layer that detaches where the thermocline intersected with the seabed (Fig. 403 10A).

Sediment transport processes were analyzed at the topset and foreset region of the undulated clinoform and the role of wave-current interaction and internal waves on sediment resuspension were investigated. Several sediment-resuspension events were recorded at the tripod site, mainly related to Bora and Sirocco storms, during which current and wave shear stresses reached similar values. After the passage of a storm, activity of near-inertial internal waves (~17 h) was also recorded by the moored current meters and temperature sensors (Fig. 10B).

411 During periods characterized by strong near-inertial fluctuations, increases of the water 412 SSC clearly coincided with the offshore direction of the cross-shelf velocity component 413 and with strong temperature and salinity fluctuations showing excursions through the 414 water column of tens of meters (Fig. 10B). During the sediment transport events 415 associated to the passage of internal waves, current directions are aligned normal to the 416 crests of the seafloor undulations, exporting suspended sediment in an oscillatory way 417 from the topset to the bottomset region of the clinoform.

418 Discussion: Origin of the sediment undulations: sediment deformation or 419 bedforms formed by bottom boundary layer processes

The characteristics of individual sediment undulations and that of the sediment undulation field sometime provide inconclusive evidence of the process at the origin of such morphology. For instance, most sediment undulation fields like the Llobregat or central Adriatic have a shape elongated along the direction of the prevailing bottom currents (parallel to the bathymetric contours), which suggest a relationship to boundary layer transport processes. However sediment transport processes also control diversion of river plumes and therefore the location of depocenters, which most likely 427 corresponds to the location of excess pore pressure and gas generation and therefore the 428 most likely location for gravity deformation. In the following sections we review the 429 morphological, seismic, geotechnical and boundary layer processes that, when 430 examined together, allow determining the process at the origin of these features.

431 Assessing the origin of the undulations by sediment creep

Influence of gravity-induced sediment instabilities is preferentially invoked in many
studies, such as in the Gulf of Castellamare (Agate et al., 2009), the Tiber (Bellotti et
al., 1994; Chiocci et al., 1996), Sarno (Sacchi et al., 2005), Fluvià-Muga prodeltas (Díaz
and Ercilla, 1993; Ercilla et al., 1995) and early studies of the Adriatic prodeltaic wedge
(Correggiari et al., 2001) and the Llobregat prodelta (Checa et al., 1988).

437 In favor of the deformation origin of these structures is that there seems to be a clear 438 spatial relationship between the location of the gas front in the prodeltas and the onset 439 of sediment undulations on most prodelta slopes (Trincardi and Normark, 1988; Urgeles 440 et al., 2008; Cattaneo et al., 2004; Fernández-Salas et al., 2008; Lykousis et al., 2009; 441 Fig. 3, 5 and 6). Gas in shallow water environments is known to affect slope stability in 442 undrained unloading conditions (Vanoudheusden et al., 2004). The lack of a major 443 headwall suggests that in all these areas failure would be at a very incipient stage, if this 444 is the process that actually prevails in these undulated sediment fields.

445 If it is assumed that the sediment undulations are formed by slow gravitational 446 deformation, the lack of compressional features at the toe of the prodelta wedge, as 447 observed in most cases, implies a low angle detachment level. Mud-diapir-like structures have been identified at certain locations of the toe of the Adriatic prodelta 448 449 wedge (Correggiari et al., 2001), and it could be argued that they result from sediment 450 compression at the toe of the mud-wedge. This genetic association with undulations (as 451 expression of compression at the toe of supposed extension domains represented by the 452 undulations) was proposed by Correggiari et al. (2001) at a time where multibeam 453 bathymetry was not available. However, mud reliefs could also result from fluid 454 expulsion and successive differential deposition guided by the dominant countour-455 parallel bottom current. In addition to this, there is the fact that such mud reliefs are not 456 found in several other areas of the Adriatic prodeltaic wedge and nowhere else in the 457 fields of undulations of the Mediterranean Sea there are similar features reported (Fig. 458 5).

459 The lack of hyperbolaes on the synform part of the folds would also imply that there is 460 no rupture of the reflectors and therefore that deformation is ductile rather than brittle. It 461 is also peculiar that no anthitetic shear planes develop in any of the sediment undulation 462 wave fields, while this is a common characteristic of prodeltaic environments were 463 growth faults are present (Bhattacaria and Davis, 2001). Indeed, because within each 464 undulation the dipping of strata is relatively constant as depicted on available seismic 465 reflection data (Ercilla et al., 1995; Chiocci et al., 1996: Correggiari et al., 2001; 466 Cattaneo et al., 2004; Urgeles et al., 2007; Lykousis et al., 2009; Figs. 3, 6, 7 and 8), 467 this implies that there is no synchronous deformation while deposition that could induce 468 growth features (i.e. if the undulations result from sediment deformation there must be 469 one single phase of deformation). In other words, as the deformation is not gradual, 470 creep is not a valid genetic mechanism to explain the sediment undulations.

471 Assessing the origin of the undulations by (partial) slope failure

472 The statements above do not preclude a genesis by sediment deformation, since a 473 genesis due to a punctual event such as an earthquake or major storm is also possible. 474 This event needs to be relatively recent as the undulations affect the whole or the upper 475 Holocene mud wedge in most instances (Figs 3, 6, 7 and 8). Comparing the seismic 476 stratigraphy between adjacent undulations and attempting to trace the reflectors across 477 the supposed shear planes that separate undulations shows that on the upper part of the 478 undulations the displacement is larger than on the lower part (Fig. 6), which is 479 kinematically not possible. Also the fact that the plane separating the different 480 undulations (or angle of climb using sediment bedform terminology) shows no 481 consistent trend with depth, i.e. normally there should be a progressive reduction in 482 angle, appears mechanically incompatible with gravity deformation (Fig. 6). Also the 483 intricate pattern of branching and truncated undulations is common to almost all fields 484 where swath mapping is available (Cattaneo et al., 2003; Urgeles et al., 2007; Fernández 485 Salas et al., 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009; Figs. 2-3), and this pattern is difficult to explain 486 by gravitational downslope movement, while it is relatively common in sediment 487 transport structures (Mazumder, 2003).

488 An additional exercise to rule out the genesis of the undulations by sediment 489 deformation is to assume that the difference in elevation from trough to crest on the 490 landward side of the undulations corresponds to the vertical component of the 491 deformation. That elevation may reach values of ~ 0.5 m. From seismic data it can be 492 seen that the slope angle of the plane that separates the different undulations (supposed 493 shear plane) is up to 20°, while the angle of the supposed detachment level at the base of 494 the undulations is less than 1°. Supposing that failure occurs along these two planes in a 495 circular fashion, than the 0.5 m in vertical displacement must translate ~1.5 m 496 horizontal displacement. Because there are various undulations in each sediment 497 undulation field (Ercilla et al., 1995; Chiocci et al., 1996: Correggiari et al., 2001; 498 Cattaneo et al., 2004; Urgeles et al., 2007; Lykousis et al., 2009; Figs. 3, 6-8), this 499 implies that the total horizontal displacement may amount to more than 10 m. Such a 500 large displacement is unlikely to take place without brittle deformation. Thus, the fact 501 that reflectors are not broken is inconsistent with an origin of the undulations by one 502 single phase of sediment gravitational deformation.

503 Finally, Sultan et al. (2008) showed that, at least in the Adriatic case, formation of the 504 undulations by deformation is only possible at a very early stage in the sedimentation of 505 the Holocene mud wedge and that latter undulation evolution or preservation is not 506 related to sediment deformation. Cattaneo et al. (2004) proposed a hybrid genetic 507 mechanism by which the sediment undulations were initiated by seafloor liquefaction, 508 which generated a roughness facilitating the latter growth of the undulations by processes in the bottom boundary layer. As explained earlier, however, most of the 509 510 undulations root at the MFS (some root at a secondary flooding surface), and such an 511 interpretation would imply that sediment liquefaction occurred shortly after that event 512 took place. Therefore, it is difficult to explain the onset of the many undulation fields in 513 the Mediterranean Sea by generalized liquefaction events at the times when the sealevel 514 attained a relatively high position and spanning passive and active margins. This does 515 not prevent that for some sediment undulation fields some amount of deformation might 516 be involved in the genesis of a seafloor roughness that nucleated the generation of the 517 sediment undulations. Yet, considering the variety of tectonic environments, it is 518 unlikely that the all sediment undulations fields were initiated thanks to sediment 519 deformation induced roughness. Therefore, despite this roughness might be an 520 important factor in the initial development of the sediment undulations, the actual 521 mechanism that generates this roughness, if present at all, does not need to be sediment 522 deformation.

523 Explaining the sediment undulations by processes in the bottom boundary layer

All evidence above suggests that the sediment undulations are better explained by bottom boundary layer processes instead of sediment deformation. Amongst the processes acting on Mediterranean prodeltas there are a few of them that could be at the origin of the sediment undulations. We summarize here the various processes that could be at the origin of the sediment undulations and attempt to assign a genetic mechanism to the variety of features observed in the various prodeltaic sediment wave fields (Table 2).

531 Waves and tides

532 The Mediterranean Sea is a microtidal sea with limited wave period. Only major storms 533 could cause sediment resuspension and transport in water depths below 35 m (see Puig 534 et al., 2001; Palanques et al., 2002), where most sediment undulations on the prodeltas 535 of the Mediterranean Sea begin to occur (Table 1). Sea waves can only account for the 536 sediment undulations that occur on the shallowest areas of the prodeltas, such as in the 537 Ebro prodelta (Fig. 2B; Table 2). The shallow undulated seafloor features in the Ebro 538 prodelta, located south from the river mouth (Cape Tortosa), seem to be related with 539 enhanced alongshore currents during large wind storms, when near bottom currents in 540 nearby locations can reach 63 cm/s (Palangues et al., 2002).

541 The effect of waves could barely reach the deepest limit of most sediment undulations 542 fields in the Meditterranean Sea, which is at ~100 m depth such as those of the Tiber, 543 Fluvià-Muga (Díaz and Ercilla, 1993; Ercilla et al., 1995), Ter (Díaz and Ercilla, 1993; 544 Ercilla et al., 1995), Llobregat (Urgeles et al., 2007), Gualdalfeo (Fernández-Salas et al., 545 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009) and also to those that terminate is shallower waters such as 546 that of the Adriatic (Correggiari et al., 2001; Cattaneo et al., 2004) and many 547 Andalusian prodeltas (Fernández-Salas et al., 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009). For example 548 a storm with a return period of 50 years in the Llobregat prodelta area has a significant 549 height and a significant period of 5.1 m and ~ 10 s respectively (Bolaños et al., 2001), 550 which would be able to produce water motion at depths down to 86 m. For a 10 year 551 return period storm the significant height and periods are respectively 4.3 m and 9.5 s 552 (Bolaños et al., 2001), which would be able to produce water motion at depths down to 553 70 m. The storms significant height and period necessary to produce sediment 554 resuspension and mobilization at these water depths is however much higher. It should 555 be noted also that in many areas the sediment undulations are aligned oblique to the

direction of wave propagation during major storms, while most bedforms are generallyaligned parallel or perpendicular to the predominant currents (Mazumder, 2003).

558 *Hyperpycnal flows*

559 Estimates of solid discharge and sediment concentration in the Mediterranean area can 560 be obtained from rating coefficients (Syvitski et al., 2000). Based on these rating 561 coefficients, historical document sources and paleoflood events determined from 562 slackwater paleoflood deposits, the recorded peak water discharges may induce 563 sediment concentrations high enough to allow the formation of sediment hyperpycnal 564 flows off the Llobregat River (Thorndycraft et al., 2005), off the Po River and a few 565 Apennine rivers (Milliman and Syvitski, 1992; Syvitski and Kettner, 2007) and also off 566 some of the rivers and ramblas of Mediterranean Andalusia (Liquete et al., 2005; Benito 567 et al., 2008). In fact, the Mediterranean rivers of Andalusia are the prototype river that is 568 able to produce hyperpychal plumes: typically drain small mountainous watershed with 569 easily-erodible sediments, and have low to moderate annual discharge (Imran and 570 Syvitski, 2000).

- 571 In some prodelta environments there are a number of features that would point to an 572 origin by hyperpychal flows. For instance, in the Verde and Seco prodeltas the 573 undulations appear to occur on the flank of a prodelta channel which would suggest a 574 relation to hyperpychal flows spilling over that channel. Also the aspect ratio (L/H) 575 appears to decrease away from the axis of influence of the fluvial inputs (Bárcenas et 576 al., 2009). In the Po River prodeltaic wedge the area displaying undulated sediments 577 occurs where flood deposits have recently accumulated (Wheatcroft et al., 2006) 578 suggesting also a relationship to hyperpychal flows.
- 579 In the Andalusian prodeltas a relationship between the aspect ratio (L/H) of the 580 sediment undulations and the discharge characteristics (torrential vs. more fluvial) and 581 slope of the nearby river was also found (Fernández-Salas, 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009), 582 suggesting that the undulations that have the larger aspect ratio could be induced by 583 hyperpycnal flows (Table 2; Fig. 3). Andalusian river courses that were artificially 584 diverted with respect to the original river path showed two sediment undulation fields: 585 one facing the old river mouth and another facing the newer one. On these occasions, it 586 was found that the undulations close to the recent sediment source have higher L/H 587 ratios (Bárcenas et al., 2009).

588 Recent dam construction, paving and stepping of the river course as well as growth of 589 urban areas in many of the Mediterranean watersheds prevents most sediment to reach 590 the prodelta slope nowadays, and this could be at the origin of the difference in 591 sediment undulation characteristics in prodeltas with an old and a recent sediment 592 source. The facts reported here suggest that hyperpychal flows could be at the origin of 593 the sediment undulations, at least for the undulations displaying the lower L/H ratios 594 (Table 2; Fig. 3). In many other instances, due to river regulation and climatic forcing, 595 water and sediment discharge have decreased to a point (Ludwig et al., 2009) that prevents hyperpycnal flows to form, at least often enough so that the shallower 596 597 sediment undulations are able to cope with the competing effect of sea waves (Fig. 6). 598 Therefore maintenance of the undulations by this mechanism on many Mediterranean 599 prodeltas appears not plausible (Puig et al., 2007). This is specially the case for areas 600 where these undulations are relatively widespread laterally, such as in the Adriatic 601 Holocene mud wedge, because river plumes that could give rise to hyperpychal flows 602 tend to deposit at a relatively short distance from the river mouth (Wheatcroft and 603 Borgeld, 2000; Wheatcroft et al., 2006).

604 Hyperpycnal flows commonly/rarely go supercritical (Froude number > 1). The observed undulations in areas where hyperpycnal flows are likely could therefore 605 606 correspond to cyclic steps. Cyclic steps are sediment waves generated by supercritical 607 or near supercritical turbidity currents (Kostic and Parker 2006; 2007), and often occur 608 associated to channel-levee systems, either within the channel or overbank deposits 609 (Fildani et al., 2006). Cyclic steps have been characterized as long-wave antidunes that 610 are locked in sequence by hydraulic jumps. Its upstream and downstream end are 611 characterized by a short zone over which the flow makes a rapid conversion from 612 shallow, swift supercritical flow (Fr > 1) to deep, tranquil sub-critical flow (Fr < 1). 613 This locking by hydraulic jumps allows for orderly updip migration. Different flow 614 regimes result in different wavelength of the steps (Fildani et al., 2006).Cyclic steps can 615 be net-erosional and/or net depositional, covering a large spectrum of flow conditions 616 (Fildani et al., 2006; Heino and Davies, 2009). It must be noted however that much 617 smaller wavelength, at least one order of magnitude (20-300 m vs. 1-6 km), is observed 618 in sediment undulations of Mediterranean prodeltas (Table 1)nwhen compared to the 619 ones occurring in deep-water settings (Nakajima and Satoh, 2001, Fildani et al., 2006). 620 A few prototype examples of cyclic steps have however been been mapped and observed to migrate upslope on extremely active shallow prodelta environments (e.g.
Hughes-Clarke et al., 2009).

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624 Internal waves

625 Evidence of erosion in the shallowest undulations is present at least on the Llobregat 626 prodelta in relatively shallow waters up to, at least, 30 mbsl (Fig. 6), which suggests that 627 storms have an influence on recent reshaping of the sediment undulation field. 628 However, storms with a recurrence period of 5 years still have a significant wave height 629 and period that is able to produce water motion up to 63 mbsl, and therefore it seems 630 necessary to invoke an additional mechanism for maintaining the sediment undulations 631 on the observed depth ranges (30-90 mbsl). Recent work by Puig et al. (2007) in the 632 Adriatic Sea has shown that internal waves can play a role in resuspending and 633 transporting sediment in prodeltaic undulated areas (Fig. 10). Near-inertial internal 634 waves induced by local wind pulses tend to propagate across the water column through 635 isopycnals and concentrate their energy at the shelf regions where the seasonal 636 thermocline intersects with the seabed, which turns out to be the depth range 637 characterized by having an undulated seafloor (Puig et al., 2007). This is shown in the 638 near-bottom time-series of Fig. 10, which show a remarkable energy peak around 17.7 639 h, mainly in the turbidity and across-shelf velocity spectrum, suggesting that 640 fluctuations induced by near-inertial internal wave activity dominate in the record. Also 641 it is clear in Fig. 10 that near-inertial internal wave activity also contributes to the 642 across-shelf sediment transport in the undulated clinoform region, as turbidity increases 643 associated with this mechanism clearly coincided with periods when the currents were 644 directed offshore and water temperature and salinity decreased. Currents induced by 645 near-inertial internal waves were predominantly directed offshore, while the onshore 646 direction was very weak (Fig. 10). It must be pointed out also that the long crests of the 647 Adriatic undulations, which can be followed for many tens of kilometers in the along-648 strike direction, parallel to the bathymetric contours (Correggiari et al., 2001; Cattaneo 649 et al., 2004) can only be generated by a process that is continuous and equally intense 650 over a similar distance, as it could occur with internal-waves.

651 Strong near-inertial current fluctuations induced by internal waves have been also 652 observed in other prodeltaic areas of the Mediterranean Sea such as the Ebro prodelta 653 (Puig et al., 2001) and the Llobregat prodelta (Demestre et al., 2004) and they are ubiquitous in the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Millot and Crépon, 1981; Font et al., 1990; Leder, 2002). In the Central Adriatic, where dedicated experiments were carried out, and also in other prodelta environments (see Table 2) the spatial distribution of seafloor undulations, the decrease of their wavelength and dimensions in the onshore direction and their long, linear crests, suggest that internal waves play a major role in their formation and/or maintenance (see Puig et al., 2007 for a comprehensive discussion).

660 *Bottom currents*

661 In a few cases, the undulations occur in relatively deeper water, are not parallel to the 662 bathymetric contours and have a much larger wavelength (i.e. Fluvià-Muga prodeltas; 663 Table 2; Fig. 2C). On these settings the sediment undulations cannot result neither from 664 hyperpycnal flows nor internal waves and are likely the result from strong bottom 665 currents. In the case of the deeper part of the Fluvià-Muga prodeltas, the origin of such 666 currents appears to be related with the advection of dense shelf waters originated in the 667 Gulf of Lions during storm events, since modeling results reproduce enhanced near 668 bottom currents with high suspended sediment loads over this undulated seafloor region 669 (Ulses et al., 2008, their Fig. 5).

670 Strong shelf currents may also be induced by large wind storms (Bassetti et al., 2006) 671 and/or the general geostrophic circulation (Monaco et al., 1990). For example the 672 "Liguro-Provencal-Catalan Current", one of the main components of the general 673 circulation in the western Mediterranean, is characterized by speeds ranging from 50 cm 674 s^{-1} near the surface (Monaco et al., 1990). According to Millot (1990), the core of the 675 Northern Current follows the continental slope most of the time, but the trajectory can 676 be temporally altered during northwesterly wind, when the superficial waters tend to penetrate onto the continental shelf forming a current front that can reach 30 cm s⁻¹ after 677 678 the wind decay (Millot and Wald, 1980).

679 **Conclusions**

a) Sediment undulations are widely present in the Holocene mud wedge of prodeltas

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in the Mediterranean Sea. Sediment undulations are rooted on a flooding surface,

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develop within the highstand systems tract and occur in most instances beyond the clinoform rollover point.

b) They affect areas of various sizes and, in most instances, have sinuous to rectilinear
crests parallel to the bathymetric contours. Wavelength rarely exceeds 400 m and
amplitude 5 m.

- c) The geometric characteristics of the plane separating adjacent undulations, the
 configuration of the reflections down section and between adjacent undulations, the
 lack of hyperbolae in seismic reflection profiles and the overall morphologic
 characteristics preclude an origin of the sediment undulations by gravitational
 instability, either gradual or rapid.
- d) In the Adriatic shelf, sediment deformation has been invoked to explain the initial
 roughness on which sediment undulations developed as sediment transport
 structures. In many other areas there is no evidence for such a deformation.
 Therefore, it is not clear the role of an initial roughness in allowing later
 development of the sediment undulations. An initial phase of sediment deformation
 is not a pre-requisite for development of sediment undulations on prodeltaic
 wedges.
- 699 e) Different processes on the benthic boundary layer might be at the origin of 700 sediment undulations on Mediterranean prodeltas. The most likely mechanisms for 701 the genesis of the sediment undulations are sediment resuspension by internal 702 waves and hyperpychal flows. Evidence suggests that sediment undulations 703 generated by these two processes probably differ in L/H ratio, with undulations 704 generated by hyperpychal flows showing lower values. Additional mechanisms that 705 may induce formation of sediment undulations in Mediterranea prodelta settings 706 include waves and derived longshore currents in the shallowest undulation fields, or 707 strong bottom currents in the deepest water sediment undulation fields.
- 708

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Table 1: Morphology and characteristics of major sediment undulation fields in prodeltaic areas of the Mediterranean Sea. ||=parallel, ¬=perpendicular, /=oblique, ↓=decrease; mwd= meters water depth. Units of length are meters (except otherwise expressed)

| | | Central | | | | | | | Gulf of Corinth and Kyparissiakos | | | | | |
|---|---------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|---------------|---------------------|---|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|------|--------------|
| | Adra | Adriatic | Albuñol | Algerian shelf | Ebro | Fluvià-Muga | Guadalfeo | Gualchos | Gulf | Llobregat | Seco | Verde | Ter | Tiber |
| Min. water depth | 18 | 30 | 9 | 55 | 7 | 60 | 10 | 13 | 25 | 35 | 3 | 9 | 60 | 45 |
| Max. water depth | 60 | 70 | 71 | 110 | 15 | 100 | 108 | 56 | 50 | 90 | 65 | 65 | 100 | 100 |
| Wavelength min-max (mean) | 21-244 (76) | 53-477 (212) | 23-163 (61) | | 145-320 (222) | ~1000 | 19-252 (80) | 19-140 (53) | 80-150 | 37-235 (105) | 25- 74 (46) | 38-103 (73) | | ~100 |
| Wavelength trend | | \downarrow (> 40 mwd) | | | | | | | | \downarrow | | | | ↑ |
| Amplitude min-max (mean) | 0.04-2.34 (0.45) | 0.17-3.76 (0.92) | 0.02-4.22 (0.53) | | 0.2-2 (1.1) | 0.5-4 | 0.07-5 (0.85) | 0.02-2.21 (0.32) | | 0.03-1.3 (0.55) | 0.06- 2.19 (0.70) | 0.13- 1.28 (1.05) | | 7 (max) |
| Amplitude trend | | ↓ (> 40 mwd) | | | | | | | | \downarrow | | | | \downarrow |
| Sediment type | Gravelly sand | mud | mud | mud | Sand | mud | Silty sand | Silty sand | | Sandy mud | Silty sand | Silty sand | mud | mud |
| Affected thickness | | <35 | | | | 4-25 | | | 10-15 | <30 | | | 5-37 | 30 |
| L/H ratio | ~300 (169) | 100-400 (230) | 296 (115) | | 100-500 (202) | | 129 (84) | ~300 (166) | | 100-400 (191) | 148 (66) | 183 (70) | | |
| Crest length | | | | | 480-1300 | ~100 - 1000 | | | | 300-2000 | | | | |
| Crest pattern | | ~ | | | ~ | | | | | ~ | | | | |
| Crest trend (with respect to bathymetric contours) | l | | I | | ٦ | / | l | I | | I | I | I | l | I |
| Area (km ²) | 6,2 | ~800 | 5,5 | | 3,7 | 20.04 | 25.7 | 3,3 | | 25 | 1,4 | 2 | | 100 |
| Slope | 3.1 | 0.2-1° | 4.5 | | 1° | 0.60 | 2.48 | 3.7 | 0.5-2 | 0.3-3° (2°) | 4 | 5 | 0.75 | 0.7-1.2 |
| Assymetry | ~1.7 | >1 (> 40 mwd) ~1 (< 40 mwd) | 1.6 | | 0.9 | | 1.58 | ~1.2 | >1 | >1 (> XX mwd) ~1 (< XX mwd) | 0.94 | 1.05 | | >1 |
| Sedimentation rates (mm/yr) | | 10 | | | 0.6-3.7 | | | | 3-5 | 0.7-34 | | | | 5.6-28.8 |

- 1089 Table 2: Distinctive characteristics of the sediment undulation fields with respect to
- 1090 assigned genetic mechanism.

| Mechanism at the origin of the sediment | Shape of sediment wave field | Elongation of crests relative to bathymetric | Mean L / mean H | Water depth range | Other features | Examples |
|---|------------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| undulations | | contours | | | | |
| Internal waves | Elongated parallel to | Parallel | 190-230 | 30-90 | | Central Adriatic, |
| | shoreline | | | | | Llobregat, Ter |
| Hyperpycnal flows | Elongated | Parallel | 60-170 | 3-110 | Channels | Guadalfeo, Seco, |
| | perpendicular to | | | | | Verde, Gulachos, |
| | shoreline to circular | | | | | Albuñol, Adra, Po |
| Bottom currents | Elongated parallel to | Oblique to | ~450 | 60-100 | | Fluvià-Muga |
| | shoreline | perpendicular | | | | |
| Longshore currents | Circular to parallel | Subparallel to | ~200 | 3-15 | | Ebro |
| | to shoreline | perpendicular | | | | |



1094 Fig. 1: Distribution of undulated sediment features on prodeltas of the Mediterranean Sea (yellow stars) in the frame of surface oceanographic circulation patterns (Millot and Taupier-Letage, 2005b) and major river basins (Liquete et al., 1095 in prep.). Major Mediterranean rivers include the Ebro (1), Rhone (2), Po (3), Evros (4), Ceyhan (5), Nile (6), Medjerda (7), Chelif (8) and Moulouya (9). A, Verde and Seco, B, Guadalfeo, C, Gualchos, D, Albuñol, E, Adra prodeltas 1096 (Fernández-Salas et al., 2007; Bárcenas et al., 2009); F, Ebro prodelta (Urgeles et al., this work); G, Llobregat prodelta (Checa et al., 1988; Urgeles et al., 2007); H, Ter prodelta (Díaz and Ercilla, 1993; Ercilla et al., 1995); I, Fuvià-Muga 1097 prodelta (Díaz and Ercilla, 1993; Ercilla et al., 1995); J, Tiber prodelta (Trincardi and Normark, 1988; Chiocci et al., 1996); K, Sarno prodelta (Sacchi et al., 2005); L, Bonea prodelta (Budillon et al., 2005); M, Calabrian shelf (Gallignani 1098 et al., 1982); N, northern Sicilian shelf (Agate and Lucido, 1995); O, Gulf of Castellammare (Agate et al., 2009); P, Corigliano basin (Romagnoli and Gabbianelli, 1990; Rebesco et al., 2009); Q, Adriatic shelf (Correggiari et al., 2001; 1099 Cattaneo et al., 2004; Marsset et al., 2004; Berndt et al., 2006; Cattaneo et al., 2007; Puig et al., 2007; Sultan et al., 2008); R, Po prodelta (Correggiari et al., 2001); S, northern Kyparissiakos Gulf (Lykousis et al., 2009); T, Patraikos Gulf 1100 (Lykousis et al., 1991; Lykousis et al., 2009); U, western Gulf of Corinth (Lykousis et al., 2009); V, Gediz prodelta (Aksu and Piper, 1983); W, Algerian littoral prism (Sultan, unpublished).



Fig. 2: Shaded relief multibeam maps displaying different types of undulated sediment
features on prodelta settings. Contours are plotted at 10 m intervals. A) Llobregat
prodelta, B) Ebro prodelta; C) Fuvià-Muga and D) Ter prodelta. Maps are displayed in
UTM coordinates for zone 31 (labels in the vertical and horizontal axis display km).
Red line in C) shows approximate location of Fig. 3B in Ercilla et al., (1995).





Fig. 3: Shaded relief multibeam map on the central Adriatic shelf showing seafloor undulations with linear crests aligned in a NW-SE direction, parallel to the coastline, between ca. 32 and 71 m of water depth, and a transitional zone to seafloor mud reliefs. Map is displayed in UTM coordinates for zone 33 (labels in the vertical and horizontal axis display km).. See details in Cattaneo et al., 2004, Fig. 7). The red dot marks the location of geotechnical borehole PRAD2-4 (see Sultan et al., 2008 for detail). Red line shows location of chirp profile below. See Figs. 1 and 5 for location



1118 Fig. 4: Main morphological features of undulations on Mediterranean prodeltas1119



Fig. 5: Areal distribution of the sediment undulations and seafloor mud reliefs on the central Adtiatic shelf. Note that the association between these two features occurs only in part of the area with undulations. Modified from Correggiari et al. (2001). Yellow star shows location of borehole PRAD2-4. Yellow triangles show CTD stations. Complex yellow star with red outline shows location of instrumented mooring.





Fig. 6: Seismic section showing overall aspect of sediment undulations and internal structure on the Llobregat prodelta foresets. For location see Fig. 8 (and also Fig. 1). Inset shows line drawing with the main elements of the sediment undulations that allow identification as sediment transport structures rather than sediment deformation.





1134 Fig. 7: CHIRP-sonar prodile on the central Algerian shelf showing sediment 1135 undulations with a decreasing amplitude and wavelength with increasing depth. The 1136 sediment core PSM-KS34, at 95 m w.d. recovered a relatively homogeneous succession 1137 of silty clay. Mixed planktic foraminifera extracted by wet sieving at 6.45 m below the 1138 seafloor gave a non calibrated age of 2535+/-35 kyr BP, confirming that the undulations 1139 belong to a highstand mud wedge deposited in the late Holocene. See also Fig. 1 for 1140 location.



Fig. 8: Details of the undulations on the Llobregat prodelta from 5kHz subbottomprofiler data.



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1147 **Fig. 9:** Summary of chrono-stratigraphic and geotechnical characteristics of undulations

from the Adriatic Sea (wp: plastic limit; wl: liquid limit; wn: natural water content; Cu, PI: consolidation state derived from undrained shear strength and plasticity index using Skempton's (1954) relationship ($C_u/\sigma_p=0.0037PI+0.11$); OCR: OverConsolidation Ratio). See Fig. 5 for location of Geotechnical borehole.





1154 Fig. 10: A. Across-shelf hydrographic sections off Pescara showing the vertical distribution of temperature, salinity and SSC recorded on November 2002. Note the 1155 presence of a surface nepheloid layer, being constrained by coastal colder and less 1156 1157 saline waters, and the development of a bottom nepheloid layer that detaches where the 1158 thermocline intersects with the seabed. The location of the instrumented mooring and 1159 the region affected by an undulated seafloor are also shown. B. Detail of the 1160 instrumented mooring time series during a period characterized by a strong near-inertial 1161 signal after the passage of a Sirocco storm. Temperature from 20 to 50 m water depth 1162 varied with the same periodicity (~17 h) as the fluctuations of the near-bottom turbidity 1163 and velocity components, indicating a strong displacement of the thermocline and the 1164 presence of active sediment transport by near-inertial internal waves. Increases of the 1165 SSC clearly coincide with the offshore direction of the cross-shelf velocity component, 1166 with current orientations normal to the crests of the seafloor undulations. See Fig. 5 for 1167 location of CTD stations and instrumented mooring.