

12-9-2020

## Evolution of Tidal Marsh Distribution under Accelerating Sea Level Rise

Molly Mitchell  
*Virginia Institute of Marine Science*

Julie Herman  
*Virginia Institute of Marine Science*

Carl Hershner  
*Virginia Institute of Marine Science*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.wm.edu/vimsarticles>



Part of the [Marine Biology Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Mitchell, Molly; Herman, Julie; and Hershner, Carl, Evolution of Tidal Marsh Distribution under Accelerating Sea Level Rise (2020). *Wetlands*.  
DOI: 10.1007/s13157-020-01387-1

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Virginia Institute of Marine Science at W&M ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in VIMS Articles by an authorized administrator of W&M ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@wm.edu](mailto:scholarworks@wm.edu).

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

# Evolution of tidal marsh distribution under accelerating sea level rise

**Authors: Molly Mitchell<sup>1</sup>, Julie Herman<sup>2</sup>, and Carl Hershner<sup>3</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> Virginia Institute of Marine Science, William & Mary, Gloucester Point, VA, USA

<sup>2</sup> Virginia Institute of Marine Science, William & Mary, Gloucester Point, VA, USA

<sup>3</sup> Virginia Institute of Marine Science, William & Mary, Gloucester Point, VA, USA

Corresponding author: Molly Mitchell ([molly@vims.edu](mailto:molly@vims.edu)), (804) 684-7931 (phone)

## **Author Contributions:**

All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Modeling and data analysis were performed by M. Mitchell and J. Herman. The first draft of the manuscript was written by M. Mitchell and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors approved the final manuscript.

## 19 **Abstract**

20 Tidal marshes are important ecological systems that are responding to sea level rise-driven  
21 changes in tidal regimes. Human development along the coastline creates barriers to marsh  
22 migration, moderating tidal marsh distributions. This study shows that in the Chesapeake Bay, an  
23 estuarine system with geographic and development variability, overall estuarine tidal marshes are  
24 projected to decline by approximately half over the next century. Tidal freshwater and  
25 oligohaline habitats, which are found in the upper reaches of the estuary and are typically backed  
26 by high elevation shorelines are particularly vulnerable. Due to their geological setting, losses of  
27 large extents of tidal freshwater habitat seem inevitable under sea level rise. However, in the  
28 meso/poly/euhaline zones that (in passive margin estuaries) are typically low relief areas, tidal  
29 marshes are capable of undergoing expansion. These areas should be prime management targets  
30 to maximize future tidal marsh extent. Redirecting new development to areas above 3m in  
31 elevation and actively removing impervious surfaces as they become tidally inundated Results in  
32 the maximum sustainability of natural coastal habitats. Under increasing sea levels and flooding,  
33 the future of tidal marshes will rely heavily on the policy decisions made, and the balance of  
34 human and natural landscapes in the consideration of future development.

35

## 36 **Key Words**

37 Tidal marsh; sea level rise; marsh migration; ecological conflicts

## 38 **1 Introduction**

39 Tidal marsh loss is a significant issue throughout the United States and there is growing concern  
40 about accelerating sea level rise and the impact it will have on marsh persistence. Significant  
41 marsh loss may dramatically change coastal and estuarine functions and potentially impact

42 global nutrient/biogeochemical cycles (Chmura, 2013; Coverdale et al., 2014). Marsh loss  
43 associated with sea level rise, erosion and human activity has been documented throughout the  
44 United States (e.g. Nyman et al., 1994; Hartig et al., 2002; Bromberg & Bertness, 2005; Mitchell  
45 et al., 2017).

46

47 Tidal marsh extents are defined by the interaction of landscape elevations and tidal regime. As  
48 sea levels rise and the maximum extent of tidal inundation reaches higher elevations, tidal  
49 marshes are induced to migrate inland to maintain their place in the tidal frame. In areas with  
50 low coastal elevations, tidal marshes can expand or maintain their size as they migrate across the  
51 landscape, resulting in a potential future gain of tidal marshes (e.g., Kirwan et al., 2016).

52 However, in areas with higher elevations or where migration paths are blocked by shoreline  
53 structures or impervious surfaces, marsh loss has been documented (Mitchell et al., 2017). Tidal  
54 marshes along shorelines with high banks (steep slopes) or stabilized shorelines and those  
55 comprising marsh islands have limited migration potential and are at particular risk of reduction  
56 under sea level rise. Although elevation is the primary control on marsh migration potential, as  
57 marshes migrate inland they also conflict with development, particularly impervious surfaces.

58 This conflict is likely to increase in importance since coastal zones are not only more densely  
59 populated than inland areas but also show a trend of increasing population growth and  
60 urbanization (Neumann et al., 2015). Within the coastal zone, populations tend to be clustered in  
61 the lowest elevation areas (Small & Nicholls, 2003), which are prime areas for marsh migration  
62 and expansion. Development patterns in urbanizing areas are a controlling factor in habitat loss  
63 (Bierwagen et al., 2010). In coastal areas, future development patterns may intersect with marsh  
64 migration corridors, affecting the persistence of tidal marsh ecosystems.



65

66 In addition to human land use patterns affecting the expansion of the landward edges of marshes,  
67 high erosion rates lead to accelerated seaward edge marsh loss. Shoreline erosion rates are  
68 predicted to increase with sea level rise, exacerbating marsh loss (Leatherman et al., 2000). On  
69 high energy, moderate gradient slopes, high erosion rates have the potential to outpace landward  
70 migration, resulting in shrinking marsh extent. High erosion rates are also associated with  
71 proliferation of shoreline stabilization structures designed to protect developed areas but these  
72 can actively block marsh migration pathways. Shoreline hardening currently occurs on 14% of  
73 the U.S. coastline (Gittman et al., 2015) and in the Chesapeake Bay, approximately 18% of all  
74 tidal shorelines are already hardened (Bilkovic & Mitchell, 2017).

75

76 The question of future marsh persistence is incomplete without consideration of changes in the  
77 types of marsh habitat and their position in the landscape. Many marsh functions (e.g., enhanced  
78 shoreline stabilization, Shepard et al., 2011; provision of nekton refuge habitat, Minello et al.,  
79 2012) are reliant on a wide-spread distribution of marshes along shorelines, while some (e.g.,  
80 modifiers of nutrient loads from upland, Valiela & Cole, 2002) require their persistence in the  
81 upper portion of the estuary where they can effectively intercept groundwater and overland flow  
82 (Arheimer et al., 2004). Furthermore, freshwater marshes support unique floral and faunal  
83 communities that are not replicated in higher salinity marshes.

84

85 This study uses shorelines from the Virginia portion of the Chesapeake Bay (henceforth  
86 “CBVA” as opposed to “Chesapeake Bay” which refers to the entire system) to model potential  
87 changes in marsh area, habitat provision and location under accelerating sea level rise. The

88 Chesapeake Bay is the largest estuary in the United States. Its long, crenulated shoreline means  
89 there are marshes of all shapes and sizes along the edges of the Chesapeake Bay and its  
90 tributaries. CBVA coastal areas include both rural and highly urbanized waterfronts -and cover a  
91 wide range of erosive energy and geomorphic settings (CBVA population is slightly more than  
92 5.5 million people, 86% of which live in one of 2 urban coastal regions; 2017 population  
93 statistics, US. Census data). Recent rates from around the Chesapeake Bay are in the range of 4-  
94 6 mm/yr (Ezer & Atkinson, 2015; Boon & Mitchell, 2015) exceeding the rate of recent global  
95 sea level rise (based on satellite altimetry), which is around 3.2 mm/yr (Church & White, 2011;  
96 Ezer, 2013). This extreme rate is attributed to multiple factors including changes in global sea  
97 level in combination with regional and local land subsidence (Boon, 2012; Eggleston & Pope,  
98 2013) and shifts in the Gulf Stream Current location and speed (Ezer, 2013). With these high  
99 rates of relative sea level rise, and with evidence that those rates are accelerating (Boon &  
100 Mitchell, 2015; Boon et al., 2018), the CBVA is a perfect laboratory for investigating the balance  
101 between forces affecting tidal marsh persistence into the future.

102

103 Sea level rise has led to an increase in flooding (Ezer & Atkinson, 2014; Sweet & Park, 2014)  
104 and an interest in flooding adaptations that reduce impacts to human infrastructure. The desire to  
105 protect infrastructure from flooding can constrain the potential space for marsh migration,  
106 affecting future marsh distributions (e.g., Feagin et al., 2010). To explore the balance between  
107 the geographically-controlled capacity of marshes to migrate landward with rising sea levels and  
108 the constraints of adjacent human land use, we project the movement of tidal marsh elevations  
109 across the landscape under an accelerating sea level rise scenario, allowing examination of how  
110 different factors impact future marsh distributions.

111 **2 Data and Methods**

112 The CBVA is generally representative of regional tidal estuaries, containing a diverse array of  
113 tidal marsh types and ecologies, geologic settings, and human settlements. The CBVA estuary  
114 (Figure 1) consists of the mainstem bay (with long fetches and flat, coastal plain shorelines) and  
115 estuarine rivers (with variable topography and fetches). It possesses a wide range of salinities  
116 from approximately 35 ppt near the mouth of the CBVA, to 0 ppt in the upper reaches of the  
117 estuarine rivers and in the small tributary creeks found along their edges. Currently, there are  
118 approximately 761 km<sup>2</sup> of tidal marshes, with a mix of salinity types consisting of about 25%  
119 tidal freshwater marsh, 15% oligohaline marshes, 30% brackish and 30% salt marsh (TMI;  
120 CCRM, 2017). Marshes are spread extensively along the shoreline, with concentrated pockets  
121 of salt marsh areas in some bay-front localities and tidal freshwater marsh areas in the upper  
122 tributaries. The tributary rivers split the landscape into four peninsulas, creating corridors of  
123 development that expand outward from old harbors. Because of this, areas of concentrated  
124 development are predominately in the Hampton Roads region (comprised of Newport News and  
125 Hampton on the lower Peninsula, and Norfolk, Virginia Beach, Chesapeake, and Portsmouth on  
126 the lower Southside) and the Northern Virginia region (comprised of Alexandria, Arlington,  
127 Fairfax, Prince William and Stafford on the upper reaches of the Northern Neck). Future  
128 development is expected to continue in these and nearby areas, sprawling north and west in the  
129 southern part of the CBVA and south in the northern part of the CBVA (U.S. EPA, 2010).

130

131

132

133           2.1 Movement of the tidal frame across the landscape

134   The goal of this project was to look at large patterns of change in marsh extent, location and  
135   habitat type and elucidate potential conflict with development. To do this, we used an approach  
136   similar to the Sea Level Over Proportional Elevation (SLOPE) model that has been used in the  
137   Gulf of Mexico (US) to examine the impact of sea level rise on tidal freshwater forests (Doyle et  
138   al. 2010). Because this approach makes no assumption about accretion rates, plant productivity,  
139   or erosion activity (all of which exhibit high variability around the CBVA and for which  
140   comprehensive datasets do not exist) it is suitable for a broad scale assessment of marsh change.

141  
142   Modeling of the tidal marsh extent was based on a digital elevation model (DEM) derived from  
143   high-resolution, bare earth, lidar data of the CBVA localities (USGS 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2012,  
144   2013, 2015) using ArcGIS software (ESRI, v 10.4.1). DEM grid cell vertical resolution is 0.15  
145   m and horizontal resolution is 0.76 m.

146  
147   In this approach, we modeled changes in tidal marsh elevations under sea level rise out to 2100  
148   (Table 1) and used those tidal marsh elevations to delineate the extent of tidal marsh at 0.15 m  
149   increments of sea level rise. For each elevation step of 0.15 m, the total area of tidal marsh was  
150   calculated for each locality, giving a measure of how tidal marsh distribution is projected to  
151   change throughout Virginia, based solely on elevation. For the model, starting tidal marsh  
152   elevations were 0 m – 0.61 m NAVD88 (Table 1, Time step 1), which was considered to be the  
153   approximate tidal frame for 2010. The model went through 13 steps, to finish with tidal marsh  
154   elevations of 1.83 m – 2.44 m NAVD88, projected to occur in approximately 2100.

155

156 Vegetated tidal marshes in the CBVA region fall within the elevation range between MSL and  
157 HAT. The exact vertical range of the tidal marshes varies somewhat around the estuary, with  
158 variations in tidal amplitude. To select an appropriate range for the model, we examined NOAA  
159 tide gauge datums at three disparate locations along the estuarine gradient (shown in Fig 1).  
160 These tide gauges gave a mean vertical range for tidal marsh elevation of 0.621 m. This was  
161 estimated in the model using 0.61 m, since we were constrained by the 0.15 m (precisely 0.1524  
162 m) vertical resolution of the model to a multiple of that value. To test the assumption that a 0.61  
163 m tidal frame is a reasonable approximation of tidal marsh area, predicted 2010 modeled tidal  
164 marsh areas (step 1, 0 m – 0.61 m NAVD88) were extracted from 25 subwatersheds along the  
165 mainstem York River, VA. These areas were compared to the areas of tidal marshes from a  
166 ground-verified, aerial photograph-derived inventory conducted in 2010 in the same watersheds  
167 (methods described in Mitchell et al., 2017) using a regression (JMP 10).

168

169 Estimates of projected dates for each time range were taken from published data on historic  
170 relative sea level trends in at Sewell's Point, Virginia over the past 50 years (Boon & Mitchell,  
171 2015), extrapolated out to 2100. Years are approximate and estimated from the MSL trend curve.  
172 Sea level rise trends vary minimally across the Virginia portion of the Chesapeake Bay (Ezer &  
173 Atkinson, 2015) and the resulting estimations of years should be broadly applicable across the  
174 modeled region.

175

176 Table 1. Scenarios used for analysis with their elevations and approximate time frames (based on Boon &  
177 Mitchell, 2015).

Scenario step number	Projected vertical tidal marsh elevations (NAVD88)	Approximate year
1	0 m - 0.61m	2010
2	0.15 m – 0.76 m	2020
3	0.30 m – 0.91 m	2030
4	0.46 m – 1.07 m	2040
5	0.61 m – 1.22 m	2050
6	0.76 m – 1.37 m	2058
7	0.91 m – 1.52 m	2062
8	1.07 m – 1.68 m	2070
9	1.22 m – 1.83 m	2078
10	1.37 m – 1.98 m	2082
11	1.52 m – 2.13 m	2090
12	1.68 m – 2.29 m	2095
13	1.83 m – 2.44 m	2100

178

179 2.2 Evaluating the impacts of current and development on tidal wetland migration  
180 potential

181 Developed/impervious areas cannot convert to wetland without either 1) removal of the  
182 impervious surface, or 2) significant burial of the impervious surface by sediment. In addition,  
183 developed areas have economic value, making them likely areas for protection measures that  
184 would prevent wetland migration. To examine the importance of developed areas on future  
185 marsh migration capacity, current impervious surfaces that are located in the tidal marsh  
186 elevation range were identified at each time step. This gives a “best case scenario”, assuming no  
187 future development into coastal areas.

188 In the analysis, Virginia 1m Land Cover dataset (VGIN, 2016) was used to categorize the type of  
189 land in the tidal frame for each step as “Developed (with impervious, turf grass and barren areas)  
190 and “Undeveloped” (all other categories, e.g., wetland, pasture, forest, agricultural). Areas of  
191 marsh within each category were summed by locality and time period.

## 192 2.4 Salinity distribution

193 Salinity distribution in the CBVA varies seasonally and annually; for a generalized salinity  
194 distribution, we used the Chesapeake Bay Program’s salinity assignments (shown on Figure 1).  
195 No attempt was made to project changes in salinity due to the difficulty of balancing sea level  
196 rise-induced upstream salinity migration with the potential increases in river flow due to  
197 changing precipitation under current projections.

## 198 **3 Results**

### 199 3.1 Tidal marsh frames as an indicator of tidal marsh extent

200 A comparison of the 2010 modeled tidal marsh areas (step 1, 0 m – 0.61 m NAVD88) with  
201 surveyed tidal marshes (digitized from aerial photography and then field-verified; Mitchell et al.  
202 2017) showed that the model effectively identified tidal marshes (Figure 2,  $R^2=0.89$ ), with  
203 overestimation in a few watersheds and minor underestimation in other watersheds.  
204 Examination of mapped extents showed that, in general, the model slightly underestimated marsh  
205 extents in extensive marshes. This is not unexpected, since in the York River, HAT is 0.69 m  
206 above MSL. This issue should be minimal in the lower parts of the estuary, where the tidal marsh  
207 frame is closer to the 0.61 m used in the model. The model also slightly overestimated marsh  
208 extents at the tops of some creeks. In these cases, land use frequently indicated that the areas

209 were treed/forested—suggesting that these might be tidal swamp areas (which would not be  
210 captured in the TMI dataset) or forested areas transitioning to tidal marsh.

211

### 212 3.2 Projected changes in marsh area and distribution

213 In the 2010 tidal frame elevation range there were 850 km<sup>2</sup> of potential tidal marsh in the CBVA.  
214 This number declines slowly over time steps to a minimum of 331 km<sup>2</sup> at Time Step 9  
215 (approximately 2078; Figure 3, entire bars). The tidal area then recovers slightly, ending with a  
216 net loss of 379 km<sup>2</sup> of tidal marshes in 2130, or 43% of the starting tidal marsh area. Most of the  
217 tidal marsh loss will be realized relatively early, by 2050-2080. Following that time period, total  
218 tidal marsh extent should remain fairly constant or even expand slightly.

219

220 However, the geographic distribution of the marsh area will change over time (Figure 4). In the  
221 2010 time frame (Step 1), 38% of total tidal marsh area is in Accomack and Northampton  
222 Counties (composing Virginia’s Eastern Shore of the Chesapeake Bay), while only 27% of tidal  
223 marshes are found in the Southside region (Norfolk, Chesapeake, Virginia Beach). By the final  
224 time step, this has shifted so that the Southside region (particularly Chesapeake and Virginia  
225 Beach) has 53% of all tidal marshes, while the Eastern Shore region has only 11% of the  
226 remaining tidal marshes. A similar shift in marsh distribution can be seen between the lower and  
227 upper parts of the York River (shown in Figure 4 insets). This means that upland areas in  
228 localities where marsh expansion is likely are the most critical preservation targets to ensure  
229 marsh migration.

230



231           3.3 Impervious surfaces in migration pathways

232 Under current development conditions, 2-36% of the area in each time step's tidal elevation  
233 range is developed (Figure 3a, hatched portion of bars). The proportion of developed area in the  
234 tidal frame increases over time as the tidal frame migrates upland, limiting the likely area of tidal  
235 marsh. The proportion of impervious surface varies by location as well as through time (Figure  
236 5a and b). In the low elevation urban localities (e.g., Hampton), there are ample lands in the  
237 future tidal elevation range for marsh migration. However, the majority of those lands are  
238 already developed. Only a small fraction of the appropriate elevations are currently natural lands.  
239 In the low elevation rural localities (e.g., Mathews), the percentage of impervious surface  
240 currently in the projected tidal elevation ranges is low. If future coastal development is  
241 discouraged, tidal marsh areas will be essentially consistent over time in these localities.

242

243           3.4 Marsh salinity distributions

244 Concurrent with an overall decline in marsh area, there is an increase in the dominance of salt  
245 marsh communities (mesohaline and poly/euhaline areas) and a reduction in the proportion of  
246 oligohaline and tidal freshwater marshes (Figure 6). In the first time step (i.e., 2010), 36% of  
247 marsh acreage is tidal freshwater/oligohaline, and 64% is salt marsh. By 2050 (step 5), only  
248 23% of the remaining marsh acreage is tidal freshwater/oligohaline, while 76% of marsh acreage  
249 is salt marsh. This translates to a greater than 50% loss in both tidal freshwater and oligohaline  
250 marsh area compared to current marsh extent. Because this study did not include upstream  
251 salinity migration, this shift is entirely driven by the expansion/enhanced persistence of ocean

252 and bay-front marshes (which are dominated by saltmarsh communities) and the loss of tributary  
253 marshes (dominated by tidal freshwater and oligohaline marsh communities).

254

#### 255 **4 Discussion**

256 When planning for the future, it is important to understand the distribution of natural resources,  
257 how they will change and which changes will be affected by management decisions. It is clear  
258 from this analysis that tidal marsh area in the CBVA will decline over time  
259 (assuming no vertical accretion and thus inevitable loss of existing wetlands that occur at  
260 elevations below future intertidal elevations), and that much of this decline is likely to occur  
261 within this century. In addition, there will be shifts in the distribution of tidal marshes leading to  
262 an increase in salt marshes and a decline in the oligohaline and tidal freshwater marshes that will  
263 alter ecological connections and functions. However, management decisions, particularly in the  
264 low elevation areas can maximize future tidal marsh extent. Although this study was conducted  
265 in the Virginia portion of the Chesapeake Bay, its results are applicable to many estuarine  
266 systems, where elevations rise and salinities decline with distance from the coast.

267

268 Our study shows that predicted patterns of future marsh expanse vary spatially with differences  
269 in geomorphology and land use (Mitchell et al., 2017). Although, this study shows an overall  
270 decrease in tidal marsh extent throughout the CBVA, marsh extents in localities on the main  
271 stem of the CBVA will increase. These results are broadly consistent with analyses of historic  
272 marsh migration (Schieder et al., 2018), which found significant marsh expansion on lower the  
273 main stem of the Chesapeake Bay since the 1800s, but marsh contraction in marshes backed by  
274 higher elevations. Lower main stem localities in the Chesapeake Bay have low elevations which

275 provide ample land for marsh expansion, coupled with the currently low human development in  
276 many of these areas. Hampton, Norfolk and Virginia Beach are exceptions with their high  
277 development, and the cost of this development is evident in the low amount of natural lands  
278 available for future marsh migration.

279

280 In addition to changes in the distribution of marsh extent, the pattern of topography in the  
281 Chesapeake Bay region is predicted to drive a shift in the distribution of marsh ecotypes over  
282 time. As bay-front marshes expand, oligohaline and tidal freshwater marshes (particularly those  
283 in headwater systems) contract. This is likely to have significant ecological impacts due to a  
284 decline in important tidal marsh habitats and a reduced potential for groundwater interception  
285 and filtering at the heads of the estuaries as marsh acreage in these areas declines. This study did  
286 not attempt to project sea level rise-induced changes in salinity; however, it is important to note  
287 that upstream migration of salinity is predicted in the Chesapeake Bay (Hong & Shen, 2012) and  
288 that this will further reduce the proportion of tidal freshwater marshes in projected distributions  
289 unless increased precipitation is sufficient to counter the salinity migration.

#### 290 4.1 Interaction of sea level rise, accretion and erosion

291 Factors not explicitly considered in this analysis that can impact marsh persistence include marsh  
292 accretion and erosion rates. These factors could cause the model to over- or underestimate the  
293 rate of future marsh changes in locations where they are of importance (e.g., areas of high  
294 erosion or large potential sediment loading). Both marsh erosion and accretion rates are known  
295 to vary around the Chesapeake Bay; since there are no comprehensive data sets on these rates for  
296 CBVA marshes or future projections of how those rates will change under sea level rise, they

297 could not be quantitatively included in the analysis. However, their critical parameters are  
298 discussed in this section.

299

300 The contribution of marsh accretion to future marsh extent is still an open question. Marsh  
301 accretion is a factor of both in situ organic production rates and allochthonous sediment retention.  
302 It is the hardest variable to project into the future, since climatic shifts can affect plant  
303 productivity (e.g. C3 plant production under increased CO<sub>2</sub>; Drake, 2014) and sediment supply  
304 (e.g. sediment erosion under increased precipitation intensity; Williams et al. 2017). Marsh plant  
305 production rates and local sediment supply are highly variable, but a geographically expansive  
306 survey suggests that there is a theoretical limit to sediment accretion of 5 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting  
307 that current rates of sea level rise on the Atlantic coast are already at a level that will lead to  
308 eventual marsh drowning (Morris et al., 2016). The sea level rise trend in the CBVA over the  
309 past 30 years has exceeded 5 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> (5.86 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> at the mouth of the Bay; Ezer & Atkinson,  
310 2015) and is predicted to accelerate (Boon & Mitchell, 2015). During the same time period,  
311 sediment loads to the Chesapeake Bay (a potential source of allochthonous sediment contribution  
312 to marshes) have declined due to management actions (Gellis et al., 2004). Explicit TSS  
313 reduction goals for the Chesapeake Bay (<http://www.epa.gov/chesapeake-bay-tmdl>) are designed  
314 to continue aggressive sediment management into the future. These reductions in sediment  
315 supply coupled with the predicted acceleration in sea level rise could constrain marsh accretion  
316 potential, impacting future marsh persistence. Even in areas with high sediment supply, rates of  
317 relative sea level rise above 10.2 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> are predicted to be unsustainable for marshes (Morris et  
318 al., 2002). Under current rates of acceleration (0.119 mm yr<sup>-2</sup>; Boon et al., 2018), relative sea  
319 level rise in the CBVA will exceed those values within 60 years. However, previous studies in

320 the Chesapeake Bay have shown a time lag between the time when sea level rise rates exceeded  
321 local accretion rates and the subsequent marsh loss (Kearney et al., 2002), suggesting that tidal  
322 marsh loss in the next couple decades will be controlled more by erosion rates than drowning due  
323 to sea level rise.

324

325 It is important to note, that even in a region with high rates of sea level rise and declining  
326 sediment supply, such as CBVA, there are marshes where progradation of the shoreline has been  
327 observed over the past 30 years (Mitchell et al., 2017). This emphasizes the point that sediment  
328 supply can be localized, and in some areas is sufficient to compensate for changes in the tidal  
329 frame elevation. Although these marshes are unusual compared to the marshes in the entire  
330 study area of Mitchell et al. (2017), it is reasonable to assume that they, and marshes in areas of  
331 similarly high sediment supply, will maintain their extent longer than predicted in this study.  
332 This is also broadly in agreement with Schieder et al. (2018), which found that some marshes in  
333 the upper tributaries contracted and some expanded over the historic period studied.

334

335 Erosion rates are highly variable along CBVA shorelines, even sometimes within close  
336 geographic proximity. Although relatively stable over the past 60 year (Kirwan et al., 2016),  
337 erosion rates are predicted to increase with accelerating sea level rise, potentially resulting in  
338 huge coastal losses (Leatherman et al., 2000; Mariotti & Fagherazzi, 2010). On average,  
339 localities on the main stem of the CBVA experience low to moderate ( $0.3\text{-}1.5\text{ m yr}^{-1}$ ) erosion on  
340 30% of their shorelines (Milligan et al., 2012). Exceptions are heavily stabilized shorelines such  
341 as those in Norfolk. Main stem CBVA marshes are considered one of the more stable CBVA  
342 shoreline environments, eroding at  $0.54\text{ - }0.66\text{ m yr}^{-1}$ , depending on the underlying substrate

343 (Rosen, 1980). Rates on the tributaries are generally lower (e.g., York River marshes are eroding  
344 at  $0.21 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$ ; Byrne & Anderson, 1978) and erosion in the creeks is generally negligible. Given  
345 these rates, the marshes where erosion rates will most affect marsh acreage are located in the  
346 same localities where much of the marsh expansion is projected (e.g., Gloucester, Mathews). The  
347 balance between marsh erosion and marsh migration will vary over time depending on their  
348 relative trends (i.e., linear vs. accelerating rise), and the impact to marsh acreage will be highly  
349 dependent on the slope of the shoreline (Figure 7). However, it is expected that erosion will  
350 result in the loss of some of the projected marsh acreage; therefore, the numbers in the study may  
351 be overestimating future marsh extent, particularly where there are narrow, fringing marshes that  
352 could erode before having the opportunity to migrate significantly.

353

354 Shoreline stabilization placed at the front edge of a marsh will reduce or eliminate erosion, while  
355 allowing marsh migration. However, where shoreline stabilization is placed landward of the  
356 marsh, erosion of the marsh will continue while marsh migration will be blocked until the  
357 elevation of the stabilizing structure is topped. This may lead to a temporary loss of marsh in  
358 heavily stabilized areas, even with low gradient shorelines, or longer-term loss if stabilization  
359 structures are tall. Tidal marshes should re-establish following overtopping of stabilization  
360 structures by the tidal frame, but the ecological structure and ecosystem services associated with  
361 those marshes may be difficult to re-establish, particularly if the new plant community differs  
362 from the original.

363

364 4.2 Management Implications

365 Maximizing future tidal marsh extent will require prioritization of undeveloped land preservation  
366 in low elevation lands contiguous to the shoreline. A clear policy consideration resulting from  
367 this study is that a uniform state-wide management policy will not maximize future tidal marsh  
368 extent unless that policy is specifically tied to elevations (e.g., minimizing development in lands  
369 below 0.91 m (3 ft) NAVD88). In localities with shallow shoreline elevation gradients, passive  
370 measures (such as the preservation of undeveloped lands) can be a powerful management action,  
371 assuming that extensive undeveloped lands exist. However, in localities with steep shoreline  
372 gradients, tidal marsh persistence will require more active measures and may eventually be  
373 futile. Active management in these areas may include the construction of “living shorelines” to  
374 replace or expand dwindling marsh extents or thin-layer deposition to help existing marshes  
375 maintain their elevation in relative to rising sea level (Wigand et al., 2017).

376 In highly developed/urban areas, tidal marshes may be of particular ecological importance since  
377 they are often scarce and therefore the remaining marshes represent critical refuges for faunal  
378 marsh residents. In the Chesapeake Bay, many of the localities with shallow shoreline elevation  
379 gradients are also highly urbanized and expanding. In these localities, tidal marshes have the  
380 capacity to expand and become less fragmented under sea level rise. However, that endpoint  
381 requires aggressive preservation of remaining undeveloped lands in tidal marsh migration  
382 corridors and consideration of the active removal of impervious surfaces as they become  
383 inundated to allow marsh development. This type of activity is contrary to the actions taken by  
384 many urban areas under pressure from flooding and sea level rise. Rising water levels are

385 frequently met with shoreline hardening and coastal barriers, which can preserve or improve  
386 property values (Jin et al., 2015). Less frequently used, managed retreat/realignment and rolling  
387 easements, where development is gradually moved out of the water's path, is the adaptation that  
388 is most in line with the goal of maximizing future tidal marsh extents. However, this option is  
389 challenging to implement and requires collaboration between property owners and all levels of  
390 government to align private and public economic and resiliency goals. Other adaptations that  
391 allow a balance between protection of human infrastructure and tidal marshes include storm  
392 surge barriers (which allow natural tidal action except during storm events) and the use of natural  
393 features (such as beach nourishment or marsh creation) to alleviate storm-associated flooding.

394

## 395 **5 Conclusions**

396 Overall, tidal marsh extent is predicted to decline significantly in the Chesapeake Bay over the  
397 next 50-60 years due to sea level rise. However, the future distribution of tidal marsh complexes  
398 depends on their location within the geological and human landscape. In low elevation areas,  
399 significant marsh expansion is possible. While in urbanized areas, rising sea levels and increased  
400 flooding will create additional pressures to shoreline ecosystems, and may conflict with local  
401 efforts to protect their infrastructure. Where low elevation areas overlap with urban shorelines,  
402 current and future policy decisions will be a critical determinant of future tidal marsh extent.

403

404 The future of tidal marsh complexes is highly dependent on their location within the geological  
405 (elevation) and human (impervious surface) landscape. Not all areas of the Chesapeake Bay have  
406 land elevations suitable for marsh retreat/migration. Low salinity areas, where fresh and



407 oligohaline marshes are found, are particularly likely to sustain substantial marsh losses in the  
408 future. The loss of marsh extent from these locations have the potential to impact the entire  
409 estuarine ecology. These losses will be difficult to mitigate, so it is important to understand the  
410 greater ramifications of this change.

411

## 412 **Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data**

413 No authors have any financial conflicts of interest or affiliations that might lead to conflicts of  
414 interest. This research was supported in part by grants from the National Science Foundation  
415 and the Environmental Protection Agency. The data supporting the conclusions of this paper may  
416 be found in publications and data cited in the reference section. This paper is Contribution No.  
417 3975 of the Virginia Institute of Marine Science, William & Mary.

## 418 **References**

419 Arheimer B, Torstensson G, Wittgren HB (2004) Landscape planning to reduce coastal  
420 eutrophication: agricultural practices and constructed wetlands. *Landscape and Urban Planning*,  
421 67(1-4): 205-215

422

423 Bierwagen BG, Theobald DM, Pyke CR, Choate A, Groth P, Thomas JV, Morefield P (2010)  
424 National housing and impervious surface scenarios for integrated climate impact assessments.  
425 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(49):20887-20892

426

427 Bilkovic DM, Mitchell MM (2017) Designing living shoreline salt marsh ecosystems to promote  
428 coastal resilience. In *Living Shorelines: The Science and Management of Nature-based Coastal*  
429 *Protection*. (Eds: Bilkovic DM, Mitchell M, Toft J, La Peyre, M) Taylor & Francis Group and  
430 CRC Press; CRC Press Marine Science Series

431

432 Boon JD (2012) Evidence of sea-level acceleration at US and Canadian tide stations, Atlantic  
433 Coast, North America. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 28(6):1437-1445

434

435 Boon JD, Mitchell M (2015) Nonlinear change in sea-level observed at North American tide  
436 stations. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 31(6):1295-1305

437

438 Boon JD, Mitchell M, Loftis JD, Malmquist DM (2018) Anthropocene Sea Level Change: A  
439 History of Recent Trends Observed in the U.S. East, Gulf, and West Coast Regions. Special  
440 Report in Applied Marine Science and Ocean Engineering (SRAMSOE) No. 467. Virginia  
441 Institute of Marine Science, College of William and Mary. <https://doi.org/10.21220/V5T17T>

442

443 Bromberg KD, Bertness MD (2005) Reconstructing New England salt marsh losses using  
444 historical maps. *Estuaries and Coasts*, 28(6):823-832

445

446 Byrne RJ, Anderson GL (1978) Shoreline erosion in tidewater Virginia. Special Report in  
447 Applied Marine Science and Ocean Engineering No. 111, Virginia Institute of Marine Science,  
448 Gloucester Pt, VA, 102p.

449

450 CCRM [Center for Coastal Resources Management] Digital Tidal Marsh Inventory Series (2017)  
451 Comprehensive Coastal Inventory Program, Virginia Institute of Marine Science, College of  
452 William and Mary, Gloucester Point, Virginia, 23062

453

454 Chmura GL (2013) What do we need to assess the sustainability of the tidal salt marsh carbon  
455 sink? *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 83:25-31

456

457 Church JA, White NJ (2011) Sea-level rise from the late 19th to the early 21st century. *Surveys  
458 in geophysics*, 32(4-5):585-602

459

460 Coverdale TC, Brisson CP, Young EW, Yin SF, Donnelly JP, Bertness MD (2014) Indirect  
461 human impacts reverse centuries of carbon sequestration and salt marsh accretion. *PLoS One*,  
462 9(3): e93296

463

464 Doyle TW, Krauss KW, Conner WH, From AS (2010). Predicting the retreat and migration of  
465 tidal forests along the northern Gulf of Mexico under sea-level rise. *Forest Ecology and  
466 Management*, 259(4):770-777

467

468 Drake BG (2014) Rising sea level, temperature, and precipitation impact plant and ecosystem  
469 responses to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on a Chesapeake Bay wetland: review of a 28-year study. *Global  
470 change biology*, 20(11):3329-3343

471

472 Eggleston J, Pope J. (2013) Land subsidence and relative sea-level rise in the southern  
473 Chesapeake Bay region: U.S. Geological Survey Circular 1392, 30 p.,  
474 <http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/cir1392>

475

476 Ezer T (2013) Sea level rise, spatially uneven and temporally unsteady: Why the US East Coast,  
477 the global tide gauge record, and the global altimeter data show different trends. *Geophysical*  
478 *Research Letters*, 40(20):5439-5444

479

480 Ezer T, Atkinson, LP (2014) Accelerated flooding along the US East Coast: on the impact of sea-  
481 level rise, tides, storms, the Gulf Stream, and the North Atlantic oscillations. *Earth's Future*,  
482 2(8):362-382

483

484 Ezer T, Atkinson, LP (2015) Sea Level Rise in Virginia – Causes, Effects and Response.  
485 *Virginia Journal of Science* 66(3):355-369

486

487 Feagin, RA, Martinez, M., Mendoza-Gonzalez, G, Costanza, R (2010.) Salt marsh zonal  
488 migration and ecosystem service change in response to global sea level rise: a case study from an  
489 urban region. *Ecology and Society*, 15(4) [online] URL:  
490 <http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol15/iss4/art14/>

491

492 Gellis AC, Banks WS, Langland MJ, Martucci SK (2004) Summary of suspended-sediment data  
493 for streams draining the Chesapeake Bay watershed, water years 1952–2002. US Geological  
494 Survey Scientific Investigations Report, 5056, pp.1-59

495

496 Gittman RK, Fodrie FJ , Popowich AM, Keller DA, Bruno JF, Currin CA., Peterson CH, Piehler,  
497 MF (2015) Engineering away our natural defenses: an analysis of shoreline hardening in the US.  
498 *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 13(6):301-307

499

500 Hartig EK, Gornitz V, Kolker A, Mushacke F, Fallon D (2002) Anthropogenic and climate-  
501 change impacts on salt marshes of Jamaica Bay, New York City. *Wetlands*, 22(1):71-89

502

503 Hong B, Shen J (2012) Responses of estuarine salinity and transport processes to potential future  
504 sea-level rise in the Chesapeake Bay. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*, 104:33-45

505

506 Jin D, Hoagland P, Au DK, Qiu J (2015) Shoreline change, seawalls, and coastal property  
507 values. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 114:185-193

508

509 Leatherman SP, Zhang K, Douglas BC (2000) Sea level rise shown to drive coastal erosion. *Eos*,  
510 *Transactions American Geophysical Union*, 81(6):55-57

511

512 Kearney MS, Rogers AS, Townshend JRG, Rizzo E, Stutzer D, Stevenson JC, Sundborg K  
513 (2002) Landsat imagery shows decline of coastal marshes in Chesapeake and Delaware Bays.  
514 Eos 83:173–178. doi:10.1029/2002EO000112  
515

516 Kirwan ML, Walters DC, Reay WG, Carr JA (2016) Sea level driven marsh expansion in a  
517 coupled model of marsh erosion and migration. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 43(9):4366-4373  
518

519 Mariotti G, Fagherazzi S (2010) A numerical model for the coupled long-term evolution of salt  
520 marshes and tidal flats, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 115: F01004,  
521 doi:10.1029/2009JF001326  
522

523 Minello TJ, Rozas LP, Baker R (2012) Geographic variability in salt marsh flooding patterns  
524 may affect nursery value for fishery species. *Estuaries and Coasts*, 35(2):501-514  
525

526 Milligan DA, Wilcox C, Cox MC, Hardaway CS (2012) Shoreline Evolution Update: 1937/38-  
527 2009 End Point Rate Calculations Counties of Accomack, Gloucester, and York Cities of  
528 Newport News, Norfolk, and Poquoson. Virginia Institute of Marine Science, College of William  
529 and Mary. <https://doi.org/10.21220/V5213G>  
530

531 Mitchell M, Herman J, Bilkovic DM Hershner C (2017) Marsh persistence under sea-level rise is  
532 controlled by multiple, geologically variable stressors, *Ecosystem Health and Sustainability*,  
533 3:10, DOI: 10.1080/20964129.2017.1396009  
534

535 Morris JT, Sundareshwar PV., Nietch CT, Kjerfve B, Cahoon DR (2002) Responses of coastal  
536 wetlands to rising sea level. *Ecology*, 83(10):2869-2877  
537

538 Morris JT, Barber DC, Callaway JC, Chambers R, Hagen SC, Hopkinson CS, Johnson BJ,  
539 Megonigal P, Neubauer SC, Troxler T, Wigand C (2016) Contributions of organic and inorganic  
540 matter to sediment volume and accretion in tidal wetlands at steady state. *Earth's future*,  
541 4(4):110-121  
542

543 Neumann B, Vafeidis AT, Zimmermann J, Nicholls RJ (2015) Future coastal population growth  
544 and exposure to sea-level rise and coastal flooding-a global assessment. *PloS one*, 10(3)  
545 p.e0118571  
546

547 Nyman JA, Carlross M, DeLaune RD, Patrick WH (1994) Erosion rather than plant dieback as the  
548 mechanism of marsh loss in an estuarine marsh. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*,  
549 19(1):69-84

550

551 Rosen, P.S. (1980) Erosion susceptibility of the Virginia Chesapeake Bay shoreline. *Marine*  
552 *Geology*, 34(1-2):45-59

553

554 Shepard CC, Crain, C.M., Beck, M.W. (2011) The Protective Role of Coastal Marshes: A  
555 Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE* 6(11):e27374.  
556 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0027374

557

558 Small C, Nicholls RJ (2003) A Global Analysis of Human Settlement in Coastal Zones. *Journal*  
559 *of Coastal Research*, 19 (3):584-599

560

561 Sweet WV, Park J (2014) From the extreme to the mean: Acceleration and tipping points of  
562 coastal inundation from sea level rise. *Earth's Future*, 2(12):579-600

563

564 U.S. EPA. ICLUS Tools & Datasets (Version 1.3.2). (2010) U.S. Environmental Protection  
565 Agency, Washington, DC, EPA/600/R-09/143F

566

567 USGS (2010) USGS Bare Earth DEM ARRA-VA\_11County\_2010, multiple tiles, U.S.  
568 Geological Survey sciencebase.gov 2014-09-11, access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

569

570 USGS (2011a) USGS Bare Earth DEM VA\_FEMA\_KingWilliamCo\_2011, multiple tiles, U.S.  
571 Geological Survey sciencebase.gov 2014-09-11, access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

572

573 USGS (2011b) Bare Earth DEM VA\_FEMA\_MiddleCounties\_2011, multiple tiles, U.S.  
574 Geological Survey sciencebase.gov 2014-09-11, access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

575

576 USGS (2012) Bare Earth DEM VA-WV-MD\_FEMA\_Region3\_UTM18\_2012, multiple tiles,  
577 U.S. Geological Survey sciencebase.gov 2014-09-16, access through  
578 <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

579

580 USGS (2013) USGS Bare Earth DEM VA Norfolk 2013, multiple tiles, U.S. Geological Survey  
581 sciencebase.gov 2015-05-22, access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

582

583 USGS (2015) USGS Bare Earth DEM VA Eastern-Shore BAA 2015, multiple tiles, U.S.  
584 Geological Survey sciencebase.gov 2017-05-09, access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>

585

586 Valiela I, Cole ML (2002) Comparative evidence that salt marshes and mangroves may protect  
587 seagrass meadows from land-derived nitrogen loads. *Ecosystems*, 5(1):92-102  
588

589 VGIN [Virginia Geographic Information Network]. (2016) Virginia 1m Land Cover dataset.  
590 access through <https://vgin.maps.arcgis.com>  
591

592 Wigand C, Ardito T, Chaffee C, Ferguson W, Paton S, Raposa K, Vandemoer C, Watson E  
593 (2017) A climate change adaptation strategy for management of coastal marsh systems. *Estuaries  
594 & Coasts*, 40(3):682-693  
595

596 Williams MR, Bhatt G, Filoso S, Yactayo G (2017) Stream Restoration Performance & Its  
597 Contribution to the Chesapeake Bay TMDL: Challenges Posed by Climate Change in Urban  
598 Areas. *Estuaries & Coasts*, 40(5):1227-1246  
599  
600

601 **Figures**

602  
603 Figure 1. Virginia portion of the Chesapeake Bay (referred to in the text as “CBVA”). Localities  
604 are labeled. Approximate split between fresh and brackish water is shown.

605  
606 Figure 2. Comparison of predicted marsh area to field-verified marsh area (m<sup>2</sup>) in 25  
607 subwatersheds on the mainstem York River, VA.

608  
609 Figure 3. Predicted changes in area (m<sup>2</sup>) within the tidal marsh elevation frame over time.  
610 Scenario steps are 0.61m in range and move up 0.15m in elevation with each step. The time steps  
611 can be related to sea level rise projections using the information in Table 1. Solid portions of the  
612 bars indicate areas that are pervious (natural lands) in the projected tidal elevations. Hatched  
613 portions of the bars indicate areas that are currently impervious surfaces. These areas would  
614 have to be remediated to allow tidal marshes to establish through migration.

615  
616 Figure 4. Changing distribution of marshes in Chesapeake Bay, VA between current tidal  
617 envelope and predicted tidal envelope for 2100. Insets show two areas with different prognosis  
618 based on elevation.

619  
620 Figure 5. Total projected marsh area over time in two low elevation localities (a) Hampton  
621 (urban) and (b) Mathews (rural). Solid portions of the bars indicate areas that are pervious  
622 (natural lands) in the projected tidal elevations. Hatched portions of the bars indicate areas that  
623 are currently impervious surfaces. These areas would have to be remediated to allow tidal  
624 marshes to establish through migration. Scenario steps are 0.61m in range and move up 0.15m in

625 elevation with each step. The time steps can be related to sea level rise projections using the  
626 information in Table 1.

627

628 Figure 6. Projected changes in marsh area by salinity type over time. Scenario steps are 0.61m in  
629 range and move up 0.15m in elevation with each step. The time steps can be related to sea level  
630 rise projections using the information in Table 1.

631

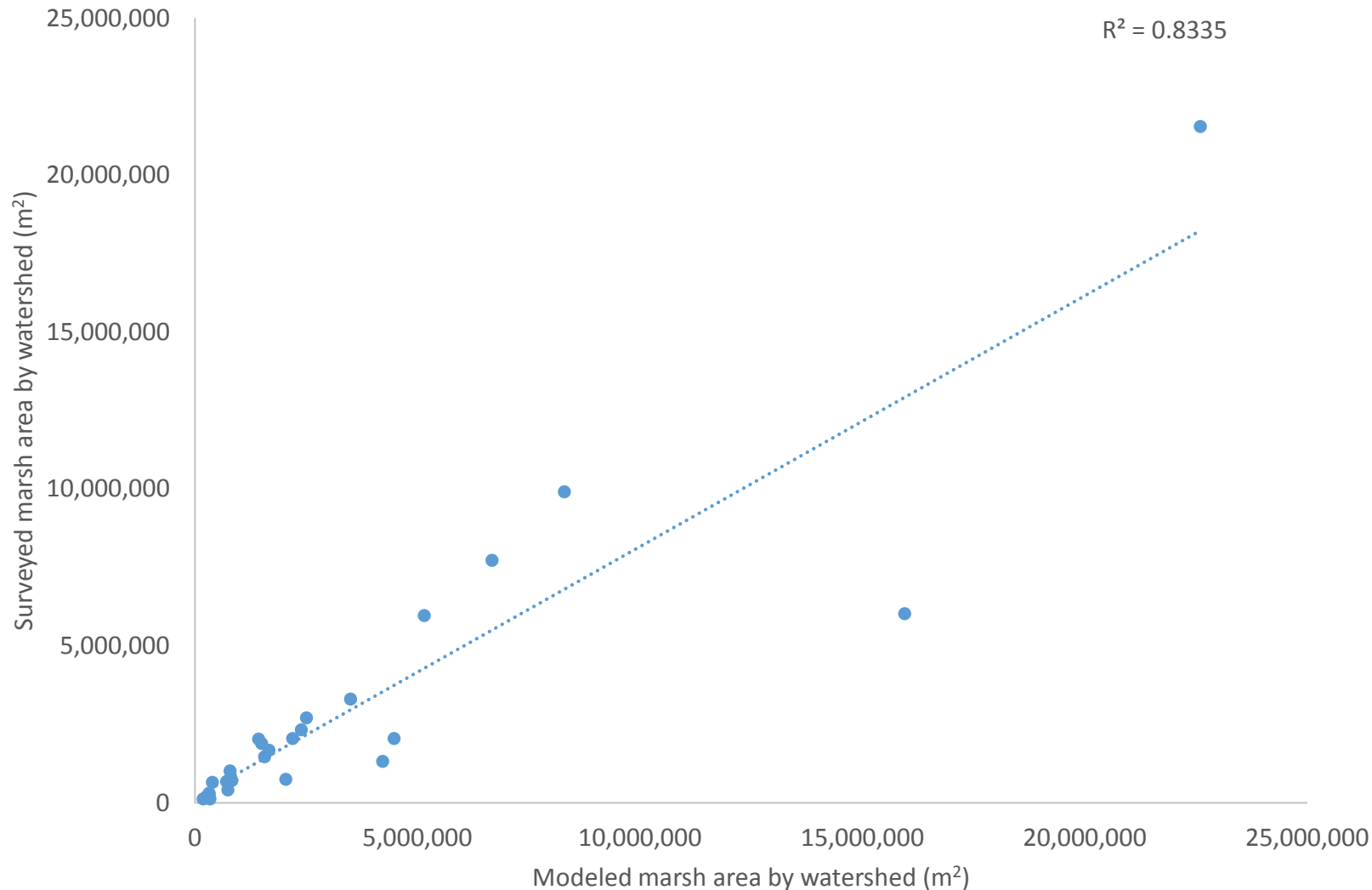
632 Figure 7. A conceptual graph showing the importance of slope in determining the dominant  
633 process determining affecting marsh size over time. The figure considers the balance between  
634 steady erosion and accelerating sea level rise-driven marsh migration. This figure assumes a  
635 steady erosion rate of  $0.6 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$  (Rosen 1980) and a sea level rise rate of  $5.11 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$ ,  
636 accelerating at  $0.0169 \text{ mm yr}^{-2}$  (Boon and Mitchell 2015). On steep slopes, erosion is the  
637 dominant force controlling marsh change; however, on gradual slopes, migration becomes the  
638 dominant force as sea level rise acceleration increases rise rates.

639



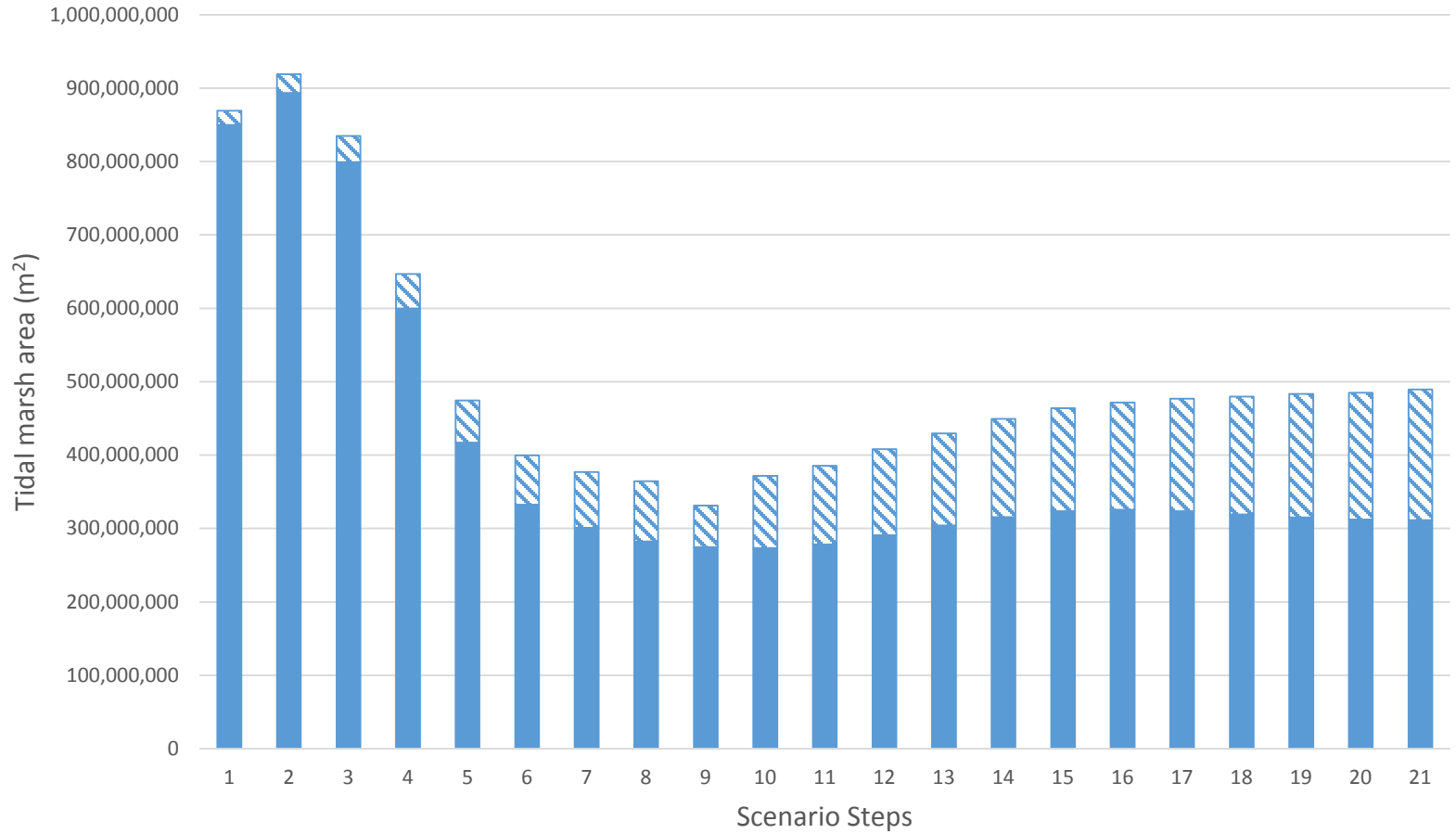


# Comparison of model with surveyed data

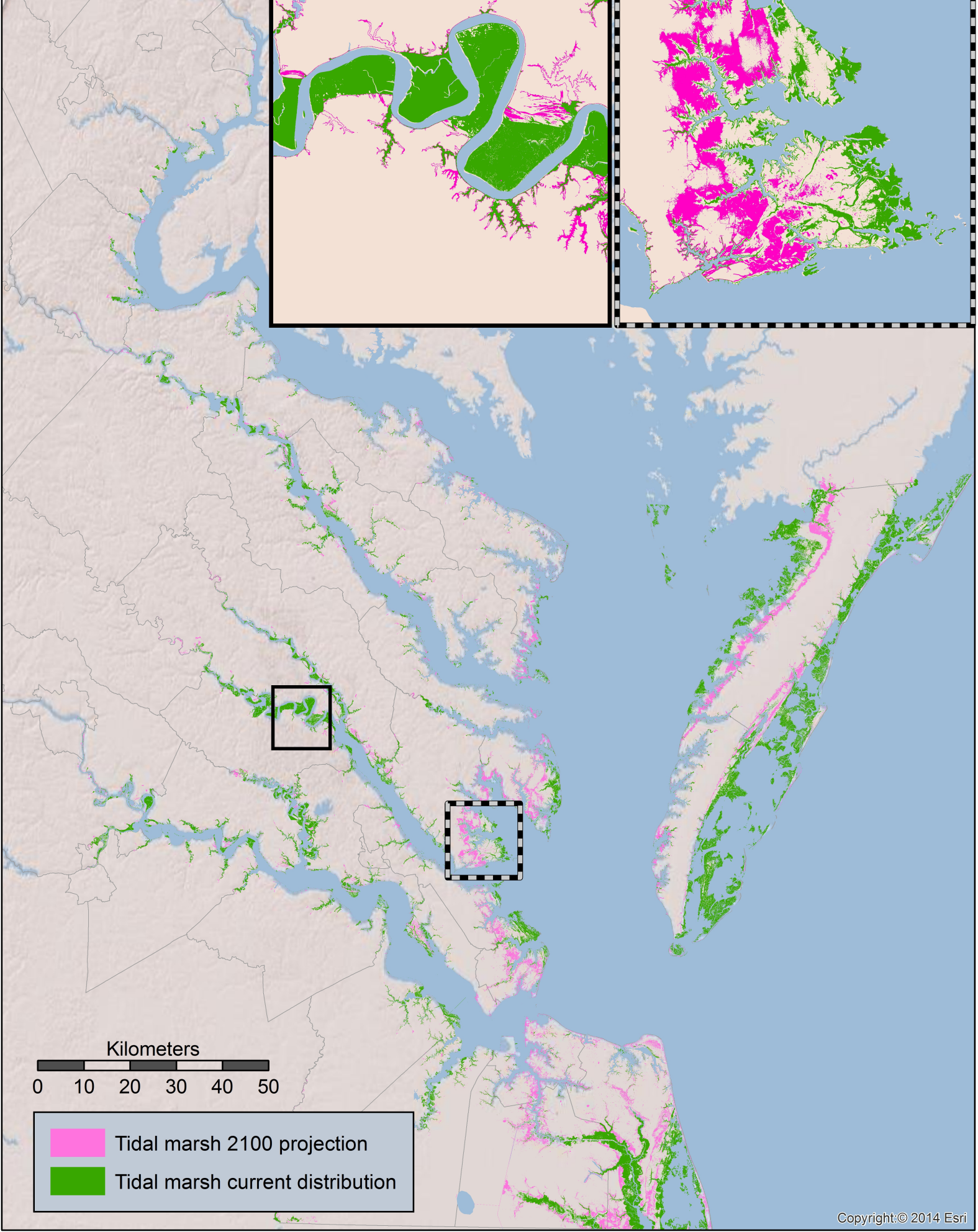
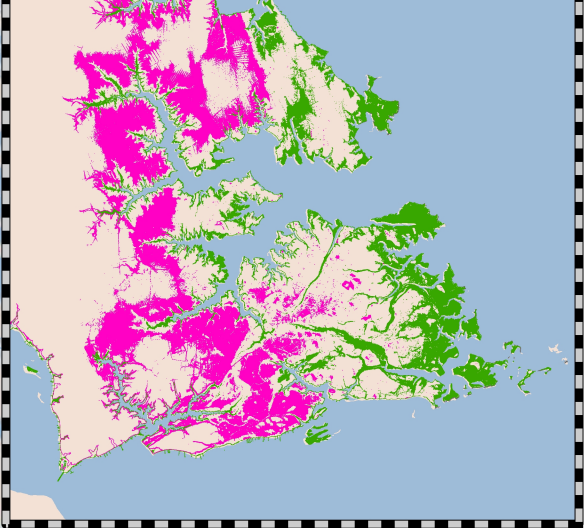
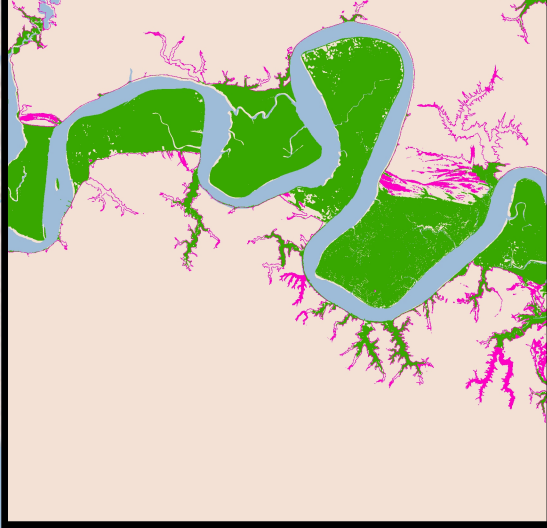


# VA Bay Modeled Marsh Area

■ undeveloped ■ developed





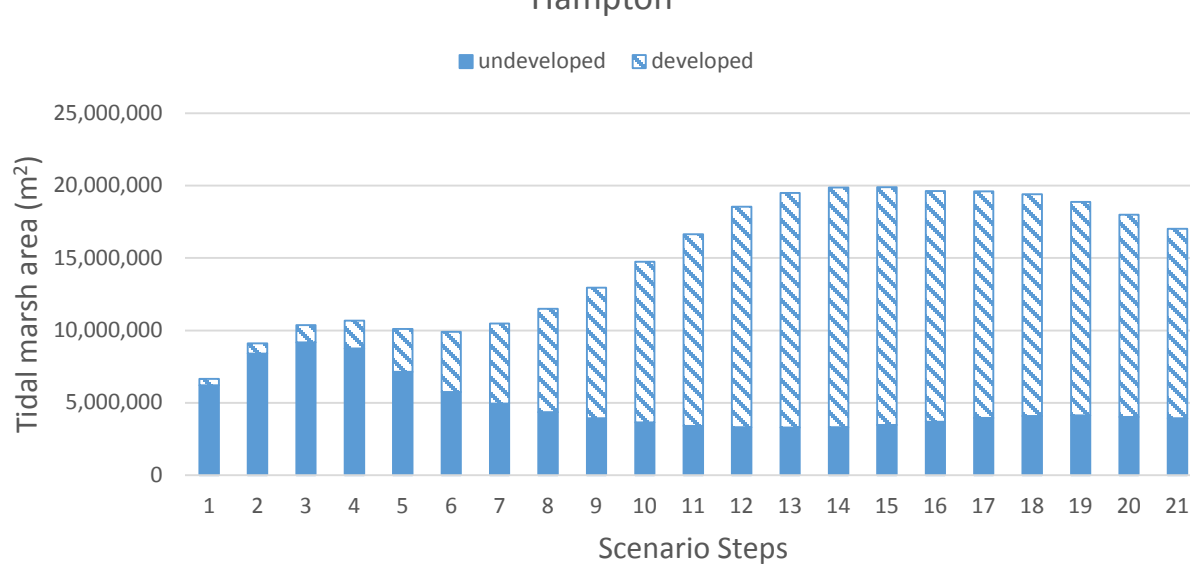


Kilometers

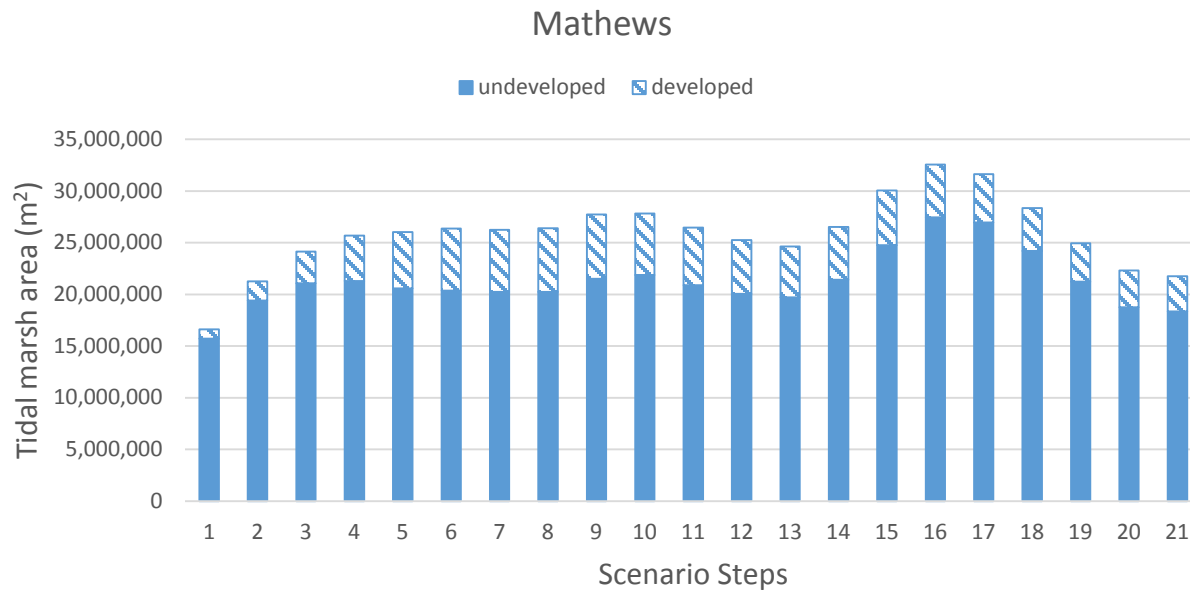
0 10 20 30 40 50

- Tidal marsh 2100 projection
- Tidal marsh current distribution

a)

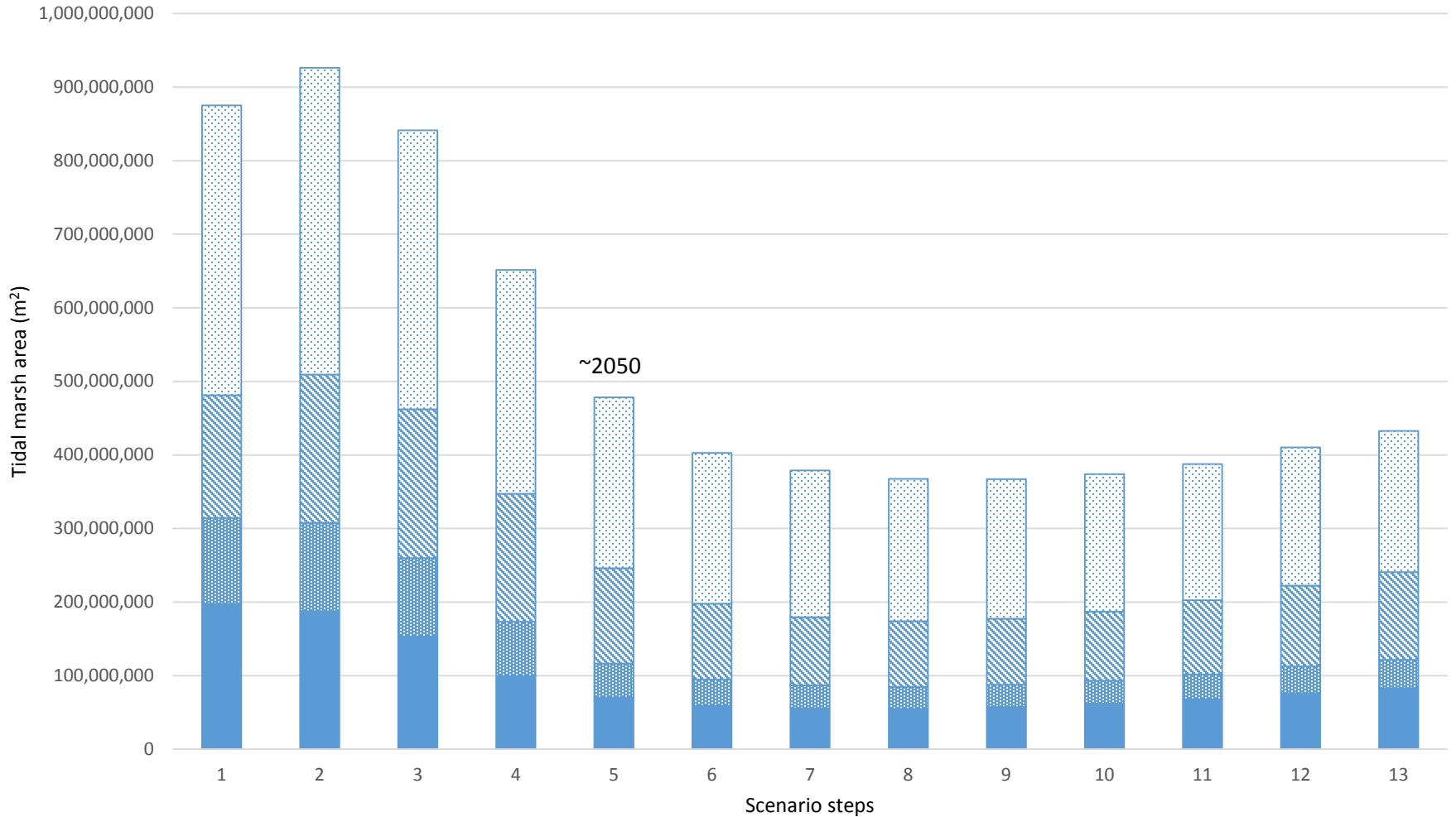


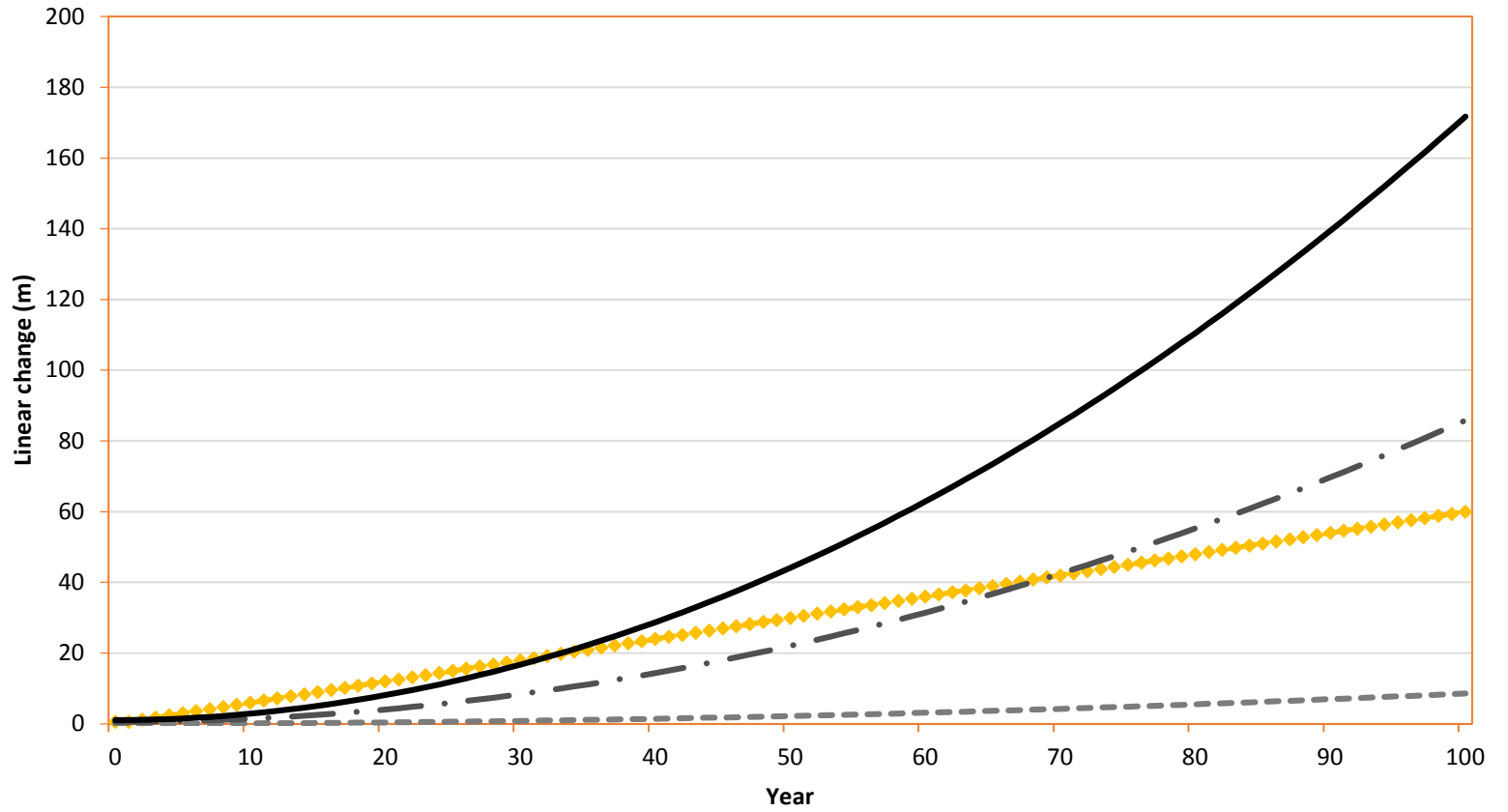
b)



# Projected marsh area in VA Bay

■ Tidal fresh   ■ Oligohaline   ■ Mesohaline   ■ Polyhaline/euhaline





••♦♦ loss from erosion

- - - migration 1:10 slope

- • - migration 1:100 slope

- - - migration 1:200 slope