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1 **Seaward expansion of salt marshes maintains morphological self-similarity**  
2 **of tidal channel networks**

3

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Tidal channel networks (TCNs) dissect ecologically and economically valuable salt marsh ecosystems.  
21 These networks evolve in response to complex interactions between hydrological, sedimentological,  
22 and ecological processes that act in tidal landscapes. Thus, improving current knowledge of the  
23 evolution of salt-marsh TCNs is critical to providing a better understanding of bio-morphodynamic  
24 processes in coastal environments. Existing studies of coastal TCNs have typically focussed on  
25 marshes with either laterally stable or eroding edges, and suggested that TCN morphology evolves  
26 primarily through the progressive landward erosion of channel tips, that is, *via* channel headward  
27 growth. In this study, we analyze for the first time the morphological evolution of TCNs found within  
28 salt marshes that are characterized by active lateral expansion along their seaward edges and  
29 anthropogenically-fixed landward boundaries. We use remote-sensing and numerical-modeling  
30 analyses to show that marsh seaward expansion effectively limits headward channel growth and  
31 prompts the evolution of TCNs that maintain self-similar morphological structures. In particular, we  
32 demonstrate that the overall TCN length increases proportionally to the rate at which marshes expand  
33 laterally and that these morphological changes do not significantly alter the drainage properties of the  
34 coupled marsh-TCN system. Such behavior is not observed in marshes that are not expanding laterally.  
35 Our results allow for elucidating the mechanisms of TCN formation and evolution in tidal wetlands,  
36 and are therefore critical to improving our current understanding of coastal-landscape  
37 ecomorphodynamics, as well as to developing sustainable strategies for the conservation and  
38 restoration of these environments.

39 **Keywords:** *tidal channel networks; lateral expansion salt marshes; self-similarity; drainage*  
40 *properties.*

41

42 **Highlights:**

- 43 • The evolution of tidal networks (TCNs) in laterally-expanding salt marshes is analyzed
- 44 • TCNs maintain morphological self-similarity as marshes expand seaward
- 45 • Self-similarity is not maintained in eroding marshes where TCNs evolve via headward growth

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Tidal channel networks (TCNs) are widespread geomorphological features in tidal saline wetlands  
49 (Cleveringa & Oost, 1999; Coco et al., 2013; D’Alpaos et al., 2005, 2007; Feola et al., 2005; Schwarz  
50 et al., 2022; Shi et al., 1995). TCNs form the main paths for the exchange of water, sediments,  
51 nutrients, and energy between tidal wetlands and open waters, thus exerting a fundamental control on  
52 the ecomorphodynamic evolution of these coastal ecosystems (Kearney & Fagherazzi, 2016;  
53 Sanderson et al., 2000, 2001). The morphological evolution of TCN planform morphology is typically  
54 driven by channel headward growth, a mechanism whereby channels extend landward via the  
55 progressive carving of their tips (e.g., Allen, 2000; Coco et al., 2013; D’Alpaos et al., 2005; Feola et  
56 al., 2005; Hughes et al., 2009), with second-order adjustments due to lateral migration of individual  
57 channels (Cosma et al., 2020; D’Alpaos et al., 2017; Finotello et al., 2018; Jarriel et al., 2021). Such a  
58 head-cutting mechanism depends on the spatial distribution of tidal-current-induced bottom shear

59 stresses, the largest values of which are typically found around channel tips as a consequence of the  
60 characteristic hydrodynamic fields generated by tidal level fluctuations across frictionally-dominated  
61 intertidal platforms (D'Alpaos et al., 2005, 2021). The importance of headward growth for TCN  
62 evolution has been highlighted by both laboratory and numerical experiments (Coco et al., 2013;  
63 D'Alpaos et al., 2005; Finotello et al., 2019; Geng et al., 2020; Kleinhans et al., 2012; Lentsch et al.,  
64 2018; Stefanon et al., 2012, 2010; Vlaswinkel and Cantelli, 2011; Zhou et al., 2014a, 2014b), with  
65 field studies suggesting variable rates of headward growth ranging from few centimeters to hundreds  
66 of meters per year (e.g., D'Alpaos et al., 2007; Flint, 1973; Hughes et al., 2009; Knighton et al., 1992,  
67 1991; Leopold et al., 1993; May, 2002; Rankey and Morgan, 2002; Van Maanen et al., 2015;  
68 Vandenbruwaene et al., 2012)).

69 While headward growth has been typically documented either in TCNs that are still evolving and have  
70 not yet achieved a quasi-steady equilibrium or in mature wetland systems affected by rising relative  
71 sea level - a common condition in most coastal regions worldwide - empirical observations suggest  
72 that TCNs could also expand when tidal wetlands prograde seaward by colonizing adjoining  
73 unvegetated tidal flats (Chambers et al., 2003; Goodwin and Mudd, 2020; Kirwan et al., 2011; Ladd et  
74 al., 2019; Willemsen et al., 2022) (Fig. 1). Data regarding this latter morphodynamic process are  
75 however scarce, mostly because of the inherent tendency of tidal wetlands worldwide to retreat, rather  
76 than expand laterally, due to a lack of sufficient mineral sediment supply (Fitzgerald and Hughes,  
77 2019; Roner et al., 2021; Willemsen et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2020). Therefore, it remains unclear how  
78 wetland lateral expansion affects the morphology and related ecosystem functioning of tidal channel

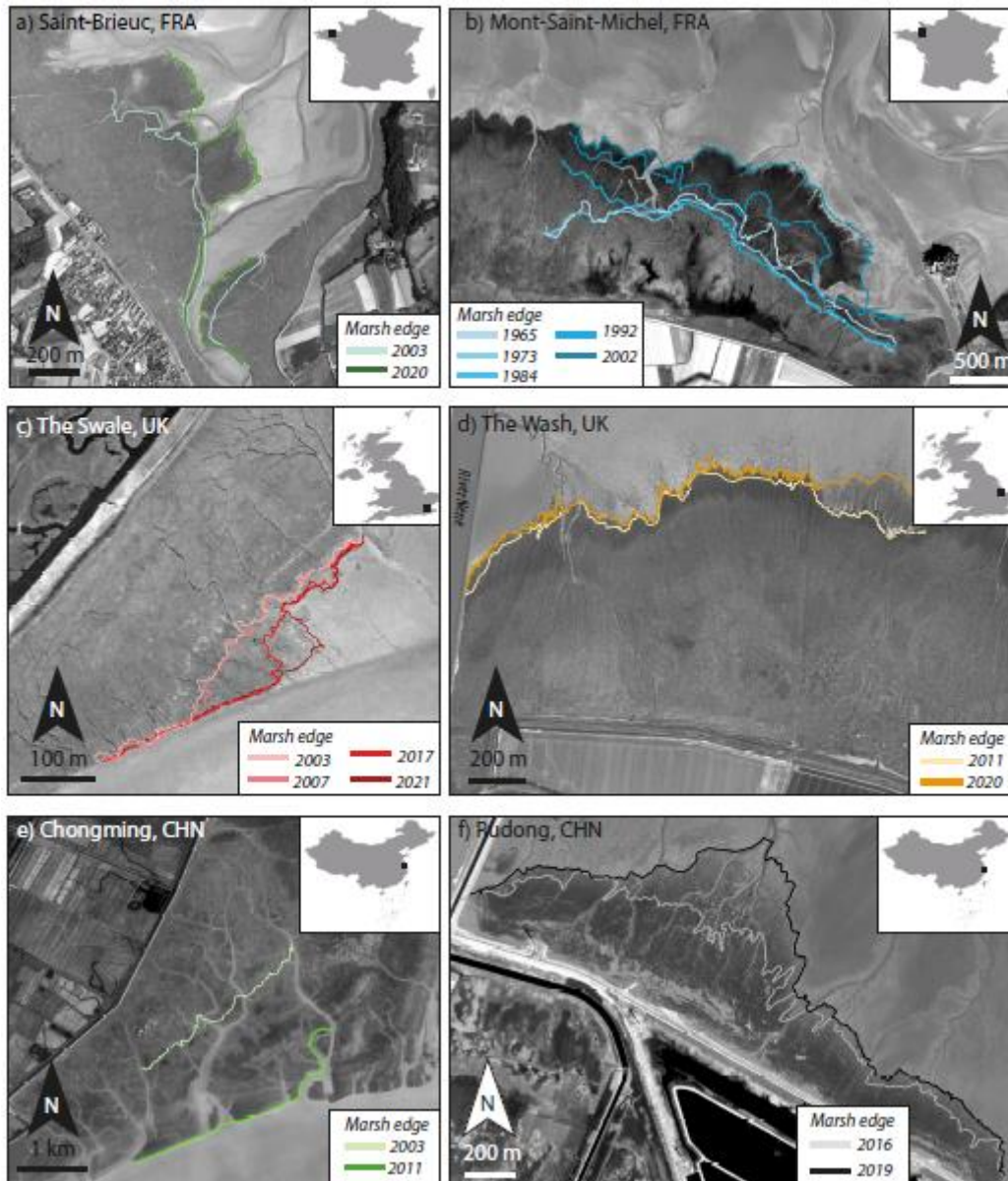
79 networks, and how these changes feedback into the hydrodynamics of the wetland ecosystem as a  
80 whole.

81 Here we monitor the temporal evolution of TCN morphometric characteristics in a set of 6 laterally  
82 expanding tidal salt marshes, each characterized by distinct tidal regimes and vegetation covers. We  
83 focus specifically on the coupled evolution of marsh area and total TCN length, as well as on temporal  
84 changes in marsh drainage density due to seaward network expansion (Marani et al., 2003; Tucker et  
85 al., 2001). The latter is synthesized here by the distribution of drainage distance (Rinaldo et al., 1999a;  
86 Tucker et al., 2001), that is, the distance that a water particle needs to travel on the marsh platform  
87 before entering a nearby tidal channel (Marani et al., 2003a). Drainage density, defined as the inverse  
88 of the mean drainage distance, is an indicator of the overall TCN efficiency in draining the marsh and  
89 bears tight inherent associations to vegetation appearance and hydrodynamic processes in tidal  
90 wetlands (Geng et al., 2021; Temmerman et al., 2007).

## 91 **2. Material and Methods**

### 92 **2.1 Study cases and geomorphological settings**

93 We investigated the spatio-temporal evolution of TCNs in six different salt-marsh systems worldwide,  
94 each characterized by different marsh morphology, vegetation cover, and tidal range. All the studied  
95 marshes are characterized by active expansion in the seaward direction during the considered time  
96 periods. In contrast, the landward expansion of these systems is impeded by the presence, at the  
97 landward marsh boundary, of man-made structures such as dikes and seawalls. A brief description of  
98 each marsh is reported in the next paragraphs.



99

100 **Fig. 1.** Aerial view and temporal evolution of marsh extent at the six study sites analyzed in the  
 101 present work. (a,b) Salt marshes in Saint-Brieuc (SB, Map data: Google, Maxar Technologies; 48°  
 102 30'N, 2° 41'W; date: 2020-05-31) and Mont Saint Michel (MSM, Map data: Google, Maxar  
 103 Technologies; 48° 38'N, 1° 33'W; date: 2003-04-19), France; (c,d) Salt marshes in the Swale (SW,  
 104 Map data: Google, Landsat; 51° 22'N, 0° 56'E; date: 2021-03-30) and the Wash (WS, Map data: UK  
 105 Department for Environment Food & Rural Affairs; 52° 49'N, 0° 13'E; date: 2020-06-01), United

106 *Kingdom; (e,f) Salt marshes in Chongming (CM, Map data: Formosat 2, 31° 28'N, 121° 57'E) and*  
107 *Rudong (RD, Map data: Google, CNES, 32° 33'N, 121° 7'E; date: 2019-03-07), People's Republic of*  
108 *China. Locations of the marsh seaward margins in different years are shown for each study case*  
109 *according to the legend displayed in each panel.*

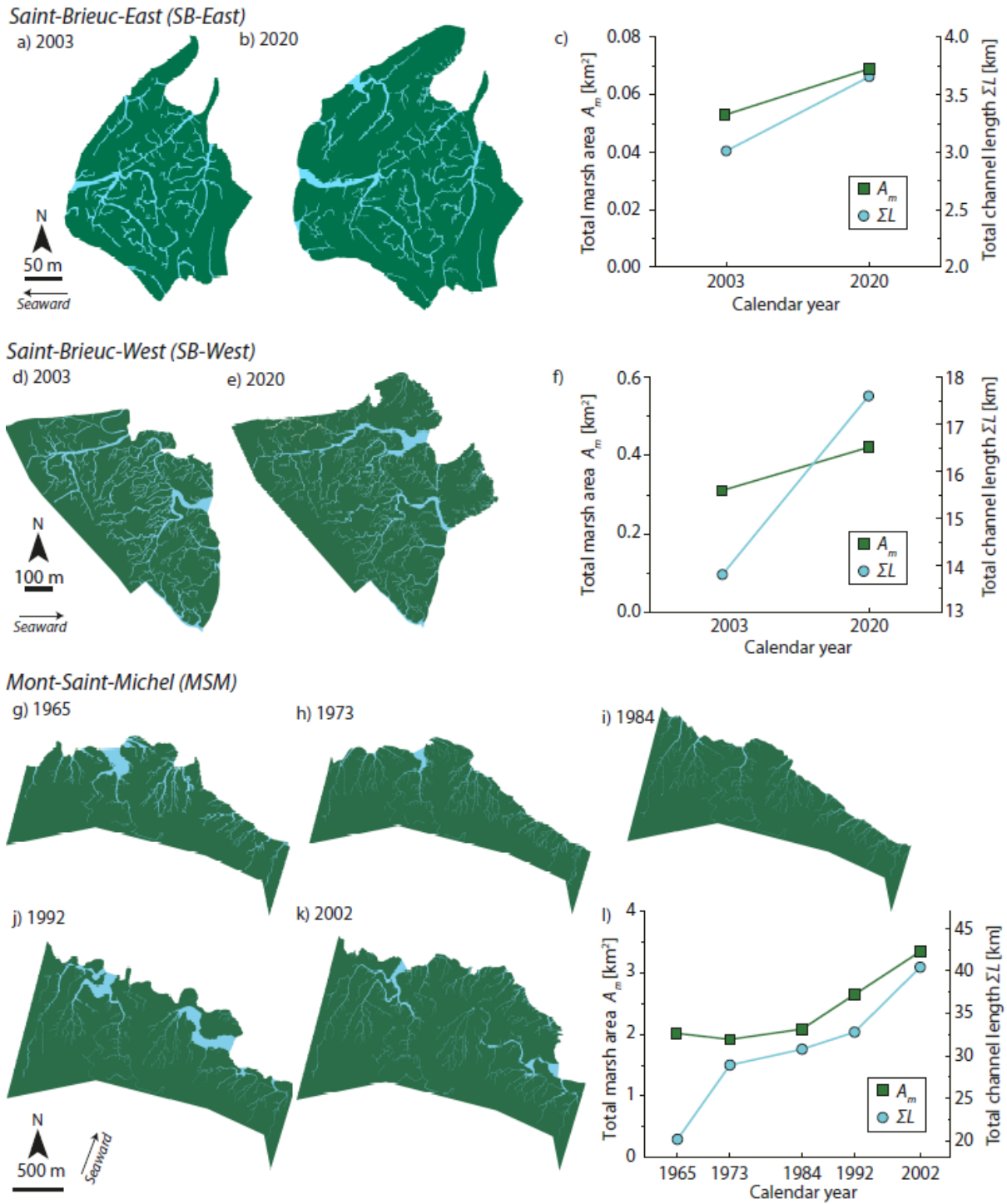
110 The first two study cases consist of salt marshes found in Saint Briec bay and Mont Saint Michel bay,  
111 both located in northwestern France (Figure 1a,b).

112 The Saint-Briec bay (SB, 48° 30'N, 2° 41'W, Fig 1a) is an open bay characterized by a semi-diurnal  
113 macrotidal regime, with neap and spring tides of 4 and 13 m, respectively (Sturbois et al., 2021).  
114 Fringing marshes extend seaward by encroaching tidal flats and cannot extend landward due to the  
115 construction of seawalls (Fig. 1a). The study site is an estuarine marsh located on the upper shore that  
116 currently covers an area of about 1.25 km<sup>2</sup> in total (Sturbois et al., 2022). The marsh has exhibited  
117 active seaward expansion over the last 50 years. The upper marsh portions are dominated by  
118 *Halimione portulacoides*, whereas the lower marsh is mainly colonized by *Salicornia spp* (Ponsero et  
119 al., 2009). Changes in TCN structure and the related geometric features in this area were analyzed by  
120 means of two aerial images taken in 2003 (©Google, Landsat) and 2020 (©Google, Maxar),  
121 respectively, both accessed through Google Earth Pro. Visual observation of historical images  
122 suggests that, during the investigated period, the western portions of the marsh (SB-West) underwent  
123 faster seaward expansion relative to the marsh located in the eastern part of the system (SB-East; see  
124 Fig. 1a and Fig. 2a,b). Specifically, marsh expansion rates in SB-West and SB-East over the  
125 considered period (Fig. 2c,f) amount to  $6.47 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $9.47 \times 10^{-4}$  km<sup>2</sup>/year, respectively. Since SB-  
126 West and SB-East expanded seaward with opposite compass directions (i.e., the western marsh



127 portion expanded eastward, whereas the eastern portion expanded westward), marshes and TCNs in  
128 each area were analyzed separately (Fig. 2a,b,d,e).

129 The Mont Saint Michel bay (MSM, Fig. 1b) is a 500 km<sup>2</sup> open bay located on the northwest coast of  
130 France, between Brittany and the Cotentin Peninsula (Furgerot et al., 2016; Tessier et al., 2012). The  
131 Bay is affected by a semi-diurnal hypertidal regime (Desguée et al., 2011; Détriché et al., 2011), and  
132 with maximum spring tidal ranges larger than 13 m it witnesses the second largest tidal range in  
133 Europe (Levoy et al., 2017, 2000). Sediment grain size decreases from the lower part of the tidal flats  
134 to the upper part, indicating that wave energy reduces progressively in the landward direction (Levoy  
135 et al., 2017). The lower and mid-intertidal zones mainly comprise medium to fine sands, whereas the  
136 upper intertidal zone is characterized by very fine bio-clastic sand (Desguée et al., 2011). Mud content  
137 ranges from 20 to 25% in the proximity of salt-marsh platforms, and is even higher within salt  
138 marshes (Levoy et al., 2017). Our study area consists of an expanding ( $5.0 \times 10^{-2}$  km<sup>2</sup> between 1973  
139 and 2002), non-grazed salt marsh located in the western portion of the MSM (Fig. 1b). Marshes here  
140 are mainly dominated by four halophytic species: *Hallimoniae portulacoides*, *Spartina anglica*,  
141 *Suaeda maritima*, and *Puccinellia Maritima*. The evolution of TCNs in MSM was analyzed through a  
142 temporal series of aerial imageries, dating back to 1965 and spanning about 40 years (i.e., 1965, 1973,  
143 1984, 1992, and 2002), with spatial resolutions ranging from 0.44 to 0.94 m.



144

145 **Fig. 2.** Binary maps of marsh-channel systems for the study cases located in France. (a,b) Binary  
 146 maps of the Saint Brieuc East (SB-East) marsh in 2003 and 2020; (c) Changes in total marsh area  
 147 ( $A_m$ , green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\Sigma L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through time in SB-East; (d,e)  
 148 Binary maps of the Saint Brieuc West (SB-West) marsh in 2003 and 2020; (f) Changes in total marsh

149 area ( $A_m$ , green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\sum L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through time in SB-West;  
150 (g,h,i,j,k) Binary maps of the Mont Saint Michel (MSM) marsh in 1965,1973,1984, 1992, and 2002; (l)  
151 Changes in total marsh area ( $A_m$ , green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\sum L$ , cyan, right y-axis)  
152 through time in MSM.

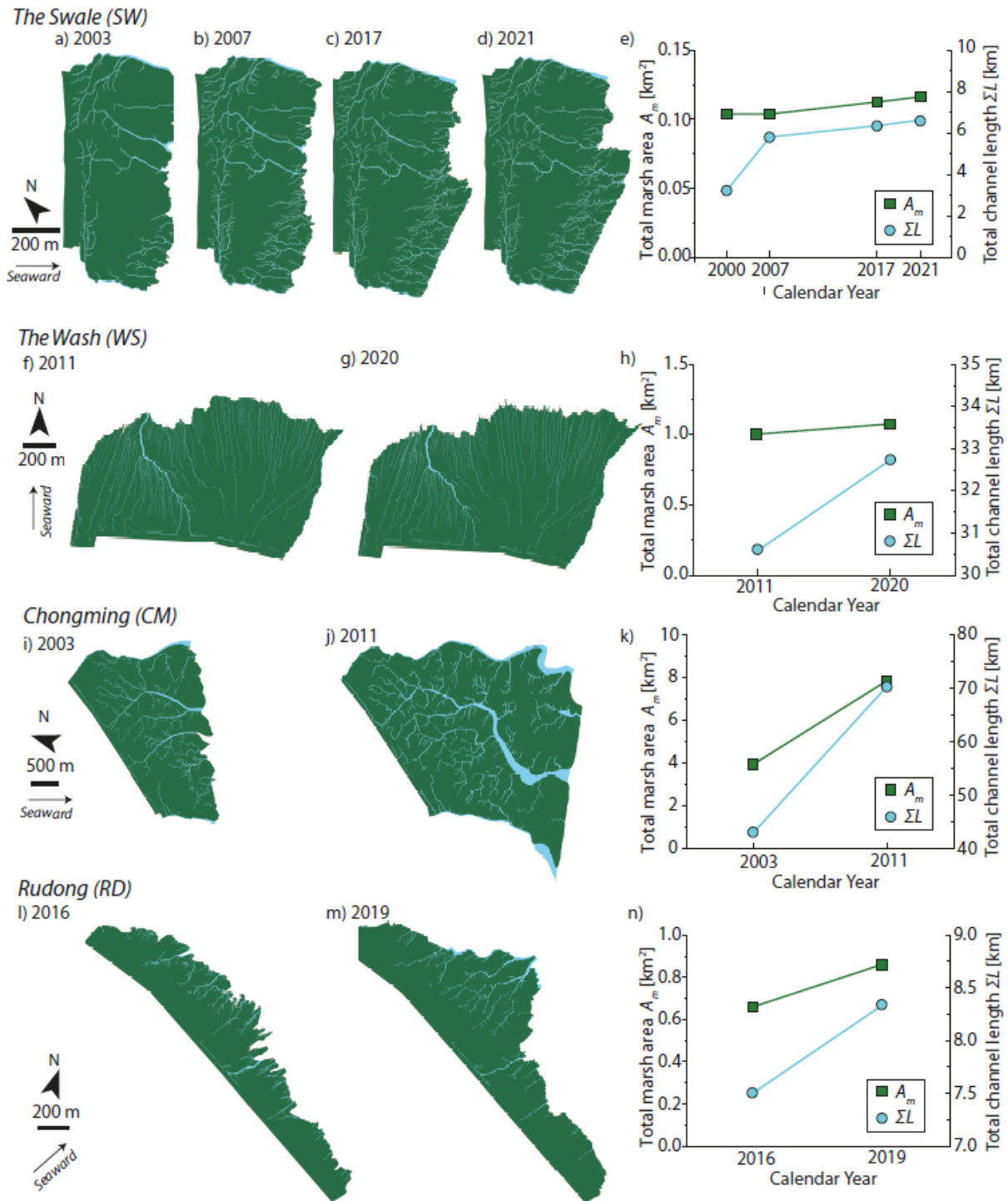
153 The two further study cases are found on the southeastern coasts of the UK. Specifically, we analyzed  
154 two salt marshes found within the Swale estuary and the Wash tidal bay (Fig.1c,d).  
155 The Swale (SW; 51° 22'N, 0° 56'E; Fig. 1c) is a tidal channel of the Thames River estuary that  
156 separates the Isle of Sheppey from the rest of Kent. The selected marsh is located at the southeastern  
157 end of the Isle of Sheppey (Fig. 1c), and is characterized by a semidiurnal macrotidal regime with a  
158 spring tidal range of about 5.2 m (Spencer et al., 2003; van der Wal and Pye, 2004). This area is  
159 dominated by fine, muddy sediments (Cundy et al., 2007). This marsh is mainly populated by  
160 *Polygonum*, *Crambe maritima*, glassworts, and *Limbarda crithmoides*. The studied marsh is separated  
161 from the reclaimed Swale National Nature Reserve by artificial dikes, which effectively prevent  
162 marshes from migrating landward. Visual inspections of historical maps available on Google Earth  
163 Pro suggest that the marsh analyzed in this study is characterized by the most pronounced expansion  
164 rate in the area. Specifically, between 2007 and 2021 (Fig. 3b-d), the marsh expanded at a rate of  
165 about  $8.94 \times 10^{-4}$  km<sup>2</sup>/year, after a period of relative stability (2003-2007; Fig. 3a-b) during which the  
166 total marsh area remained stable at about  $1.04 \times 10^{-2}$  km<sup>2</sup>. Variations in TCN geometry in the SW in  
167 the last 20 years were explored through the analysis of a temporal series of aerial photographs,  
168 consisting of imagery scenes acquired by Infoterra Ltd & Bluesky (©Google) in 2003 and 2007, and  
169 by Landsat (©Google) in 2017 and 2021, all of which were accessed through Google Earth Pro.

170 The Wash estuary (WS; 52° 49'N, 0° 13'E; Fig. 1d) is located in eastern England (Pye, 1995). The tidal  
171 regime is semidiurnal macrotidal (Ni et al., 2014), with a spring tidal range approximately equal to 6.5  
172 m (Cahoon et al., 2000; Goudie, 2013). Marshes in the Wash have been characterized by significant  
173 rates of seaward expansion ( $1.27 \times 10^{-2}$  km<sup>2</sup>/year) and vertical accretion (46.17 mm/year) in the last  
174 decades (Ladd et al., 2019). Marsh surface is typically encroached by *Puccinellia maritima*,  
175 *Halimione portulcooides*, and *Elymus pycnanthus* (Norris et al., 1997). Sediments consist mostly of silt  
176 and clay (Pye, 1995). About 30% of marshes in the Wash are still grazed, mainly by cattle, sheep, and  
177 horses (Norris et al., 1997). The marsh portion analyzed here is located in the southern area of the  
178 estuary, eastern of the mouth of River Nene, where man-made embankments built at the marsh  
179 landward boundaries (Ni et al., 2014) do not allow for the marsh to migrate landward. Changes in  
180 TCN within the studied area were analyzed, from 2011 to 2020, based on multi-spectral data with a  
181 spatial resolution equal to 0.20 m that are freely available from the UK Department of Environment,  
182 Food, and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) data service platform. During the considered period, the marsh  
183 expanded seaward at a rate of about  $8.2 \times 10^{-3}$  km<sup>2</sup>/year.

184 Finally, two actively-expanding salt marshes were identified along the coast of China. The first one is  
185 represented by a salt marsh found on the Chongming Island (CM; 31° 28'N, 121° 57'E), within the  
186 Yangtze Estuary (China; Fig. 1e). The tidal regime in CM is semidiurnal meso- to macro-tidal, with an  
187 average tidal range of about 2.5 m reaching up to 3.5 m during spring tides (Shi et al., 2012). Due to  
188 the abundant sediment availability provided by the Yangtze River, in the last decades, the marsh has  
189 rapidly extended seaward at rates of about 150-300 m/year and accreted vertically with an average  
190 rate of about 50 mm/year (Yang et al., 2011, 2005). The main halophytic vegetation species here are

191 *Scirpus mariqueter*, *Phragmites australis*, and *Spartina alterniflora* (Zhao et al., 2019). The  
192 morphometry of local TCNs is analyzed by using 2 satellite images acquired in 2003 (IKONOS) and  
193 2011 (Formosat 2) (Chen et al., 2021). Both IKONOS and Formosat 2 are multi-spectral sensors, and  
194 their spatial resolutions are 1 and 2 m, respectively.

195 The second studied marsh is instead found in Rudong (RD, Fig. 1f), located in the middle sector of the  
196 Jiangsu coast. This marsh has significantly prograded seaward ( $6.6 \times 10^{-2}$  km<sup>2</sup>/year) in the last  
197 decades, thanks to active sediment supply from the Subei Coastal Current and nearshore residual  
198 currents influenced by the abandoned Yellow River Delta (Li et al., 2018). The tidal regime in Rudong  
199 is semidiurnal macrotidal, with an average tidal range of about 4.5 m (Wang et al., 2012). The studied  
200 marsh is dominated by native communities composed of *Phragmites australis*, *Suaeda*  
201 *glauca*, *Imperata cylindrical*, and invasive species *Spartina alterniflora* (Li et al., 2018). Field  
202 observations suggest that local sediments mainly consist of silt, with smaller fractions of sand and  
203 clay (Yang et al., 2021). Dikes have been constructed at the marsh landward boundaries, thus  
204 preventing marshes from migrating landward. Changes in TCN morphology between 2016 and 2019  
205 were analyzed by using aerial imageries (©Google, Maxar Technologies) accessed from Google Earth  
206 Pro.



207

208 **Fig. 3.** Binary maps of marsh-channel systems for the study cases located in the United Kingdom and

209 China. (a,b,c,d) Binary maps of the Swale (SW) marsh in 2003, 2007, 2017, and 2021; (e) Changes in

210 total marsh area ( $A_m$ , green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\Sigma L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through

211 time in SW; (f,g) Binary maps of the Wash (WS) marsh in 2011 and 2020; (h) Changes in total marsh

212 area ( $A_m$ , green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\sum L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through time in WS; (i,j)  
213 Binary maps of the Chongming (CM) marsh in 2003 and 2011; (k) Changes in total marsh area ( $A_m$ ,  
214 green, left y-axis) and total channel length ( $\sum L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through time in CM; (l,m) Binary  
215 maps of the Rudong (RD) marsh in 2016 and 2019; (k) Changes in total marsh area ( $A_m$ , green, left  
216 y-axis) and total channel length ( $\sum L$ , cyan, right y-axis) through time in RD.

## 217 **2.2 Network extraction and morphometric analyses**

218 Temporal variations in TCN morphology were analyzed based on the boundaries of both tidal-channel  
219 and salt-marsh edges extracted from the available remote sensing products. The position of channel  
220 banks and marsh margins were hand digitized in ©ArcGIS 10.8 based on vegetation cover and  
221 locations of seawalls and dikes. We adopted manual digitization because, although labor intensive, it  
222 is generally more precise than pixel- and object-based classification procedures, especially when  
223 dealing with minor channels whose width is comparable to image resolution (e.g., Kalkan et al., 2013).  
224 After manual digitization, channel networks and marsh boundaries were then converted into binary  
225 maps of marsh-channel area by using ©Arcmap 10.8 (Figs. 2 and 3). Based on such binary maps, we  
226 first estimated the overall area of the marsh ( $A_m$ ) and channel portions ( $A_c$ ). Then, by applying a  
227 skeletonization procedure (Kerschnitzki et al., 2013) in ©Matlab R2020a to the channel portions of  
228 the maps, we derived the centerlines of individual tidal channels, from which the total length of the  
229 TCN ( $\sum L$ ) was estimated. In addition, based on the computed binary maps, we also calculated and  
230 analyzed the temporal evolution of TCN drainage density (Marani et al., 2003) taking advantage of  
231 the drainage directions determined by applying the simplified intertidal hydrodynamic model  
232 proposed by Rinaldo et al. (1999a). The model solves a linearized version of the shallow-water

233 equations, suitably simplified to reduce computational expense while maintaining the description of  
 234 the main characteristics of the hydrodynamic circulation in intertidal, frictionally-dominated settings  
 235 (Rinaldo et al., 1999a, 1999b; Marani et al., 2003). In detail, assuming that the slope of the water-free  
 236 surface is in equilibrium with the energy dissipations, the shallow water equations can be simplified  
 237 as follows:

$$238 \quad \nabla \eta_1 = -\frac{\lambda}{D} \mathbf{U} \quad (1)$$

239 where  $\eta_1(\mathbf{x}, t)$  represents the local deviation of the free surface elevation from its mean instantaneous  
 240 value  $\eta_0(t)$  relative to the mean sea level ( $\mathbf{x}$  indicates the coordinate vector, whereas  $t$  is time),  
 241  $\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  is the local depth-integrated flow velocity,  $D = \eta_0 + \eta_1 - z_b$  is the local water depth relative  
 242 to the bottom elevation  $z_b$ , and  $\lambda$  is a spatially-constant bottom friction coefficient that depends both  
 243 on the Chezy's parameter ( $\chi$ ) and the maximum characteristic value of the velocity over the marsh  
 244 surface ( $U_{MAX}$ ) according to the relation (Rinaldo et al., 1999a):

$$245 \quad \lambda = 8 \cdot \frac{U_{max}}{3\pi \cdot \chi^2} \quad (2)$$

246 We assumed  $\chi=10 \text{ m}^{1/2}/\text{s}$  and  $U_{MAX}=0.2 \text{ m/s}$ , consistent with the approach proposed by Rinaldo et al.  
 247 (1999a) and Marani et al. (2003a). By substituting the previous equations within the continuity  
 248 equation, and further assuming that the tide propagates instantaneously within the tidal channel  
 249 network (i.e.,  $\eta_1=0$  within channels) and imposing zero flux along the impermeable edges of the  
 250 domain (i.e.,  $\partial \eta_1 / \partial n=0$ , with  $n$  being the direction normal to the domain boundary), it is possible to  
 251 determine the instantaneous free-surface elevation along the un-channeled marsh surface by solving  
 252 the following Poisson problem:



$$\nabla^2 \eta_1 = \frac{\lambda}{D_0^2} \left( \frac{\partial \eta_0}{\partial t} \right) = k \quad (3)$$

254 where  $D_0$  denotes the average water depth over the entire marsh domain.  
 255 After solving equation (3) for an arbitrary tidal forcing (i.e., given values of both  $D_0$  and  $\eta_0$ , where  
 256  $d\eta_0/dt$  is the rate of change in the water level in the estuary and is determined by the tide), time-  
 257 independent flow directions at any location within the intertidal domain are computed as the time-  
 258 invariant, steepest-descent direction of the water surface elevation. Then, the drainage distance at any  
 259 marsh location can be determined as the distance ( $\ell$ ) that a water particle has to travel to reach the  
 260 closest channel edge following the flow directions. The drainage density of the tidal landscape can be  
 261 eventually defined based on the probability distribution of  $\ell$  computed for the whole unchanneled  
 262 marsh domain (e.g., Feola et al., 2005; Marani et al., 2003; Zeng Zhou et al., 2014b). Previous  
 263 analyses suggest that such probability distribution follows an exponential trend (D'Alpaos et al., 2005;  
 264 Feola et al., 2005; Marani et al., 2003a; Zhou et al., 2014). Thus, the exceedance probability of  
 265 drainage distance (i.e.,  $P(L > \ell)$ ) plotted in a semi-log diagram should display a sublinear trend,  
 266 jointly with the finite-size scaling effect induced by the cutoff dictated by the site-specific maximum  
 267 value of  $\ell$ . Therefore, the mean drainage distance ( $\ell_m$ ) can be computed as the inverse slope of the  
 268 linear portion of  $P(L > \ell)$ , which is easily computed through least-square regression. Then, the  
 269 characteristic marsh drainage density ( $\delta$ ) can be derived as the inverse of  $\ell_m$ , that is,  $\delta = \ell_m^{-1}$ .  
 270 Notably, the calculation of the water surface distribution also allows one to compute the bottom shear  
 271 stress ( $\tau$ ) acting on the marsh platform, which reads:

$$\tau = -\gamma D \nabla \eta_1 \cong -\gamma (\eta_0 - z_0) \nabla \eta_1 \quad (4)$$

273 where  $\gamma$  is the specific weight of water,  $D$  is the local water depth, and  $\nabla\eta_1$  is the local slope of water  
 274 free surface. In order to estimate for each study case the distribution of the maximum bottom shear  
 275 stresses ( $\tau_{max}$ ), a critical parameter to assess the tendency of TCNs to extend landward via headward  
 276 growth, we assigned values of  $\eta_0$  based on the characteristic spring tidal forcings (i.e., maximum tidal  
 277 amplitude and period), whereas estimates of  $z_0$  (i.e., the average marsh elevation relative to the mean  
 278 sea level) were derived from literature data. The complete set of values adopted to compute  $\tau_{max}$  is  
 279 reported in Table 1.

280 **Table 1.** *Input values used to calculate the maximum bottom shear stress ( $\tau_{max}$ ) at each study site (SB:*  
 281 *Saint Brieuc; MSM: Mont Saint Michel; SW: The Swale; WS: The Wash; CM: Chongming; RD:*  
 282 *Rudong).*

Study case	Spring tidal amplitude $\eta_0$ [m]	Mean marsh elevation $z_0$ [m a.m.s.l.]	Reference
SB	6.50	5.5	Sturbois et al. (2021); Sturbois et al. (2022)
MSM	6.58	5.6	Desguée et al. (2011); Marjoribanks et al. (2019)
SW	2.80	2.4	Spencer et al. (2003); van der Wal and Pye (2004)
WS	3.30	3.0	Cahoon et al. (2000); Goudie (2013)
CM	1.80	1.6	Shi et al. (2012)
RD	2.20	1.3	Wang et al. (2012)

283

### 284 3. Results and Discussion

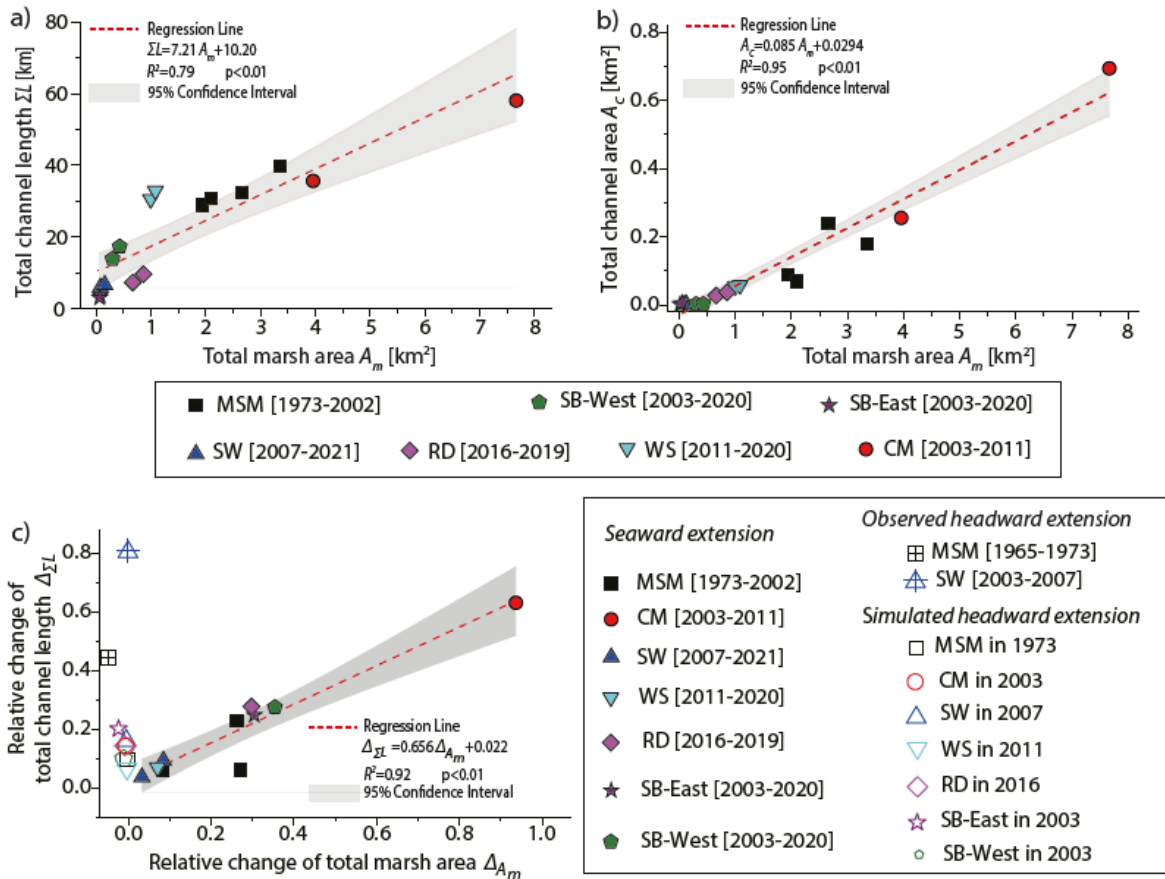
285 Binary maps of marsh-channel systems highlight that morphological changes occurred mostly through  
 286 lateral expansion of the marsh seaward margins, since landward marsh migration was impeded by  
 287 man-made dikes and seawalls, and the TCNs in our study typically did not exhibit significant

288 headward growth (Figs. 2 and 3, Table 2). Only two exceptions to this trend are found, represented by  
289 marshes in MSM, where the overall marsh area slightly reduced between 1965 and 1973 at a rate of  
290 about  $1.88 \times 10^{-2} \text{ km}^2/\text{year}$  (Fig. 2g,h,i; see also Table 2), and SW, where marsh area slightly shrunk  
291 between 2003 and 2007 at a rate of about  $2.79 \times 10^{-5} \text{ km}^2/\text{year}$  (Fig. 3a,b,e; see also Table 2).

292 In all study cases, the total channel length ( $\sum L$ ) increased over the monitored period, with data from  
293 MSM and SW, for which more than two aerial scenes were available, suggesting varying rates of  $\sum L$   
294 increase through time (Figs. 2l and 3e). Binary marsh-channel maps (Figs. 2 and 3) suggest that active  
295 headward growth of tidal channels occurred both in MSM between 1965 and 1973 (Fig. 2g,h) and in  
296 SW between 2003 and 2007 (Fig. 3a, b), when  $\sum L$  increased despite an overall reduction in marsh  $A_m$   
297 (Fig. 2l and 3e). In contrast, during periods of marsh lateral expansion, the position of channel tips did  
298 not change significantly, and channels extended seaward accompanying progradation of the marsh  
299 margins (Figs 2c,f,l and Fig. 3e,h,k,n). The coupled increase in channel length ( $\sum L$ ) and total marsh  
300 area ( $A_m$ ) associated with relatively stable channel tips suggests that TCNs evolved predominantly *via*  
301 seaward extension, rather than by headward erosion of channel endpoints.

302 The analysis of the relation between  $A_m$  and  $\sum L$  demonstrates a significant correlation between marsh  
303 area and channel length, which seems to hold even when marshes expand seaward and channels  
304 lengthen predominantly by the progradation of their inlet positions (Fig. 4a). Similarly, a significant  
305 correlation is also found between the total marsh area ( $A_m$ ) and the total channel area ( $A_c$ ) (Fig. 4b).  
306 Moreover, our data highlight that the relative changes in total TCN length ( $\Delta_{\sum L}$ ) are significantly  
307 correlated to changes in the overall marsh area ( $\Delta_{A_m}$ ;  $p < 0.01$  for the  $t$ - statistic of the hypothesis test  
308 that the regression coefficient is equal to zero, see Fig. 4c), suggesting the morphological relationship

309 between the rate at which channels lengthen and marsh area increases can be approximated as linear.  
310 We speculate that this behavior might be different from that of TCNs evolving through headward  
311 erosion of channel tips on marshes with stable seaward and landward boundaries, wherein changes in  
312  $\sum L$  might occur irrespective of variations in  $A_m$ . To substantiate this claim, we compared the trend  
313 observed in  $\Delta_{\sum L}$  vs.  $\Delta_{A_m}$  data during periods of marsh seaward expansion with data derived from  
314 marshes characterized by relatively stable  $A_m$  and documented headward growth of channels (i.e.,  
315 MSM in 1965-1973 and SW in 2003-2007). Furthermore, we also simulated the headward growth of  
316 TCNs numerically for all the study cases by increasing channel length through headward growth,  
317 without modifying the total marsh area. Specifically, we increased  $\sum L$  by 10 to 20% according to the  
318 numerically-simulated distribution of  $\tau_{max}$ . We simulated this by eroding channel tips with a  
319 probability proportional to the maximum local bottom shear stress computed by means of the  
320 hydrodynamic model (see Equation 4). Both field and simulated data (Fig. 4c) suggest that the  
321 headward growth of TCN produces patterns of  $\Delta_{\sum L}$  vs.  $\Delta_{A_m}$  that are statistically different from those  
322 we observed in seaward-expanding salt marshes. Hence, the functional linear relationship between  
323  $\Delta_{\sum L}$  and  $\Delta_{A_m}$  that emerges from our data can be considered specific to the coupled TCN-marsh  
324 evolution in salt marshes actively undergoing seaward expansion.



325

326 **Fig. 4.** Morphometric relationships between salt-marsh and tidal-network features. (a,b) Plots of total

327 marsh area ( $A_m$ ) vs. total channel length ( $\Sigma L$ ) and total channel area ( $A_c$ ) for all the analyzed study

328 cases. Results of linear regression analyses, together with correlation coefficients, p-values, and 95%

329 confidence interval of the regression models are also reported. (c) Plot of relative change in total

330 marsh area ( $\Delta A_m$ ) vs. relative change in total channel length ( $\Delta \Sigma L$ ). Filled markers denote data

331 retrieved from salt marshes undergoing active lateral expansion in the seaward direction, whereas

332 empty markers highlight field and numerical data from laterally-stable or retreating marshes. Results

333 of linear regression analyses, together with correlation coefficients, p-values, and 95% confidence

334 interval of the regression model obtained by considering data from expanding marshes are also

335 reported. Names of individual study sites in legends are as follows: SB-East = eastern portions of the

336 *Saint-Brieuc marsh; SB-West = western portions of the Saint-Brieuc marsh; MSM = Mont Saint*

337 *Michel; SW = The Swale; WS = The Wash; CM = Chongming; RD = Rudong.*

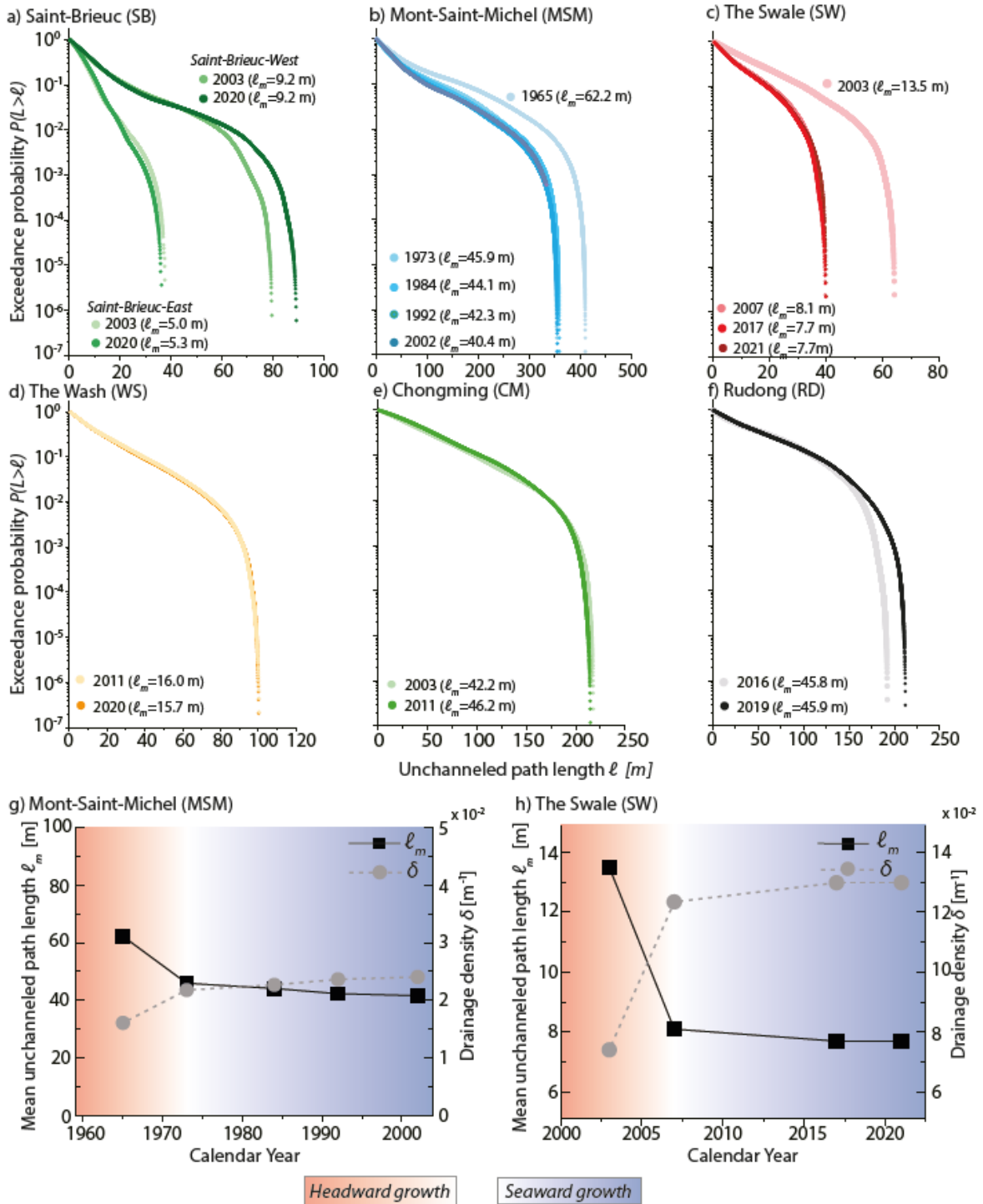
338 Combined changes in both  $\sum L$  and  $A_m$  are likely to affect marsh drainage density. However, our data  
339 highlight that the mean drainage distance ( $\ell_m$ ) remained fairly constant through time in all the studied  
340 marshes, each of which is characterized by a site-specific value of  $\ell_m$  (Fig. 5 and Table 2). Significant  
341 changes in  $\ell_m$  are only observed for MSM between 1965 and 1973 (Fig. 5b,g; see also Table 2) and  
342 SW between 20003 and 2005 (Fig. 5c,h; see also Table 2), that is, for the two study cases and periods  
343 in which marshes did not undergo significant lateral expansion, and active headward channel growth  
344 was observed. Increasing  $\sum L$  due to headward erosion and relatively stable marsh area  $A_m$  thus led to  
345 pronounced decreases in  $\ell_m$  and, therefore, to an increase in the overall marsh drainage density ( $\delta$ ). In  
346 contrast, both in MSM and SW,  $\delta$  attained approximately constant values during periods characterized  
347 by active marsh expansion in the seaward direction, which is consistent with the temporal evolution of  
348  $\ell_m$  observed for all the other study sites (Fig. 5 and Table 2).

349 Hence, our results suggest that when marshes with stable landward boundaries expand seaward, tidal  
350 channel networks evolve in a fashion that tends to maintain the marsh drainage properties unaltered  
351 (Fig. 5). It thus appears that the mechanism of TCN geomorphological evolution in laterally  
352 expanding marshes tends to shape networks that are statistically self-similar to prior network  
353 configurations. Such a mechanism is different from previous observations carried out in tidal  
354 networks characterized by active headward channel erosion (Stefanon et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2014b),  
355 wherein drainage properties of a given intertidal area were shown to vary considerably in time as  
356  $\sum L$  increased while  $A_m$  either remained approximately constant or reduced progressively due to marsh

357 lateral retreat. This is because most of the existing analyses of  $\delta$  and  $\ell_m$  focused on marshlands that  
358 were either characterized by stable spatial extent or experiencing marsh-area shrinking due to lateral  
359 erosion driven by, for example, the action of wind waves (e.g., Finotello et al., 2020; Leonardi et al.,  
360 2016; Tommasini et al., 2019).

361 Significant variations of  $\delta$  and  $\ell_m$  among different sites (Fig. 5 and Table 2) is likely due to site-  
362 specific tidal forcings and marsh-platform properties. Indeed, previous studies demonstrated that  
363 larger tidal prism are likely to produce TCNs with higher  $\delta$ , and vice versa (Stefanon et al., 2012).  
364 Besides, modeling analyses suggested that TCNs in highly frictional salt-marsh platforms tend to  
365 develop fewer branches and are characterized by larger inter-channel distances and, therefore, by  
366 lower drainage density (Fagherazzi and Sun, 2004). In addition, morphological features of TCNs are  
367 also regulated by site-specific vegetation assemblages and animal activities, which critically affect  
368 flow turbulence and soil erosion across the marsh platform (Hughes et al., 2009; Schwarz et al., 2022;  
369 Temmerman et al., 2007). For example, sites where crab burrowing activity is more intense typically  
370 display higher  $\delta$  due to the coupling of vegetation disappearance and reduction in local accretion, both  
371 aiding in reducing flow resistances and enhancing bottom shear stresses (Crotty et al., 2020; Escapa et  
372 al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2022). Besides, environmental changes, which can be significantly accelerated  
373 by human activities, can alternate vegetation distributions and biotic activities, thus possibly further  
374 modifying site-specific TCN morphological properties (Crotty et al., 2020; Finotello et al., 2022).

375



376

377 **Fig. 5.** Evolution of tidal channel network morphometric features. (a,b,c,d,e,f) Empirical probability

378 distributions of unchanneled path length ( $\ell$ ) computed by means of the simplified hydrodynamic

379 model proposed by Rinaldo et al. (1999a, 1999b) are shown for each study case based on the

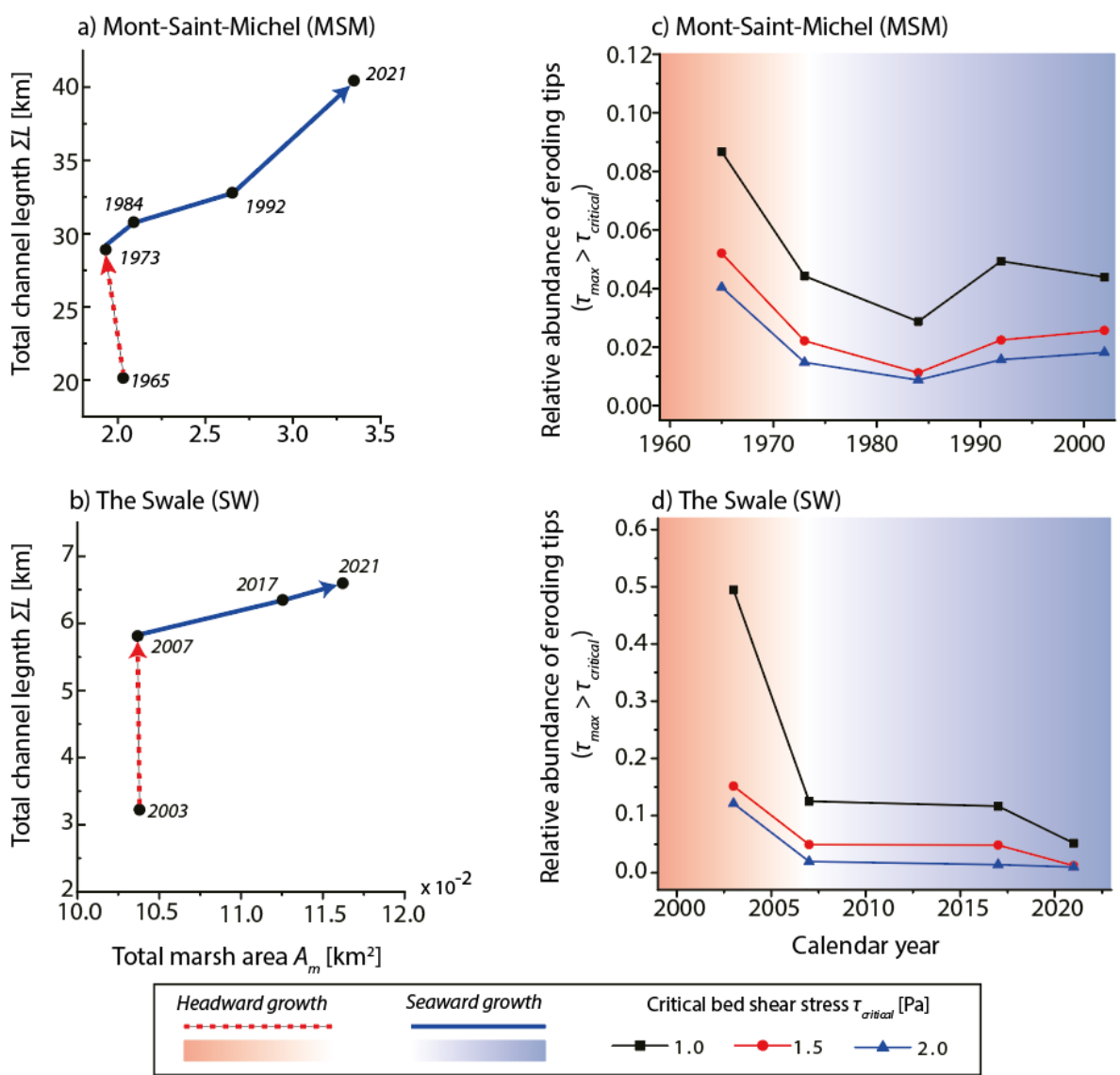
380 exceedance probability  $P(L > \ell)$ . The latter is derived by computing  $L$  for every marsh site and



381 *plotting the probability obtained by counting the relative proportion of sites for which  $L$  exceeds a*  
382 *given value  $\ell$ , here expressed in meters. In each panel, the mean unchanneled path length ( $\ell_m$ ) for*  
383 *different network configurations are also reported. (g,h) Evolution of the mean unchanneled path*  
384 *length ( $\ell_m$ ) and related drainage density ( $\delta = \ell_m^{-1}$ ) in Mont-Saint-Michel and the Swale study cases.*  
385 *Different background colors highlight different evolution mechanisms of the coupled marsh-network*  
386 *system, with red denoting phases of network growth via headward erosion and blue emphasizing*  
387 *periods during which both marshes and channels expanded in the seaward direction.*

388 Because concurrent headward channel growth and enhancement of drainage density appear to be  
389 unique to retreating or stable marshes, some explanation of why this behavior is absent from  
390 expanding marshes is warranted. In order to do so, we analyzed the distributions of maximum bottom  
391 shear stresses ( $\tau_{max}$ ) at channel tips based on equation (4), and compared them with realistic values  
392 of critical shear stress  $\tau_c$ , that is the threshold shear stress required to initiate sediment motion. Based  
393 on literature data suggesting  $\tau_c$  to typically range between 1 and 2 Pa over marsh platforms (Chen et  
394 al., 2011; D'Alpaos et al., 2005; Hir et al., 2008), we were able to estimate the number of actively  
395 eroding channel tips by considering three different values of  $\tau_c$  equal to 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 Pa. We focus  
396 in particular on the MSM (Figs .1b and 2g-l) and SW study cases (Figs. 1c and 3a-e), for which more  
397 than two aerial images were available, which allowed us to investigate the distributions of eroding tips  
398 during both periods of channel headward growth and marsh lateral expansion. Results show that the  
399 relative abundance of eroding tips (i.e., tips for which  $\tau_{max} > \tau_c$ ) during the channel headward-growth  
400 phase (i.e., Fig. 6a for 1965 in MSM and Fig. 6b for 2003 in SW) is notably higher compared to  
401 periods when channels (and marshes) expand seaward (Fig. 6c-d). Hence, our data suggest that

402 seaward expansion of the coupled marsh-channel system significantly changes the hydrodynamics of  
 403 intertidal plains, in this way effectively reducing bottom shear stresses at channel tips and limiting  
 404 TCN landward expansion *via* headward growth. Thus, it emerges that marsh seaward expansion  
 405 fundamentally changes the mechanism of TCN evolution from headward channel growth to seaward  
 406 channel expansion, a shift that might represent an indicator of channel network adaptation to bio-  
 407 morphodynamic processes in tidal landscapes.



408

409 **Fig 6.** *Effects of changes in the evolution mechanisms of the coupled marsh-network system. (a,b)*  
410 *Evolution of total marsh area ( $A_m$ ) vs. total channel length ( $\sum L$ ) values in the marshes of Mont-Saint-*  
411 *Michelle and the Swale through time. (c,d) Changes in the relative abundance of eroding channel tips*  
412 *through time based on different values of critical shear stress for sediment erosion ( $\tau_c$ ). An eroding*  
413 *channel tip is identified as a channel head wherein  $\tau_{max} > \tau_c$ , being  $\tau_{max}$  the maximum local bottom*  
414 *shear stress computed through the simplified hydrodynamic model proposed by Rinaldo et al. (1999a,*  
415 *1999b). Red and blue background colors in each panel are used to identify different evolutionary*  
416 *phases of the coupled marsh-network system, with red denoting phases of network growth via*  
417 *headward erosion and blue emphasizing periods during which both marshes and channels expanded*  
418 *in the seaward direction.*

419

420 There are however some limitations in our approach that should be highlighted.  
421 First, the positions of marsh landward boundaries in all the studied marshes are fixed by the presence  
422 of man-made structures, which effectively prevents marsh landward migration and significantly  
423 impacts the distribution of  $\tau_{max}$  by limiting flow velocities in the innermost marsh portions. Thus, it  
424 remains unclear whether the mechanisms of TCN evolution illustrated here, operate also in intertidal  
425 systems where landward marsh boundaries can change through time (Fagherazzi et al., 2019;  
426 Fitzgerald and Hughes, 2019; Kirwan and Gedan, 2019; Smith, 2013).

427 In addition, our analyses focused on a relatively narrow range of tidal wetlands, that is, on tidal  
428 marshes found in macro- and meso-tidal settings. Previous studies have demonstrated that these  
429 marshes are the most likely to receive enough mineral sediment supply to support marsh lateral

430 expansion (e.g., D’Alpaos et al., 2011; Ganju et al., 2017; Kirwan et al., 2016; Kirwan and  
 431 Guntenspergen, 2010). Therefore, even though TCN evolution in microtidal settings is likely to follow  
 432 mechanisms by all means similar to those we illustrated here, specific analyses will be needed to  
 433 confirm such speculation.

434

435 **Table 2.** Morphological features of TCN at each study site in different years. The type of marsh  
 436 change from the corresponding date to the next observation, subdivided between prograding (P) and  
 437 retreating (R), is also reported. ( $A_m$ : total channel area;  $\sum L$ : total channel length;  $A_c$ : total channel  
 438 area;  $\delta$ : drainage density; and  $\ell_m$ =mean unchannelled path length).

Study site	Year	$A_m$ [km <sup>2</sup> ]	$\sum L$ [km]	$A_c$ [km <sup>2</sup> ]	$\delta$ [m]	$\ell_m$ [m]	Marsh change
SB-East	2003	0.053	2.953	2.00E-04	0.2	5	P
	2011	0.069	3.636	2.09E-04	0.189	5.3	--
SB-West	2003	0.311	13.803	4.05E-04	0.109	9.2	P
	2011	0.421	17.599	4.69E-04	0.109	9.2	--
MSM	1965	2.030	20.142	1.68E-01	0.016	62.2	R
	1973	1.930	28.903	8.93E-02	0.022	45.9	P
	1984	2.090	30.774	6.97E-02	0.023	44.1	P
	1992	2.653	32.788	2.40E-01	0.024	42.3	P
	2002	3.348	40.439	1.80E-01	0.025	40.4	--
SW	2003	0.104	3.222	2.42E-04	0.074	13.5	R
	2007	0.104	5.810	2.45E-04	0.123	8.1	P
	2017	0.113	6.349	2.40E-04	0.13	7.7	P
	2021	0.116	6.599	2.40E-04	0.13	7.7	--
WS	2011	0.999	30.610	5.20E-02	0.063	16	P
	2020	1.073	32.735	5.87E-02	0.064	15.7	--
CM	2003	3.958	43.058	2.55E-01	0.024	42.2	P
	2011	7.666	70.298	6.94E-01	0.022	46.2	--
RD	2016	0.665	7.503	2.50E-02	0.022	45.8	P
	2019	0.863	8.347	3.58E-02	0.022	45.9	--

439

440        **4. Conclusions**

441        We have analyzed the morphological evolution of several tidal channel networks found worldwide in  
442        salt-marsh systems characterized by active lateral expansion in the seaward direction. Thus, different  
443        from most empirical studies carried out so far, we investigated TCN evolution in salt marshes that are  
444        expanding rather than retreating, and wherein channels lengthen seaward instead of landward.

445        Seaward marsh expansion, which in our study cases is generally promoted by sufficient mineral  
446        sediment supply coupled with anthropogenically fixed position of marsh landward boundaries, led to  
447        a proportional increase in the overall marsh area and length of tidal channel networks. Moreover, in  
448        laterally-expanding marshes, tidal channel networks were shown to evolve primarily by seaward  
449        expansion, rather than by landward extension through the well-known headward-growth mechanism  
450        that typically operates in marsh systems that are either stable or retreating laterally.

451        This collectively leads to TCNs maintaining self-similar morphological structures in terms of drainage  
452        density. For the first time, we report such a self-similarity in TCNs, which has not been observed in  
453        marshes undergoing lateral erosion. By elucidating the evolutionary mechanisms of tidal channel  
454        networks in actively expanding salt marshes, our observations help to improve current knowledge on  
455        the morphodynamics of coupled TCN-marsh ecosystems, with direct practical implications for the  
456        conservation and restoration of coastal wetlands.

457

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460 Drafting article: Z.Y., A.F.; Critical revision of the article: all authors.

461

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478

479 **Data availability:** All the data are listed in the text, references, and figures.

480

481

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