# Emergence of efficient channel networks in fluvial landscapes

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#### Abstract

Channel networks across fluvial landscapes are believed to have evolved to minimize energy expenditure [1-3], as evidenced by the similarities between computer-generated optimal channel networks (OCNs) and real networks [4,5]. However, the specific mechanisms driving energy minimization in fluvial landscapes remain largely elusive [6]. Here we propose that randomness has a profound role in landscape evolution [7] and that efficient channel networks emerge when the probability of a channel pixel changing its flow direction decreases with drainage area. The proposed probabilistic growth model then employs a power function to simulate channel-network evolution, with positive exponent (?) values leading to asymptotic decrease of energy expenditure. An interpretation of this result is energy minimization tendency of river networks is a result of landscape evolution following specific adaptive rules rather than being the cause of landscape evolution itself. A greater ? ensures a greater restriction on the role of randomness and thus results in a more stable channel network configuration, and vice versa. Interestingly, the most efficient networks are observed to emerge always at ? =0.5, suggesting that randomness plays an important but limited role in the emergence of efficient channel networks. The proposed framework holds promise for explaining the evolution of other tree-like networks in nature and for developing more efficient optimization methods for practical applications.

### **Emergence of Efficient Channel Networks in Fluvial Landscapes**

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#### 8 9 Abstract

Channel networks across fluvial landscapes are believed to have evolved to minimize energy 10 expenditure<sup>1-3</sup>, as evidenced by the similarities between computer-generated optimal channel 11 networks (OCNs) and real networks<sup>4,5</sup>. However, the specific mechanisms driving energy 12 minimization in fluvial landscapes remain largely elusive<sup>6</sup>. Here we propose that randomness has a 13 profound role in landscape evolution<sup>7</sup> and that efficient channel networks emerge when the probability 14 15 of a channel pixel changing its flow direction decreases with drainage area. The proposed probabilistic growth model then employs a power function to simulate channel-network evolution, 16 17 with positive exponent  $(\eta)$  values leading to asymptotic decrease of energy expenditure. An interpretation of this result is energy minimization tendency of river networks is a result of landscape 18 19 evolution following specific adaptive rules rather than being the cause of landscape evolution itself. A 20 greater  $\eta$  ensures a greater restriction on the role of randomness and thus results in a more stable channel network configuration, and vice versa. Interestingly, the most efficient networks are observed 21 to emerge always at  $\eta = 0.5$ , suggesting that randomness plays an important but limited role in the 22 emergence of efficient channel networks. The proposed framework holds promise for explaining the 23 evolution of other tree-like networks in nature and for developing more efficient optimization 24 25 methods for practical applications. 26

### 27 Main

Origins of fluvial channel networks continue to create curiosity among us because the processes 28 29 leading to their formation are exceedingly complex and have not been fully understood yet. Nevertheless, networks across regions show remarkable statistical similarities<sup>8,9</sup>, which is why most of 30 the early models were statistical in nature<sup>10</sup>. Statistics-based approach can provide a diverse range of 31 32 views on channel network structure. The random topology models explore possibilities of connecting 33 nodes to form tree-like networks<sup>11</sup>. The statistical growth models allow network formation to begin at 34 the outlet and gradually grow adding nodes to form tree-like networks resembling fluvial channel 35 networks. The rationale behind these network growth models is that disturbance caused due to erosion propagates in the upstream direction<sup>12,13</sup>. It is also possible for a network growth model to produce 36 37 networks with varying shapes and sizes and explain the scaling laws of river networks<sup>14</sup>. The main criticism of the statistics-based models is that they provide a very limited understanding of channel 38 network evolution. Many studies have therefore attempted to use mass and momentum conservation 39 equations for simulating channel networks<sup>15,16</sup>. However, these models too, do not explain the 40 41 processes leading to the formation of fluvial channel networks properly as it is not possible to have 42 detailed information on the initial conditions of a landscape. Moreover, the role of heterogeneity 43 within a process-based model is typically handled statistically as it is not possible to do so in a fully mechanistic way<sup>17</sup>. 44

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A completely different viewpoint was proposed by Leopold<sup>18</sup> that states landscapes evolve so as to form optimal channel network configuration. Although the optimality hypothesis is based on sound physics and has proven its worth in many scientific disciplines<sup>19</sup>, it is quite unclear what exactly is optimized in the context of channel network evolution. Many objective functions have been proposed

50 in the past to generate optimal channel networks (OCNs)<sup>20</sup>, and it is not very uncommon to see

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contradictions<sup>6</sup>. The most widely accepted optimality hypothesis is that channel networks evolve to
 minimize total energy expenditure, quantitatively given as:

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$$\mathbf{E} \propto \sum (\Delta x_i \cdot Q_i^{\gamma}) \propto \sum (\Delta x_i \cdot A_i^{\gamma}) \tag{1}$$

56 where  $\Delta x_i$  is the length of the ith channel segment and  $Q_i$  is discharge through it, which is assumed to 57 be proportional to the drainage area  $(A_i)$ . The exponent  $\gamma$  characterizes the fluvial processes. Its value 58 is typically observed to be close to  $0.5^{21}$ , implying that energy expenditure per unit channel-bed 59 surface is spatially constant and that energy minimization also happens locally at every channel 50 segment<sup>21</sup>. Numerous studies have been conducted using Equation (1) as the objective function, and 51 the resulting OCNs have shown to capture the key statistical characteristics of real channel networks, 52 suggesting the hypothesis is grounded well<sup>5,22,23</sup>.

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64 However, the OCN model sheds no light on the mechanisms behind the tendency of channel networks to become efficient. With simulation results from a process-based model accounting for erosion and 65 deposition, Paik and Kumar<sup>7</sup> concluded that landscape heterogeneity leads to the formation of tree-66 like channel networks, thereby minimizing energy. However, they did not quantify the role of 67 68 heterogeneity in channel network evolution. Moreover, they did not compare the energy expenditure 69 of their simulated networks with that of OCNs. In fact, no comprehensive study so far, to our 70 knowledge, has compared simulated networks with real networks in term of energy expenditure. In 71 this study, we propose a probabilistic network growth model and compare the energy expenditure of the simulated networks with that of real channel networks and with the networks obtained using 72 73 OCNet<sup>4,24</sup>, a well-known model for generating OCNs.

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75 The working of the model is given as follows. In each iteration, the proposed model assigns flow 76 direction to all the pixels within a given planar boundary through a step-by-step procedure (refer to 77 Methods). Each step involves selecting a pixel from those neighbouring the already evolved drainage 78 network, based on a probabilistic function.

(2)

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$$P_i \propto A_i^{\eta}$$

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82 where  $P_i$  is the probability of the pixel *i* being selected in the step and  $A_i$  is the drainage area of the 83 pixel. The flow direction for the pixel is assigned towards the neighbouring pixel of the already 84 evolved network with the highest drainage area. The detailed methodology is described in the 85 methods section.

87 A channel network evolves when the forces trying to change flow directions dominate the forces trying to preserve them. The parameter  $\eta$  is a numerical representation of the relative roles of these 88 89 forces. When  $\eta = 0$ , forces of change or randomness dominates everywhere, resulting in the generation of an Eden-type network configuration<sup>25,26</sup> in each iteration that possesses no memory of 90 the previous network configuration (Fig.1a). A positive  $\eta$  implies forces of change weakening with 91 92 drainage area (Equation 2), ensuring a relatively greater stability for higher order channels (Fig.1a-f). As  $\eta$  increases, forces of change weaken and a greater portion of the initial network is retained 93 (Fig.1g). The hierarchical reorganization of the drainage network is believed to occur through 94 95 mechanisms such as valley migration and stream capture<sup>27–29</sup>. Energy expenditure ( $\Delta E$ , expressed as % extra energy with respect to that given by OCNet) is observed to asymptotically decrease for any 96 97 positive  $\eta$  (Fig.1h), suggesting the possibility of the proposed model explaining quite well the 98 emergence of efficient channel networks in fluvial landscapes. The final, steady-state value of energy expenditure  $\Delta E_s$  ( $\Delta E$  after N = 100 here) decreases with  $\eta$ , with the emergence of the most efficient 99 network configuration at  $\eta = 0.5$ , after which  $\Delta E_s$  follows an increasing trend (Fig.1i). While the 100

101 initial Eden-type network configuration shows  $\Delta E_s$  approximately equal to 10%, the final network 102 configuration obtained with  $\eta = 0.5$  is as efficient as the OCNet (Fig.1i), supporting the notion that 103 energy minimization is merely a consequence of landscapes following a few thumb rules to evolve. 104



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106 Figure 1: Evolution of drainage networks according to the proposed model

107 A sample Eden-type network obtained with  $\eta = 0$  (a), which is allowed to evolve considering different  $\eta$  values: b) the 108 networks with  $\eta = 0.5$  for iteration N = 5 and c) for N = 100. The networks after N = 100 for  $\eta = 0.25,1$  and 2 109 respectively are shown in (d), (e) and (f). (g) Percentage of total pixels that didn't change during the 100<sup>th</sup> iteration vs. 110 drainage area percentile, indicating that pixels with higher drainage area are relatively more stable compared to pixels with 111 lower drainage area and that the stability increases with  $\eta$ . (h)  $\Delta E$  vs. N curves for different  $\eta$  values, which shows consistent 112 decrease of  $\Delta E$ , visible particularly for  $\eta > 0$ . The most efficient configuration is obtained for  $\eta = 0.5$  (i) Variation in  $\Delta E_s$ 113 for resulting networks with different  $\eta$ . Each datapoint is median  $\Delta E_s$  from an ensemble of 20 simulations

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The model's outcomes are influenced by its initial conditions. In an island resembling a square 115 116 pyramid with  $\Delta E = 70\%$ , where the flow from every pixel is directed toward the nearest border pixel, 117 the first iteration results in the formation of a network configuration with  $\Delta E$  very close to that of an 118 Eden-type network, irrespective of the value of  $\eta$ . This observation indicates a negligible role heterogeneity (represented by  $\eta$ , see Equation (2)) when branching has not formed yet. Fig.2 shows 119 120 network configurations obtained with the model using different initial network configurations. Network configurations with high initial  $\Delta E$  show a steep decrease of  $\Delta E$  with N (Fig.2a-h). On the 121 other hand, the network configuration obtained with OCNet as initial condition showed an increase of 122 123  $\Delta E$  (Fig.2i-1). For the network configuration obtained from OCNet (initial  $\Delta E = 0$ ),  $\Delta E$  first increased 124 and then continued to decrease to attain a steady state for  $\eta = 0.5$  (Fig.21). A possible explanation 125 could be that the organizations of the most efficient network configurations of the proposed model

and OCNet have certain different key properties. It also underlines the fact that the proposed model

127 works differently.

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Figure 2: Model with different initial conditions. (a), (e) and (i) show networks obtained from a probabilistic model<sup>14</sup>, Paik and Kumar's model<sup>7</sup> and OCNet<sup>24</sup> model, respectively, which are allowed to evolve using the proposed model. (b), (f) and (j) show resulting networks with  $\eta = 1$  from initial conditions corresponding to (a), (e), and (i), respectively, after N = 100. Similarly (c), (g) and (k) show resulting networks with  $\eta = 0.5$  and (d), (h) and (l) show the corresponding energy profiles.

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The  $\Delta E_s$  is independent of initial conditions for  $\eta \leq 0.5$  and the resulting network configurations are 135 quite indistinguishable (Fig.3). On the other hand, for values of  $\eta$  greater than 0.5, the evolved 136 137 network configurations share a lot of similarities with the initial configurations and the  $\Delta E_s$  is influenced greatly by the initial conditions (Fig.2). That is to say  $\eta = 0.5$  acts as a threshold, below 138 which heterogeneity determines  $\Delta E_s$ , and above which initial conditions influence  $\Delta E_s$ ; the degree of 139 this influence increases with  $\eta$ . The most efficient network configuration always appears when  $\eta =$ 140 0.5 with  $\Delta E_s$  quite close to that given by OCNet (Fig.3), implying that the proposed algorithm 141 provides a possible explanation for the emergence of efficient channel networks. Interestingly, the 142 143 assertion  $\eta = 0.5$  leading to OCN formation is true for any other  $\gamma$  (Equation.1) as long as its value 144 falls between 0 and 1, which indicates the robustness of the optimality hypothesis.

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Although the model does not explicitly take time into account,  $\Delta E$  of a landscape is expected to decrease with time before it reaches a steady state (Fig.1h). Thus, if a landscape is relatively young, it is expected to show high  $\Delta E$ . The island Hawaii, which is only about 0.5 million years old<sup>30</sup>, has  $\Delta E = 31.7\%$ . In comparison, the 5-million year old island Kauai<sup>30</sup> shows just 8.5%  $\Delta E$  (Fig.4a-b). Since both islands are located in the same geographical region and are expected to exhibit similar evolutionary trajectories, it is quite certain that Hawaii is at an early evolutionary stage. However, the nearly one billion year old Tasmania<sup>31</sup>, expected to exhibit an optimal channel configuration, shows

 $\Delta E = 9.8\%$  (Fig.4c). In fact, for none of the ten islands studied here  $\Delta E \approx 0$  (Table S1), which 153 154 suggests real landscapes may not be evolving with the intention of attaining a state of optimality, and thus the value of  $\eta$  cannot be simply assumed to be 0.5. This also means energy minimization is an 155 outcome of landscape evolution rather than the cause of landscape evolution<sup>6</sup>. The above observations 156 pose the challenge of predicting the future evolutionary trajectory of a landscape. What is the value of 157  $\eta$  we need to select for a landscape? For a given non-zero  $\Delta E_s$ , there are two possible values of  $\eta$ 158 (Fig.3). Geological and tectonic constraints are believed to be responsible for suboptimal network 159 configurations in real landscapes<sup>25</sup>, meaning  $\eta > 0.5$  condition is more likely. Future studies need to 160 focus on exploring all possibilities. 161





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**164** Figure 3: Steady-state (*N*=100)  $\Delta E_s$  vs.  $\eta$  from different initial conditions. When  $\eta \le 0.5$  (heterogeneity dominated

165 systems),  $\Delta E_s$  is independent of initial conditions, whereas initial condition has a profound influence on  $\Delta E_s$  when  $\eta > 0.5$ . 166 Note that each data point in the plot is median  $\Delta E_s$  from an ensemble of 20 simulations.

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  169 Figure 4: Energy Expenditure of real-world channel networks. (a), (c)&(e) shows real networks of Hawaii, Kauai and
  170 Tasmania Islands, respectively.
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172 The main discussion point of this study is the role of randomness, reflected in terms of landscape 173 heterogeneity, in the emergence of efficient channel networks. Although Paik and Kumar<sup>7</sup> also 174 recognized the role of randomness and observed increasing efficiency with evolution, the evolved 175 channel networks obtained by their model are not efficient (Fig.2e and Fig.2h). The difference is our 176 study sees a rather limited role of randomness as highlighted by the observation that channel networks 177 obtained with  $\eta < 0.5$  are not that efficient. This resonates quite well with the observation made by

Watts and Strogatz<sup>32</sup> that limited randomness is a 'necessary condition' for the emergence of small-178 179 world networks. Nevertheless, our study provides a much broader picture by revealing the hierarchical influence of randomness on the flow direction of a channel segment. The condition  $\eta = 0.5$  always 180 leads to the most efficient network configuration, even though the model does not employ an 181 optimization scheme. The model thus holds the potential to be used as an optimization algorithm for 182 183 practical problems concerning network optimization. While our analyses are restricted to river networks, the idea that specific adaptive rules representing basic physical processes give rise to 184 networks exhibiting tendency to minimize transportation efficiency may be applicable to other 185 physical and biological networks, such as vascular, root and respiratory networks<sup>2,33,34</sup> 186

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#### 188 Methods

189 The model is demonstrated using a  $250 \times 250$  planar matrix that represents a hypothetical landscape. The model can be applied to any loopless flow conditions. During each iteration, the model assigns 190 191 flow directions to all pixels by selecting one pixel at a time. The flow direction of a pixel can be 192 oriented toward any one of its eight adjacent pixels, and its drainage area is quantified by flow 193 accumulation, representing the total number of pixels flowing into it. All boundary pixels are considered as outlets. Initially, these outlet pixels are designated as "evolved pixels," while their 194 neighbouring pixels are termed "potential pixels." In each computational step, a pixel is selected from 195 the list of potential pixels using the power function (Equation.2). The chosen pixel is then assigned a 196 flow direction towards the adjacent evolved pixel with the highest flow accumulation. This is because 197 198 a pixel with higher flow accumulation would experience greater erosion, and thus would be at a lower 199 elevation compared to adjacent pixels. This selected potential pixel is now reclassified as "evolved 200 pixel" to evolved pixel and its neighbouring unevolved pixels are added to the list of potential pixels (Fig.S1). This process continues to assign flow directions to all the pixels. This constitutes as a single 201 iteration and the model performs this all over again for the next iteration. The resulting flow directions 202 203 of one iteration serve as input for the next iteration.

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The model demonstrates network evolution from different initial conditions. The network shown in Fig.2a was generated using a probabilistic model proposed by Borse and Biswal<sup>14</sup>. This model, implemented on a 250×250 grid, simulates the probabilistic headward growth of channel networks which is assumed to be proportional to the pixel's length to the outlet. The network shown in Fig 2e was generated using Paik and Kumar's model<sup>7</sup>, applied on a pyramidal-shaped 250×250 grid with parameter values similar to those mentioned in the study. This model simulates landscape evolution through mass balance processes and incorporates a randomly distributed surface resistance parameter.

To visualize these river networks, we have set the flow accumulation threshold at 50 for all cases. To 212 compare the energy expenditure of real islands with any model, we need same sized grids. We 213 obtained the island's digital elevation data from the SRTM 1 arc second global dataset and resampled 214 215 it to a smaller size comparable to the already used square matrix. This resampled DEM was used to delineate networks and calculate the energy expenditure (Fig.4). We executed the OCNet provided by 216 Carraro et.al.,<sup>24</sup> with default parameter settings to obtain OCN for the corresponding resampled grids. 217 The excess energy  $\Delta E$  for a particular network is calculated in reference to energy expenditure 218 (Equation.1 for  $\gamma = 0.5$ ) of OCN within the same boundary as  $\Delta E = \frac{E - E_{OCNet}}{E_{OCNet}} \times 100$ . 219

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228 229 230 231 232 233 233	<ul> <li>Author Contributions</li> <li>Author 1: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing</li> <li>Author 2: Ideation, Supervision, Formal analysis, Writing</li> <li>Declaration of Competing interests</li> <li>We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.</li> </ul>			
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## 311 Supplementary Information



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Figure S1: Model algorithm explained with a sample example with pyramid-like initial flow 313 314 conditions (a). At the start of the iteration, outlets are "Evolved pixels" and neighboring to them are "Potential pixels." In each step, a potential pixel would be chosen with probability obtained using 315 equation 2. Let's assume the pixel highlighted in red is selected in the first step (a), then it would be 316 317 assigned flow direction towards the neighboring evolved pixel with the highest flow accumulation 318 value. Thus, its updated flow direction would be toward northwest. After this, the flow accumulation 319 values for corresponding pixels would be updated, and the three neighboring unevolved pixels would 320 be reclassified as potential pixels. An intermediate step in the computation would look like (b), with a sample chosen potential pixel highlighted. The assignment of drainage direction for this highlighted 321 potential pixel is shown in (c). Once all pixels are assigned, the iteration is over. The same process can 322 323 be followed all over again for the next iteration as shown in (d). Note that the model can be simulated with any other initial loopless flow conditions. 324

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Sl. no.	Island	Location	<i>∆E</i> (%)
1	Barbados	Atlantic Ocean	11.4
2	Cyprus	Mediterranean Sea	13.1
3	Grenada	Caribbean Sea	5.6
4	Hawaii (the big island)	Pacific Ocean	29.14
5	Jeju	Yellow Sea	13.6
6	Kauai	Pacific Ocean	6.41
7	Mauritius	Indian Ocean	18.03
8	Cape Verde	Atlantic Ocean	12.92
9	Reunion	Indian Ocean	26.31
10	Tasmania	South Pacific Ocean	9.92

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**328** Table S1:  $\Delta E$  (%) calculated for the different islands.