Land Reclamation Controls on Multi-Centennial Estuarine Evolution

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Abstract

Land reclamations influence the morphodynamic evolution of estuaries and tidal basins, because altered planform changes tidal dynamics and associated residual sediment transport. The morphodynamic response time to land reclamation is long, impacting the system for decades to centuries. Other human interventions (e.g., deepening of fairways or port construction) add a morphodynamic adaptation timescale to a system that may still adapt as the result of land reclamations. Our understanding of the cumulative effects of anthropogenic interference with estuaries is limited, because observations usually do not cover the complete morphological adaptation period. We aim to assess the impact of land reclamation works and other human interventions on an estuarine system by means of digital reconstructions of historical morphologies of the Ems Estuary over the past 500 years. Our analysis demonstrates that the intertidal-subtidal area ratio altered due to land reclamation works and that the ratio partly restored after land reclamation ended. The land reclamation works have led to the degeneration of an ebb- and flood channel system, transitioning the estuary from a multichannel to a single-channel system. We infer that the 20th-century intensification of channel dredging and re-alignment works accelerated rather than cause this development. The centennial-scale observations suggest that estuarine systems responding to land reclamations follow the evolutionary trajectory predicted by tidal asymmetry-based stability theory as they move towards a new equilibrium configuration with modified tidal flats and channels. Existing estuarine equilibrium theory, however, fails in linking multichannel stability to the loss of intertidal area, emphasizing the need for additional research.



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Key Points:

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9	•	Land reclamation in the Ems estuary has led to progressive subtidal infilling and
10		degeneration of separated ebb-flood channels
11	•	Loss of intertidal areas distorts the estuary-scale channel-flat configuration, which
12		is partly restored by subtidal infilling

Tidal asymmetry-based equilibrium theory can predict the evolutionary trajec tory of real-world estuaries responding to land reclamation

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15 Abstract

Land reclamations influence the morphodynamic evolution of estuaries and tidal basins, 16 because altered planform changes tidal dynamics and associated residual sediment trans-17 port. The morphodynamic response time to land reclamation is long, impacting the sys-18 tem for decades to centuries. Other human interventions (e.g., deepening of fairways or 19 port construction) add a morphodynamic adaptation timescale to a system that may still 20 adapt as the result of land reclamations. Our understanding of the cumulative effects 21 of anthropogenic interference with estuaries is limited, because observations usually do 22 not cover the complete morphological adaptation period. We aim to assess the impact 23 of land reclamation works and other human interventions on an estuarine system by means 24 of digital reconstructions of historical morphologies of the Ems Estuary over the past 500 25 years. Our analysis demonstrates that the intertidal-subtidal area ratio altered due to 26 land reclamation works and that the ratio partly restored after land reclamation ended. 27 The land reclamation works have led to the degeneration of an ebb- and flood channel 28 system, transitioning the estuary from a multichannel to a single-channel system. We 29 infer that the 20th-century intensification of channel dredging and re-alignment works 30 accelerated rather than cause this development. The centennial-scale observations sug-31 gest that estuarine systems responding to land reclamations follow the evolutionary tra-32 jectory predicted by tidal asymmetry-based stability theory as they move towards a new 33 equilibrium configuration with modified tidal flats and channels. Existing estuarine equi-34 librium theory, however, fails in linking multichannel stability to the loss of intertidal 35 area, emphasizing the need for additional research. 36

37 Plain Language Summary

Reclaiming land along the margins of estuaries and tidal basins leads to loss of in-38 tertidal areas. The response of the remaining underwater landscape to the loss of inter-39 tidal areas takes decades to centuries. This impacts the patterns, dimensions, and func-40 tionalities of the channels and tidal flats. Observations are usually not available for such 41 a long period, limiting our capacity to study the impact of land reclamation. Here, we 42 overcome this limitation by reconstructing the landscape adaptation in the Ems estu-43 ary since land reclamation accelerated in the beginning of the 16th century, when storms 44 reshaped the estuary. Historical and recent topo-geographical sources were used to re-45 construct the centennial-scale developments of the tidal channels and tidal flats. Results 46 show that, after reclamation works stopped, the tidal flats reduced in area and the tidal 47 channels filled up. The tidal channel patterns and dimensions permanently changed, im-48 pacting, for example, shipping waterways. Further research should address the link be-49 tween changes in intertidal areas and channel dynamics because we currently lack such 50 a comprehensive understanding. This hampers our ability to predict the effects of fu-51 ture anticipated tidal flat changes, as a result of, for example, sea level rise or tidal flat 52 restoration works. 53

54 **1** Introduction

Estuaries and tidal basins are biodiverse coastal landscapes that are often intensely 55 used by humans, offering services such as navigation routes, fisheries, and protection against 56 flooding. These services are provided by estuarine morphology because the channel-flat 57 pattern and geometry (hypsometry) determine hydrological connectivity (Hiatt & Pas-58 salacqua, 2015), ecological connectivity (Olds et al., 2017), and influences future mor-59 phodynamic evolution because of the link with tidal asymmetry and residual sediment 60 transport (Dronkers, 1986; Z. Wang et al., 1999). Large-scale human alteration of estu-61 62 arine planform and channel dimensions influences tidal dynamics, sediment transport, and ultimately the basin's long-term evolution. Engineering works and construction of 63 embankments restrain intertidal dynamics. This process of "coastal squeeze" affects the 64 accommodation space available for dynamic adaptation to sea level rise (Borchert et al., 65 2018). Understanding and predicting the combined impact of global climate change and 66 anthropogenic pressure requires grasping the complex interaction between the tidal chan-67 nels and the adjacent intertidal areas (Z. B. Wang et al., 2015; Hoitink et al., 2020). 68

Tidal channels dynamically interact with tidal flats and associated salt marshes. 69 Tidal flat development influences tidal propagation characteristics (Dronkers, 1986) and 70 channel mobility (Kleinhans et al., 2022), which in turn affect the channel dynamics and 71 the system-scale morphodynamic development (A. Hibma et al., 2004; van der Wegen 72 et al., 2008; Braat et al., 2017; Leuven & Kleinhans, 2019). Important hydrodynamic 73 mechanisms linked to the tidal flats are the temporal storage of mass and dissipation of 74 momentum (Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; Alebregtse, 2015; Zhou et al., 2018). Both in-75 fluence tidal propagation, leading to asymmetric sea surface elevations and velocity dis-76 tribution (e.g., Friedrichs, 2010). An asymmetric tidal motion drives a net sediment trans-77 port flux (Groen, 1967; Van de Kreeke & Robaczewska, 1993), while the long-term, resid-78 ual transport determines morphological evolution (Dronkers, 1986). Large-scale changes 79 in the channel-flat configuration therefore disrupt the net sediment transport magnitudes 80 and directions (import versus export) and steer the morphodynamic evolution of an es-81 tuary or tidal basin (Van Der Wegen, 2013; Guo, Zhu, et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2020). 82

In many tidal systems worldwide, the loss of intertidal area due to land reclama-83 tion and channel deepening due to dredging have been the major anthropogenic inter-84 ferences over the past and present century (Talke & Jay, 2020). The construction of em-85 bankments (artificial levees) for flood protection and land reclamation purposes effec-86 tively alters the tidal regime, because the basins' geometry (i.e.; depth, width, length) 87 is essentially changed (Talke & Jay, 2020). Tidal flat loss reduces the embayments' in-88 tertidal storage volume, decreasing the tidal prism and enhancing flood dominance (Speer 89 & Aubrey, 1985). An increased sediment import will lead to basin infilling, which will 90 continue until the channel geometry has re-established to new equilibrium conditions, 91 in which the sediment transport capacity can maintain the new channel-flat configura-92 tion (Dronkers, 2016). Tidal-asymmetry based equilibrium theory can be useful to as-93 sess the evolutionary trajectory of an estuarine system responding to land reclamations 94 (Zhou et al., 2018). 95

The morphodynamic response to large-scale interventions, such as tidal flat recla-96 mation is, however, often slow and manifests itself on longer time-scales (Guo, Zhu, et 97 al., 2022). The response time depends on the magnitude of the intervention, the size of 98 the system, and the sediment transport rates, and may typically be several decades or 99 more (van Maren, Colina Alonso, et al., 2023). Various concurrent human interventions 100 (reclamation, deepening, construction of hydraulic works) may impact a system. It is 101 102 difficult to isolate the impact of a single intervention because each intervention adds a morphodynamic adaptation timescale to a system that may still adapt as the result of 103 previous interventions. As a result, multiple interventions may interactively impact the 104 system within the morphodynamic adaptation time, possibly exacerbating or acceler-105 ating the system's response to the principle intervention (Z. B. Wang et al., 2015). 106

Land reclamation and channel deepening may influence system-scale sediment bud-107 gets (Guo, Xie, et al., 2022; Donatelli et al., 2018), initiate a transition to hyper-concentrated 108 flow conditions (Winterwerp et al., 2013; Van Maren, Winterwerp, & Vroom, 2015; Van Maren 109 et al., 2016), and influence channel migration and avulsion (Dai et al., 2016). In the Ganges-110 Brahmaputra-Meghna (GBM) mega delta, for example, large-scale land reclamation (>5000 111 km^2) in the 60's and 70's of the 20th century has led to a significant change in the hydro-sedimentary 112 regime, drastically increasing flood risk (Auerbach et al., 2015), persistent infilling of the 113 tidal channels (Wilson et al., 2017), and, as a result, a reorganization of the tidal chan-114 nel network (Bain et al., 2019; van Maren, Beemster, et al., 2023). Such large-scale hu-115 man interventions may thus impact delta system functioning for decades to centuries through 116 non-linear feedback loops, exceedance of thresholds, and time-lags (Liu et al., 2007; Coco 117 et al., 2013). The observed and widely varying impact of land reclamation can not be 118 predicted on the basis of estuarine equilibrium theory. To date, it remains unclear to what 119 extent these developments are driven by land reclamations or other human interference. 120 Based on long-term observations that span the time of morphological adaptation to tidal 121 flat reclamations, here we explore if the evolution of real-world tidal systems agrees with 122 the theoretical frameworks describing the evolutionary trajectory towards morpholog-123 ical equilibrium. 124

The aim of this paper is to understand how loss of intertidal area by land recla-125 mations influences estuarine morphodynamic development. We focus on the Ems estu-126 ary, located on the border between the Netherlands and Germany and part of the Wad-127 den Sea tidal lagoon, which represents a heavily human-modified tidal system. The most 128 important anthropogenic pressures in the Ems include large-scale tidal flat reclamation 129 of storm-surge formed embayments, which started in the beginning of the 16th century. 130 This was followed by fairway re-alignment, deepening, and maintenance dredging since 131 the 20th century (Van Maren et al., 2016). First, we reconstruct the land reclamation 132 history (Section 3.1). Second, we reconstruct and analyze the historical and contempo-133 rary development of the estuarine channels and tidal flats over the past 500 years (Sec-134 tion 3.2). A multichannel system with distinct ebb- and flood channels (Van Veen et al., 135 2005) in the estuary has degenerated into a single channel in the 20^{th} century (Gerritsen, 136 1952), which is still poorly understood. Two hypotheses exist explaining these channel 137 pattern changes: (1) channel system instability due to fairway deepening and related sed-138 iment disposal (Van Veen et al., 2005; Van Veen, 1950), and (2) tidal prism decrease as 139 a result of intertidal storage loss due to land reclamation (Gerritsen, 1952). We discuss 140 the controls of land reclamation versus channel deepening on the observed channel pat-141 tern changes and interpret these findings using tidal asymmetry-based estuarine equi-142 librium relationships (Section 4). 143

¹⁴⁴ 2 Material and Methods

Reclaimed land surface area was reconstructed from several data sources described 145 below, and archived in Schrijvershof (2024). The main sources for the reconstructions 146 on the Dutch shore of the Ems estuary are geospatial datasets with the location of his-147 torical embankments¹ and the National Historical Culture registry². This information 148 was supplemented with information from maps presented by Knottnerus (2013a) and Van Maren 149 et al. (2016), to determine the year in which a reclamation was completed. Digital el-150 evation models (DEMs) of the surface topography, aerial imagery (allotment pattern), 151 and palaeogeographical reconstructions (P. C. Vos & Knol, 2015, 2013) were used to de-152 tail the maximum extent of storm-surge-formed bays, to include the oldest (poorly-documented) 153

¹ https://geoportaal.provinciegroningen.nl/portal/apps/experiencebuilder/experience/ ?id=9e93c75c4e5e47a584829e1deb0ad5f6

² https://nationaalgeoregister.nl/geonetwork/srv/dut/catalog.search#/metadata/9a9cef3a-2dfc-4aa8-b248-f73f4064d7ad

reclaimed lands. The maximum extent of the Dollard Bay, in particular, increased through 154 this approach, leading to a reclamation reconstruction that largely agrees with the map 155 presented by Knottnerus (2013a). The reclamation history on the German part of the 156 Ems estuary is digitized from maps presented by Homeier (1962) and Homeier et al. $(1969)^3$. 157 The reclamation history of Sielmönken bay could not be reconstructed but the approx-158 imate maximum extent of the embayment is derived from DEMs and aerial imagery. The 159 lands reclaimed along the tidal river (landwards of the port of Emden) are not included 160 in the land reclamation database (Schrijvershof, 2024) because the focus of this paper 161 is on the mouth and transitional regions of the Ems estuary. 162

The morphological evolution of the Ems estuary is reconstructed for the period with 163 intense anthropogenic interventions since the 16th century. A unique long-term record 164 of geospatial datasets is compiled that almost completely covers this time-period (Ta-165 ble 1). The datasets were collected from published literature (Lang, 1954; Homeier, 1962; 166 Gerritsen, 1952; Stratingh & Venema, 1855), published data sources (H. Pierik, 2019; 167 Sievers et al., 2021), or collected from national archives, and were provided in digitized 168 format (Herrling & Niemeyer, 2007, 2008; De Jong, 2006) or, otherwise, digitized using 169 GIS software. The recent gridded topo-bathymetrical datasets (1985-2020) are publicly 170 available at Rijkswaterstaat⁴ and WSA Emden⁵. The datasets can be divided in three 171 categories: (1) historical reconstructions of channel and tidal flat planform, based on a 172 large variety of written and illustrated sources, but interpreted and compiled in the 20^{th} 173 century, (2) digitized nautical charts originally collected in hydrographic surveys for mil-174 itary and water way organizations, and (3) recent (1937, 1985-2020) full coverage dig-175 ital elevation models (DEM) collected through (echo) sounding observations. All geospa-176 tial datasets were provided or converted in a digitized format (Table 1) and published 177 with this paper (Schrijvershof, 2024). The three types of datasets provide different kind 178 of geospatial information. The historical reconstructions only reveal the geographical lo-179 cation of the Mean Low Water line (MLW), Mean High Water line (MHW) and fixed 180 bank lines; the nautical charts provide a DEM of the subtidal (below MLW) domain; and 181 the recent sounding observations provide a full DEM of the subtidal, intertidal and suprati-182 dal domain. Contour lines of MLW and MHW are derived from the recent DEMs using 183 an along-estuary averaged value for MLW (NAP -1.50 m) and MHW (NAP +1.30 NAP), 184 following Arcadis (2011). The spatial extent of the geospatial datasets varies and do not 185 all cover the full extent of the estuary. Datasets with incomplete coverage are not used 186 for all analyses. The accuracy and precision of the geospatial information are lower for 187 older datasets than for more recent datasets. The historical reconstructions of pre-19th-188 century morphology (made in the 20th century), in particular, are constructed with con-189 siderable interpretation of the original authors who drafted the maps. The inaccuracies 190 of older maps therefore introduce uncertainty in the metrics we develop as part of our 191 morphological analysis. We minimize the impact of such uncertainties by collecting data 192 from multiple sources and authors, and by focusing on morphological trends based on 193 a wide range of independent datasets. 194

We identify and quantify the main morphological changes in the estuary over the past 500 years. Subtidal surface area (A_c) and intertidal surface area (A_s) are derived from enclosed areas formed by MLW, MHW, and fixed bank lines. These surface area metrics are, due to data availability, quantified for a region that includes the Dollard Bay and the central estuary, but excludes the mouth zone with the tidal inlets (see Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). Channel geometry metrics (area, depth, volume) are

³ https://www.nlwkn.niedersachsen.de/startseite/hochwasser_kustenschutz/kustenschutz/ ausgewahlte_projekte/kustenschutz_projekt_leybucht/kuestenschutz-projekt-leybucht-43552.html

⁴ https://www.rijkswaterstaat.nl/formulieren/contactformulier-servicedesk-data

⁵ https://www.wsa-ems-nordsee.wsv.de/Webs/WSA/Ems-Nordsee/DE/00_Startseite/startseite_node.html

derived as spatial mean values for areas defined in the outer, central, and inner estuary and along a defined cross-section covering the central-estuary channels (Figure 1).

Contextual background information on the historic landscape developments and 203 the most important human-landscape interactions in the Ems estuary is provided in Sup-204 porting Information S1. Palaeogeopgraphical reconstructions, presented by P. Vos et al. 205 (2020); P. C. Vos and Knol (2015, 2013), were modified to show and describe the inher-206 ited geological setting and Holocene evolution of the Ems estuary region (Section S1.1 207 in Supporting Information S1). The historic evolution is particularly relevant to under-208 stand the formation of the storm surge-formed embayments that were reclaimed (Sec-209 tion S1.2 in Supporting Information S1). The 20^{th} -century human-landscape interactions, 210 particularly relevant for the recent observed morphological developments, include chan-211 nel dredging, port construction, and channel-realignments. An overview of these anthro-212 pogenic works is presented in Section S1.3 in Supporting Information S1. 213

214 **3 Results**

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3.1 Land reclamation reconstruction

In the Ems estuary region land reclamation works started probably in the 11th cen-216 tury (Homeier et al., 1969; Behre, 1999). The former "Sielmönken bay" (Figure 1), a for-217 mer sea ingression that reached its largest extent between 800 and 950 A.D., was already 218 completely reclaimed in the 13th century. The Fivel bay (Figure 1) started to silt-up prior 219 to human settlement because outflow of the Fivel river was hampered by expanding shore 220 ridges (P. Vos & van Kesteren, 2000). The process was accelerated because, from the 12th 221 century onwards, embankments were constructed and the flow from the Fivel river was 222 redirected to artificial tidal shipping canals (Knottnerus, 2013b). Reclamation of the Fivel 223 bay continued untill the 15th century, after which the seaward shoreline extension con-224 tinued in the 19th century with improved reclamation techniques. The most recent coastal 225 reclamation was the construction of a large seaport in the 1970's. The Ley bay reclama-226 tions started in the 15th century and continued until the 20th century (Figure 1). The 227 Dollard bay reclamations are the largest reclamation works in the estuary (Figure 1), 228 starting at the beginning of the 16th century (Figure 1) and continuing far into the 20th 229 century. The land surface elevations of the Dollard reclamations clearly show the decrease 230 in land surface level with reclamation age (Figure 1), because older reclaimed areas sub-231 sided more due to peat oxidation and compaction. The Dollard bay was never completely 232 reclaimed ($\approx 20\%$ remained) and is nowadays highly valued and protected as a unique 233 tidal flat and salt marsh landscape. Reclamations near the port city of Emden were ex-234 ecuted to relocate the city harbor towards the river (Figure 1), after it lost its access due 235 to a meander bend cut-off (see Section S1.2 in Supporting Information S1). In an effort 236 to narrow and deepen the Emden access fairway, the tidal flats west of Emden were re-237 claimed as well. The most recent reclaimed land in the inland part of the estuary is the 238 construction of the "Rysumer Nacken" (Figure 1). The 1933 completion of a bended lon-239 gitudinal training dam, constructed to redirect the navigational channel⁶, was followed-240 up by landfill deposits on the sheltered tidal flats with dredged material⁷. 241

The total cumulative amount of land surface reclaimed in the region of the Ems estuary since the start of reclamation works (12^{th} century) is approximately 700 km² (Figure 2). The Dollard Bay reclamations constitute half ($\approx 360 \text{ km}^2$) of the total reclaimed land. The reclamation rate in Dollard Bay decreased halfway through the 19th century, while the Fivel Bay and Ley Bay reclamations accelerated slightly around this time. Including all reclamation regions, there has been a continuous reclamation rate of ≈ 100

⁶ https://delibra.bg.polsl.pl/Content/22564/heft53_54.pdf

⁷ https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rysumer_Nacken

²⁴⁸ km² per century since the Dollard reclamations started in the beginning of the 16th cen-²⁴⁹ tury. The extent of the Ems estuary was largest after the formation of Dollard Bay in ²⁵⁰ 1509 (\approx 1750 km²) and decreased due to the land reclamation works to a present-day size ²⁵¹ of \approx 1200 km². The reclamation works reshaped the estuary outline and decreased $\approx \frac{1}{3}$ ²⁵² of the total basin extent. The Dollard Bay reclamations make up 65% of this reduction.

3.2 Morphological reconstruction

Channel-flat configuration

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The 16th-century morphology consisted of multiple tidal channels and tidal flats 255 consisting of fringing flats and mid-channel bars, or shoals (Figure 3a). A double inlet 256 system flanking the barrier island Borkum, connected the estuary and the North Sea. 257 The two inlets had approximate equal planform sizes, yet the western inlet was more ef-258 ficiently connected to the central-estuary (see Figure 1 for demarcation) channels. The 259 eastern inlet also drained the tidal volume of the Ley Bay, most of which was not yet 260 reclaimed in the 16th century (Figure 1). The central part of the estuary is bisected by 261 a western and an eastern channel, hereafter referred to as the western channel and east-262 ern channel. In the 16th-century the western channel dominates over the eastern chan-263 nel and connects via a meander bend to the western inlet in the outer estuary. In the 264 18^{th} century (Figure 3b) the orientation of the channel connecting the eastern tidal in-265 let with the central-estuary channels changes while shrinking in size. A mid-channel shoal 266 develops in the outer estuary western inlet. The central-estuary shoal complex migrates 267 westward, resulting in an increase of the size of the eastern channel at the expense of the 268 western channel. Despite this, the western channel remains to be the main channel. Sub-269 tidal bathymetries, available from the start of the 19th century (Figure 3c, Figure S5 in 270 Supporting Information S1), reveal the depths of the main estuarine channels. The main 271 channel route starts from the western inlet via the western channel into Dollard Bay. The 272 sinusoidal meandering pattern with mid-channel shoals confirms the multichannel ebb-273 flood pattern reported by Van Veen (1950) and Gerritsen (1952). 274

The connection of the eastern inlet to the central-estuary channels degenerated from 275 a well-connected channel in the 16th century into a tidal divide in the 18th century to 276 beginning of the 19th century (see Figure 3b, c). The main tidal channels are filling in 277 with sediments in the 20th century (compare Figure 3c with d and e) while degenera-278 tion of the former connection with the eastern tidal inlet progresses until it is completely 279 disconnected in the 21th century (Figure 3f). The tidal shoal complex in the central-estuary 280 zone becomes larger and migrates further westward. At the same time, the western chan-281 nel degenerates (becoming shallower and narrower) while the eastern channel deepens 282 and widens. During the 20th century, the meander bend connecting the outer estuary 283 channels with the central-estuary channels (see Figure 1) is straightened, resulting in a 284 reduction of channel sinuosity (H. J. Pierik et al., 2022). The southern section of the central-285 estuary eastern channel moves westward (Figure 3d), presumably forced by the construc-286 tion of a longitudinal training wall (Figure 1). The present-day situation shows that the 287 western channel has now degenerated into a minor channel (Figure 3f). 288

The land reclamation works and the channel and tidal flat pattern developments 289 illustrated in Figure 3 influence the areas occupied by tidal channels (A_c) and tidal flats 290 (A_s) . Up to the end of the 19th century, A_s decreased (Figure 4), which is a result of land 291 reclamation in Dollard Bay (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). Since the begin-292 ning of the 20th century the tidal flat surface area gradually increased because of expan-293 sion of the central-estuary shoal complex, and degeneration of the eastern inlet connec-294 tion to the central-estuary channels (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). A_c is more 295 variable over the reconstructed time period but shows, in general, a decreasing trend. 296 This decrease is due to the loss of tidal channels in the progressively reclaimed Dollard 297 Bay (up till the 20th century), and the central-estuary channel transition from a dou-298

²⁹⁹ ble to single channel system. The estuary-scale A_s/A_c ratio decreases up to the begin-³⁰⁰ ning of the 20th century, and since then increases again (Figure 4). The decrease in A_s/A_c ³⁰¹ is mostly attributed to a loss in A_s (due to land reclamations works) whereas the increase ³⁰² in A_s/A_c is mostly attributed to a loss of subtidal area A_c (resulting from subtidal in-³⁰³ filling).

Channel dimensions

Metrics of channel geometry, derived since the first available subtidal bathymetry 305 in 1833 show that in the period 1833 - 1900 the total central-estuary channel area de-306 creased (Figure 5a). The channels became shallower (Figure 5b), and as a combined re-307 sult, the channel volume decreased (Figure 5c). After 1900, the subtidal area further de-308 creased (Figure 5a and Figure 4). The remaining single channel, however, deepened (Fig-309 ure 5b) and, as a result, the subtidal volume of the central-estuary channels remained 310 mostly constant during the 20^{th} century (Figure 5c). This deepening is partly natural, 311 but since the 1970's deepening accelerated by increasing maintenance dredging for nav-312 igation purposes (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). In the inner estuary, the 313 subtidal volume has been nearly constant since 1888, because a decrease of subtidal area 314 was compensated for by an increase in channel depth (Figure 5b). The subtidal volume 315 of the outer estuary inlet increased (Figure 5c) and expanded (Figure 5a), presumably 316 because the western inlet accommodated the tidal volume exchange of the disconnected 317 eastern inlet. The depth of the outer estuary western inlet first decreased and later in-318 creased, which may be the result of the dynamic character of the inlets, influenced by 319 tidal discharge, and wave-driven along-shore (eastwards) sediment transport. 320

Cross-sectional geometry metrics (see Figure 1 for the location of cross-section A-321 A') show that the width (W_{cs}) of the central-estuary channels (Figure 6a) has been chang-322 ing very consistently since the oldest available historical reconstruction from 1580. The 323 western channel width decreased steadily with $\approx 300-400$ m/century up to 1900, after which 324 the channel width abruptly narrowed. In the past decades the rate of change decreased 325 again, but channel width continues to decrease up till present. The eastern channel width 326 steadily increased with ≈ 250 m/century over the reconstructed period. The cross-sectional 327 deepest point (Figure 6b) and cross-sectional area (Figure 6c) both show consistent trends 328 of channel shoaling in the western channel and channel deepening in the eastern chan-329 nel since the beginning of the 19th century. The change in the deepest point in the cross-330 section appears, similarly to channel width, to accelerate in the 20th century. 331

332 4 Discussion

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4.1 Adaptation timescales to land reclamation

The centennial-scale morphological reconstructions of the Ems estuary show that 334 since the beginning of the land reclamation works in the 16th century the morphology 335 of the estuary has been changing. The loss of estuarine tidal flats resulted in pronounced 336 infilling of tidal channels. The channels and tidal flats in the central area and Dollard 337 Bay clearly show this morphological response, despite 20th-century intensified channel 338 dredging favoring an increase in subtidal volume. The channel and tidal flat adaptation 339 demonstrates that the response time of estuaries to large-scale $(\frac{1}{3}$ of basin extent) and 340 continued land reclamation is in the order of centuries. This response time to human in-341 terventions depends on the processes driving the change, the size of the system, and the 342 magnitude of the intervention (van Maren, Colina Alonso, et al., 2023) as well as accom-343 modation space and sediment supply (Beets et al., 1992). 344

Intertidal storage volume decreased due to the reclamation of tidal flats. The de crease will lead to a smaller tidal prism conveyed through the tidal channels (Speer &
 Aubrey, 1985; Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988), and channel infilling because the channel di-

mensions correspond to a pre-reclamation tidal volume exchange (Dronkers, 2016). In 348 short tidal basins, the basin geometry change (Dronkers, 1986; Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; 349 Ridderinkhof et al., 2014) and a reduction in friction (Fortunato & Oliveira, 2005) in-350 crease tidal asymmetry-driven import of sediment. In the Ems estuary, the main source 351 of sediment is of marine origin (the Wadden Sea and/or North Sea), and the sediment 352 load carried by the Ems river is small (Van Maren, van Kessel, et al., 2015). With abun-353 dant supply of sand from the adjacent shallow sandy seabed (van der Molen & de Swart, 354 2001) and of mud supplied by the nearby Meuse and Rhine rivers, the tidal embayments 355 along the Dutch coast filled up rapidly during the Holocene (van der Spek, 1994; de Haas 356 et al., 2018). Despite the abundant sediment supply, the Ems Estuary required centuries 357 to adapt to human interventions. 358

Globally, dredging activities have accelerated in the past century (Talke & Jay, 2020). 359 The hydro-morphodynamic conditions of estuaries and tidal basins in the pre-dredged 360 era are often taken as a reference to study the impact of channel deepening (Ralston et 361 al., 2019; Bao et al., 2022; Siemes et al., 2023), maintenance dredging and disposal (Vellinga 362 et al., 2014; Jeuken & Wang, 2010; van Dijk et al., 2021), or a combination (Van Maren, 363 van Kessel, et al., 2015). Our results demonstrate that estuaries along which land was 364 reclaimed are unlikely to be in morphological equilibrium. Pre-19th-century land recla-365 mation may still impact the present-day morphodynamic evolution, which needs to be 366 taken into account when differentiating between natural controls and recent human mod-367 ifications (Monge-Ganuzas et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2019). The morpho-368 dynamic impact of future newly proposed interventions (e.g., Cox et al., 2006; Weisscher 369 et al., 2022) should carefully embed the lagging effects of a still adapting morphology. 370

371

4.2 Tidal asymmetry and system resilience

The loss of intertidal area due to tidal flat reclamation distorts the estuary-scale configuration of channels and tidal flats, which is quantified with a ratio A_s/A_c . Land reclamations resulted in a decrease in A_s/A_c over several centuries, but the ratio increases again after 1937 (Figure 4). The reason for this change is stabilization of the tidal flat area (no more reclamations) while the subtidal area continued to decrease due to infilling in response to a smaller tidal prism. The reconstructed channel-flat ratio in the Ems estuary provides a unique long-term record, which allows testing stability theory.

Tidal inlet stability theory typically relates a metric for residual sediment trans-379 port (the type and degree of tidal asymmetry) to a metric representing the relative im-380 portance of flow over flats and channels. The type of tidal asymmetry is the result of a 381 competition between frictional interaction between the tide and the channel bed (cap-382 tured in the tidal amplitude over channel depth ratio, a/h and the relative intertidal 383 water storage capacity (captured in the intertidal volume over channel volume ratio, V_s/V_c) 384 (e.g., Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; Z. Wang et al., 1999; Dronkers, 2016). Various types 385 of tidal asymmetry-based stability relationships have been developed, which are quite 386 consistent, as demonstrated by Zhou et al. (2018). Comparisons between the stability 387 relationships and field-based conditions of real-world systems (Dronkers, 2016; Zhou et 388 al., 2018), however, shows considerable discrepancy. The discrepancy is due to the as-389 sumptions that inevitably have to be made to facilitate the analytical solutions (for ex-390 ample, simplifications of the cross-sectional geometry) and uncertainties in real-world 391 observations (Zhou et al., 2018). 392

To apply existing equilibrium realtionships to the Ems Estuary, the subtidal and intertidal surface areas are converted to subtidal and intertidal volumes, following Zhou et al. (2018) and assuming a rectangular cross-sectional geometry:

$$V_s = 2a(S_{HW} - S_{LW}) \tag{1}$$

396

$$V_c = h(S_{LW}) \tag{2}$$

Here, S_{HW} and S_{LW} are the surface area at high water and low water, respectively. 397 The surface area at low water is equal to the reconstructed subtidal area $(S_{LW} = A_s)$ 398 and the surface area at high water results from addition of the subtidal and intertidal 399 areas $(S_{HW} = A_s + A_c)$. The parameter a is the tidal amplitude at the mouth of the 400 estuary (equal to 1.2 m; see Herrling and Niemeyer (2007)) and assumed constant for 401 the reconstructed period (H. J. Pierik et al., 2022). The mean water depth h is taken 402 as the average channel depth (following Zhou et al. (2018)), and can only be computed 403 since the availability of subtidal DEMs (beginning of the 19th century). Linear interpo-404 lation and extrapolation provide the values of h at the moments the channel-flat con-405 figuration is known (Figure 4). The evolutionary trajectory of the reconstructed Ems 406 estuary (Figure 7) in the stability diagram shows that up till the beginning of the 20^{th} 407 century, the system evolved towards a more flood dominant regime (increasing a/h), but 408 became more ebb dominant since then (decreasing a/h and increasing V_s/V_c). Such an evolutionary trajectory from an increasingly flood dominant system to ebb-dominant con-410 ditions agrees with the theoretical trajectory of an estuarine system responding to land 411 reclamation (Dronkers, 2016). The agreement between the observed and theoretical tra-412 jectories suggests a certain resilience of the morphodynamic system, because there is sys-413 tem tendency towards a morphodynamic equilibrium state. A delta system is defined 414 as resilient when it has the capacity to recover from an extreme forcing at one of its bound-415 aries and is largely self-sustaining (i.e., not in need of high maintenance) (Hoitink et al., 416 2020). In this case, the anthropologically disturbed channel-flat configuration is the forc-417 ing and the morphodynamic system response through tidal asymmetry-driven import 418 of sediment restores this configuration. 419

420

4.3 Controls on channel-flat dynamics

The channel-flat pattern in the Ems estuary transitioned from a double-inlet mul-421 tichannel system with mutually evasive ebb- and flood channels separated by shoals, to-422 wards a channel system consisting of a single inlet with a main channel and less pronounced 423 ebb- and flood channels. The degeneration of the connection with the eastern Ems in-424 let and the central-estuary channel system change are the most pronounced channel pat-425 tern developments. These channel dynamics can be observed since the 16th century (Fig-426 ure 3) untill present, indicating a permanent channel pattern change with no tendency 427 of re-establishment of the multi-channel system. Considering that these developments 428 started in the 16th century, the loss of the characteristic multichannel pattern is not caused 429 by channel re-alignment and dredging works in the 19th and 20th centuries (Van Veen, 430 1950; Van Veen et al., 2005). The past decadal developments of channel geometry do show 431 a clear signature of dredging activity (Figure 5, Figure 6) but these changes are super-432 imposed on the long-term system-scale response to the loss of intertidal areas (Figure 433 4, Figure 7). The most likely trigger for the channel pattern change is thus the loss of 434 intertidal areas landward of the central-estuary channels and the resulting decrease of 435 the tidal volume exchange (Gerritsen, 1952), predominantly caused by reclamation of 436 Dollard Bay. 437

The loss of a naturally stable multichannel ebb- and flood system has previously 438 been related to dredging and disposal activities (Monge-Ganuzas et al., 2013), because 439 a change in flow and sediment distribution can lead to bifurcation instability and sub-440 sequent channel degeneration (avulsion) (Z. B. Wang & Winterwerp, 2001; Jeuken & Wang, 441 2010). Here, we present a system in which the degeneration of the multichannel system 442 is not primarily caused by dredging and disposal activities but by land reclamation, al-443 though dredging works may have accelerated the response to land reclamations. This 444 points to a relation between the tidal prism and the number of channels in an estuary 445 or tidal basin. 446

The cross-sectional area (A) of a tidal inlet is linearly correlated to the tidal prism 447 (P) (O'Brien & P., 1931; Jarrett, 1976). This well-known tidal prism-area (P-A) rela-448 tionship is argued to be applicable along the entire length of the tidal channel (D'Alpaos 449 et al., 2010), although it seems to have upper and lower limits (a. Hibma et al., 2004). 450 In the Western Scheldt estuary, a channel will bifurcate into more channels if the cross-451 sectional area exceeds 25.000 - 30.000 m² (Allersma, 1992; Voorsmit, 2006). Interestingly, 452 the total cross-sectional area of the central-estuary channels in the Ems estuary equaled 453 this critical value in the 19th century (Figure 6c), shortly after which the multichannel 454 system degenerated. This supports that the loss of the multichannel system results from 455 a reduction in cross-sectional area, which in turn is the result of channel infilling due to 456 lower tidal flow velocities. The range in the critical cross-sectional area found in the West-457 ern Scheldt is, however, not universally constant, but depends on the size of the system 458 and type of sediment in the estuary (Allersma, 1994). The number of channels is lim-459 ited by the width to depth ratio of the estuary cross-section, with an increasing num-460 ber of channels with increasing estuary width (Stive & Wang, 2003). The development 461 of quantitative relationships between the number of tidal channels and the tidal prism, 462 the cross-sectional area, and the width to depth ratio of the estuary is a contemporary 463 challenge that is crucial in making future predictions for estuarine morphology. 464

465 5 Conclusion

The land reclamation history and the morphodynamic evolution of the Ems estu-466 ary were reconstructed since the beginning of $16^{\rm th}$ century. The reconstructions show 467 that the morphodynamic evolution of the Ems estuary is heavily influenced by land recla-468 mation works, particularly by those carried out in the Dollard Bay. The loss of intertidal 469 storage volume as a result of tidal flat reclamation reduces the tidal prism, which leads 470 to subtidal infilling. Interpretation of the long-term change in tidal channels and flats 471 shows that the system-scale morphodynamic adaptation is controlled by the effects of 472 land reclamation. Channel deepening and maintenance dredging in the 20^{th} century cu-473 mulatively impacted the system, while still adapting to the land reclamation works. The 474 disconnection of a tidal inlet to the main estuarine system, and the transition from a multichannel-475 shoal complex towards a single channel configuration with fringing flats, is shown to be 476 primarily forced by the effects of land reclamation. Dredging works and channel re-alignment 477 478 have likely accelerated these developments. The centennial-scale historical analysis shows that estuarine systems follow the evolutionary trajectory predicted by tidal asymmetry-479 based stability theory as they move toward a new equilibrium configuration with mod-480 ified tidal flats and channels. The channel pattern transition - from a multichannel sin-481 gle channel system - is found to be related to the changes in tidal prism and the width 482 to depth ratio of the estuary. 483

Figure 1. Land surface reclaimed in the region of the Ems estuary, with the year of completion indicated in the reclaimed area. The background color-scale visualizes the present-day topo-bathymetric Digital Elevation Model, compiled from multiple sources (see Open Research section, Section 5)

Figure 2. Cumulative area reclaimed since the 12th century, summed over half-century periods and subdivided for each defined land reclamation region.

Figure 3. Centennial morphological evolution of the Ems estuary, based on: historical reconstructions of Lang (1954) (a, b); reconstructed subtidal bathymetry from H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019) (c, d); and compiled datasets of echo sounding observations from the years 1985 and 1996 (e) and the years 2016 and 2020 (f). The Mean Low Water line is shown in red (a, b) and black (c, d, e, f). On the two most recent maps (e, f) the present-day outline of the estuary is shown and the dotted lines indicate the extent of the Rijkswaterstaat datasets.

Figure 4. Subtidal and intertidal surface area (A) and subtidal to intertidal surface area ratio (A_s/A_c) in the estuarine zone, excluding the mouth zone (see Figure 1 for the demarcation of the estuarine zone). The zigzags on the x-axis indicate a time-scaling discontinuity.

Figure 5. Relative change of the subtidal (below Mean Low Water) area A_{sub} (a), mean water depth \overline{WD}_{sub} (b, with negative values implying shallower channels) and volume $V_{sub}(c)$ with respect to the same properties derived from the first available subtidal bathymetry (1833 or 1888), depending on the region.

Figure 6. Channel width W_{cs} (a), deepest point Zb_{cs} (b), and cross-sectional volume V_{cs} (c) along the cross-section A-A' in Figure 1. Note that the channel geometry metrics are shown for time periods with data availability, leading to a longer time span in panel a (indicated by a gray patch) than in panels b and c. Channel width in panel shows averaged values for years with multiple sources available.

Figure 7. Tidal asymmetry based on the stability diagram in Zhou et al. (2018). For the Ems estuary data, V_s/V_c is derived by applying equations 1 and 2 on the surface areas from the morphological reconstructions, the tidal amplitude *a* is assumed constant at 1.2 m, and the mean water depth *h* is derived from linear interpolation and extrapolation (red data points) on the sub-tidal DEMs. The stability curves represent the analytical expressions derived by Dronkers (2016) with $\gamma = [1,2]$.

Year	Format & resolu- tion	Original source	Digitized source
1580	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1650	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1650	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstruction (Homeier, 1962)	Herrling and Niemeyer
	supratidal contours		(2007)
1720	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1750	MLW, MHW and supratidal contours	Hist. reconstruction (Homeier, 1962)	Herrling and Niemeyer (2007)
1790	MLW contours	Hist reconstruction (Lang. 1954)	This article
1812	LLW contours	Hist reconstruction (Gerritsen 1952)	This article
1833	Gridded (100x100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	 H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019)
1855	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstruction (Stratingh & Ven-	De Jong (2006)
	supratidal contours	ema, 1855; Gerritsen, 1952)	<u> </u>
1860	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1860	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstructions (Homeier, 1962;	Herrling and Niemeyer
	supratidal contours	Gerritsen, 1952)	(2007)
1873	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Gerritsen, 1952)	This article
1888	Gridded (100x100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense,	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022);
	· · · ·	Hist. reconstruction Relative change of the subtidal (Homeier, 1962)	H. Pierik (2019)
1898	Gridded $(20x20)$	Nautical charts Ems Mündung (1:50000) & Die Ems Von Delfzijl Bis Pogum (1:25000) von Beichs Marine Amt	This article
1901	MLW contours	Hist, reconstruction Gerritsen (1952)	This article
1928	Gridded (100×100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022);H. Pierik (2019)
1930	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1937	Gridded (5x5)	Depth soundings (German marine, RWS, Waterway agency Emden & Mep-	Herrling and Niemeyer (2008)
1953	Gridded (100×100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022);H. Pierik (2019)
1960	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstructions (Homeier, 1962;	Herrling and Niemever
	supratidal contours	Gerritsen, 1952)	(2007)
1985	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
1990	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
1996	Gridded (10×10)	Echo soundings	Sievers et al. (2021)
1997	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2001	Gridded $(20x20)$	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2005	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2008	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2010	Gridded (25x25)	Echo soundings	WSA Emden
2014	Gridded $(20x20)$	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2016	Gridded (10x10)	Echo soundings	Sievers et al. (2021)
2020	Gridded (20×20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat

Table 1. Overview of the type and sources of the geospatial datasets gathered and digitized for this study.

484 Open Research Section

Figure 1 is compiled from various sources of topo-bathymetric data to construct 485 a full coverage DEM, all sources are publicibly available. The data sources include the 486 land surface topography at 25 m resolution provided by Copernicus (EU-DEM - version 487 1.1, Apr. 2016; https://doi.org/10.5270/ESA-c5d3d65), subaqueous bathymetry of 488 the North Sea at ≈ 90 m resolution provided by the European Marine Observation and 489 Data Network (EMODnet - https://emodnet.ec.europa.eu/en/bathymetry) and the 490 coastal bathymetry which was requested through the servicedesk data of Rijkswaterstaat 491 (https://www.rijkswaterstaat.nl/formulieren/contactformulier-servicedesk 492 -data). 493

The main sources for the reconstruction of the land reclamation history are geospatial datasets with the location of historical embankments (https://geoportaal.provinciegroningen .nl/portal/apps/experiencebuilder/experience/?id=9e93c75c4e5e47a584829e1deb0ad5f6) and the National Historical Culture registry (https://nationaalgeoregister.nl/geonetwork/ srv/dut/catalog.search#/metadata/9a9cef3a-2dfc-4aa8-b248-f73f4064d7ad). The land reclamations reconstructions are published (Schrijvershof, 2024) and available at

4TU.ResearchData (https://data.4tu.nl/datasets/78ac0cf9-e9f7-47c7-8c4e-93f7fb2c633e/
 1).

The morphological reconstructions are based on a large number of historical maps, 502 reconstructions and data sources, all listed in Table 1. All maps that were georeferenced 503 and digitized (MLW, MHW, and supratidal contours) in this study (Lang, 1954; Ger-504 ritsen, 1952) and the the maps of Homeier (1962) are included in Schrijvershof (2024). 505 The digitized reconstructions made by Herrling and Niemeyer (2007) from the maps of 506 Homeier (1962) were provided by the Niedersächsischer Landesbetrieb für Wasserwirtschaft, Küsten-und Natur- schutz (NLWKN) and can be contacted for the data. The gridded 508 (subtidal) bathymetry datasets are available through the references included in Table 509 1 and therefore not included in Schrijvershof (2024). 510

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-26-

Figure 01.



Outer

1418

Fivel

1300 Sielmönken

1527 1979

Center

1525

Rysumer Nacken

Inner

1525

1525

1657

Dollard

Ems river

North Sea

250

Elevation (m MSL) - High : 20 - 17,5 **Training dams** - 15 transect A-A' 12,5 10 Surface regions - 7,5 Volumetric regions 5 **Reclaimed land** 2,5 0 -2,5 -5 -7,5 - -10 - -12,5 - -15 - -17,5 - Low : -20

811

Figure 02.



Figure 03.



Figure 04.



Figure 05.



Figure 06.



Figure 07.



Land Reclamation Controls on Multi-Centennial Estuarine Evolution

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Key Points:

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9	•	Land reclamation in the Ems estuary has led to progressive subtidal infilling and
10		degeneration of separated ebb-flood channels
11	•	Loss of intertidal areas distorts the estuary-scale channel-flat configuration, which
12		is partly restored by subtidal infilling

Tidal asymmetry-based equilibrium theory can predict the evolutionary trajec tory of real-world estuaries responding to land reclamation

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15 Abstract

Land reclamations influence the morphodynamic evolution of estuaries and tidal basins, 16 because altered planform changes tidal dynamics and associated residual sediment trans-17 port. The morphodynamic response time to land reclamation is long, impacting the sys-18 tem for decades to centuries. Other human interventions (e.g., deepening of fairways or 19 port construction) add a morphodynamic adaptation timescale to a system that may still 20 adapt as the result of land reclamations. Our understanding of the cumulative effects 21 of anthropogenic interference with estuaries is limited, because observations usually do 22 not cover the complete morphological adaptation period. We aim to assess the impact 23 of land reclamation works and other human interventions on an estuarine system by means 24 of digital reconstructions of historical morphologies of the Ems Estuary over the past 500 25 years. Our analysis demonstrates that the intertidal-subtidal area ratio altered due to 26 land reclamation works and that the ratio partly restored after land reclamation ended. 27 The land reclamation works have led to the degeneration of an ebb- and flood channel 28 system, transitioning the estuary from a multichannel to a single-channel system. We 29 infer that the 20th-century intensification of channel dredging and re-alignment works 30 accelerated rather than cause this development. The centennial-scale observations sug-31 gest that estuarine systems responding to land reclamations follow the evolutionary tra-32 jectory predicted by tidal asymmetry-based stability theory as they move towards a new 33 equilibrium configuration with modified tidal flats and channels. Existing estuarine equi-34 librium theory, however, fails in linking multichannel stability to the loss of intertidal 35 area, emphasizing the need for additional research. 36

37 Plain Language Summary

Reclaiming land along the margins of estuaries and tidal basins leads to loss of in-38 tertidal areas. The response of the remaining underwater landscape to the loss of inter-39 tidal areas takes decades to centuries. This impacts the patterns, dimensions, and func-40 tionalities of the channels and tidal flats. Observations are usually not available for such 41 a long period, limiting our capacity to study the impact of land reclamation. Here, we 42 overcome this limitation by reconstructing the landscape adaptation in the Ems estu-43 ary since land reclamation accelerated in the beginning of the 16th century, when storms 44 reshaped the estuary. Historical and recent topo-geographical sources were used to re-45 construct the centennial-scale developments of the tidal channels and tidal flats. Results 46 show that, after reclamation works stopped, the tidal flats reduced in area and the tidal 47 channels filled up. The tidal channel patterns and dimensions permanently changed, im-48 pacting, for example, shipping waterways. Further research should address the link be-49 tween changes in intertidal areas and channel dynamics because we currently lack such 50 a comprehensive understanding. This hampers our ability to predict the effects of fu-51 ture anticipated tidal flat changes, as a result of, for example, sea level rise or tidal flat 52 restoration works. 53

54 **1** Introduction

Estuaries and tidal basins are biodiverse coastal landscapes that are often intensely 55 used by humans, offering services such as navigation routes, fisheries, and protection against 56 flooding. These services are provided by estuarine morphology because the channel-flat 57 pattern and geometry (hypsometry) determine hydrological connectivity (Hiatt & Pas-58 salacqua, 2015), ecological connectivity (Olds et al., 2017), and influences future mor-59 phodynamic evolution because of the link with tidal asymmetry and residual sediment 60 transport (Dronkers, 1986; Z. Wang et al., 1999). Large-scale human alteration of estu-61 62 arine planform and channel dimensions influences tidal dynamics, sediment transport, and ultimately the basin's long-term evolution. Engineering works and construction of 63 embankments restrain intertidal dynamics. This process of "coastal squeeze" affects the 64 accommodation space available for dynamic adaptation to sea level rise (Borchert et al., 65 2018). Understanding and predicting the combined impact of global climate change and 66 anthropogenic pressure requires grasping the complex interaction between the tidal chan-67 nels and the adjacent intertidal areas (Z. B. Wang et al., 2015; Hoitink et al., 2020). 68

Tidal channels dynamically interact with tidal flats and associated salt marshes. 69 Tidal flat development influences tidal propagation characteristics (Dronkers, 1986) and 70 channel mobility (Kleinhans et al., 2022), which in turn affect the channel dynamics and 71 the system-scale morphodynamic development (A. Hibma et al., 2004; van der Wegen 72 et al., 2008; Braat et al., 2017; Leuven & Kleinhans, 2019). Important hydrodynamic 73 mechanisms linked to the tidal flats are the temporal storage of mass and dissipation of 74 momentum (Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; Alebregtse, 2015; Zhou et al., 2018). Both in-75 fluence tidal propagation, leading to asymmetric sea surface elevations and velocity dis-76 tribution (e.g., Friedrichs, 2010). An asymmetric tidal motion drives a net sediment trans-77 port flux (Groen, 1967; Van de Kreeke & Robaczewska, 1993), while the long-term, resid-78 ual transport determines morphological evolution (Dronkers, 1986). Large-scale changes 79 in the channel-flat configuration therefore disrupt the net sediment transport magnitudes 80 and directions (import versus export) and steer the morphodynamic evolution of an es-81 tuary or tidal basin (Van Der Wegen, 2013; Guo, Zhu, et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2020). 82

In many tidal systems worldwide, the loss of intertidal area due to land reclama-83 tion and channel deepening due to dredging have been the major anthropogenic inter-84 ferences over the past and present century (Talke & Jay, 2020). The construction of em-85 bankments (artificial levees) for flood protection and land reclamation purposes effec-86 tively alters the tidal regime, because the basins' geometry (i.e.; depth, width, length) 87 is essentially changed (Talke & Jay, 2020). Tidal flat loss reduces the embayments' in-88 tertidal storage volume, decreasing the tidal prism and enhancing flood dominance (Speer 89 & Aubrey, 1985). An increased sediment import will lead to basin infilling, which will 90 continue until the channel geometry has re-established to new equilibrium conditions, 91 in which the sediment transport capacity can maintain the new channel-flat configura-92 tion (Dronkers, 2016). Tidal-asymmetry based equilibrium theory can be useful to as-93 sess the evolutionary trajectory of an estuarine system responding to land reclamations 94 (Zhou et al., 2018). 95

The morphodynamic response to large-scale interventions, such as tidal flat recla-96 mation is, however, often slow and manifests itself on longer time-scales (Guo, Zhu, et 97 al., 2022). The response time depends on the magnitude of the intervention, the size of 98 the system, and the sediment transport rates, and may typically be several decades or 99 more (van Maren, Colina Alonso, et al., 2023). Various concurrent human interventions 100 (reclamation, deepening, construction of hydraulic works) may impact a system. It is 101 102 difficult to isolate the impact of a single intervention because each intervention adds a morphodynamic adaptation timescale to a system that may still adapt as the result of 103 previous interventions. As a result, multiple interventions may interactively impact the 104 system within the morphodynamic adaptation time, possibly exacerbating or acceler-105 ating the system's response to the principle intervention (Z. B. Wang et al., 2015). 106

Land reclamation and channel deepening may influence system-scale sediment bud-107 gets (Guo, Xie, et al., 2022; Donatelli et al., 2018), initiate a transition to hyper-concentrated 108 flow conditions (Winterwerp et al., 2013; Van Maren, Winterwerp, & Vroom, 2015; Van Maren 109 et al., 2016), and influence channel migration and avulsion (Dai et al., 2016). In the Ganges-110 Brahmaputra-Meghna (GBM) mega delta, for example, large-scale land reclamation (>5000 111 km^2) in the 60's and 70's of the 20th century has led to a significant change in the hydro-sedimentary 112 regime, drastically increasing flood risk (Auerbach et al., 2015), persistent infilling of the 113 tidal channels (Wilson et al., 2017), and, as a result, a reorganization of the tidal chan-114 nel network (Bain et al., 2019; van Maren, Beemster, et al., 2023). Such large-scale hu-115 man interventions may thus impact delta system functioning for decades to centuries through 116 non-linear feedback loops, exceedance of thresholds, and time-lags (Liu et al., 2007; Coco 117 et al., 2013). The observed and widely varying impact of land reclamation can not be 118 predicted on the basis of estuarine equilibrium theory. To date, it remains unclear to what 119 extent these developments are driven by land reclamations or other human interference. 120 Based on long-term observations that span the time of morphological adaptation to tidal 121 flat reclamations, here we explore if the evolution of real-world tidal systems agrees with 122 the theoretical frameworks describing the evolutionary trajectory towards morpholog-123 ical equilibrium. 124

The aim of this paper is to understand how loss of intertidal area by land recla-125 mations influences estuarine morphodynamic development. We focus on the Ems estu-126 ary, located on the border between the Netherlands and Germany and part of the Wad-127 den Sea tidal lagoon, which represents a heavily human-modified tidal system. The most 128 important anthropogenic pressures in the Ems include large-scale tidal flat reclamation 129 of storm-surge formed embayments, which started in the beginning of the 16th century. 130 This was followed by fairway re-alignment, deepening, and maintenance dredging since 131 the 20th century (Van Maren et al., 2016). First, we reconstruct the land reclamation 132 history (Section 3.1). Second, we reconstruct and analyze the historical and contempo-133 rary development of the estuarine channels and tidal flats over the past 500 years (Sec-134 tion 3.2). A multichannel system with distinct ebb- and flood channels (Van Veen et al., 135 2005) in the estuary has degenerated into a single channel in the 20^{th} century (Gerritsen, 136 1952), which is still poorly understood. Two hypotheses exist explaining these channel 137 pattern changes: (1) channel system instability due to fairway deepening and related sed-138 iment disposal (Van Veen et al., 2005; Van Veen, 1950), and (2) tidal prism decrease as 139 a result of intertidal storage loss due to land reclamation (Gerritsen, 1952). We discuss 140 the controls of land reclamation versus channel deepening on the observed channel pat-141 tern changes and interpret these findings using tidal asymmetry-based estuarine equi-142 librium relationships (Section 4). 143

¹⁴⁴ 2 Material and Methods

Reclaimed land surface area was reconstructed from several data sources described 145 below, and archived in Schrijvershof (2024). The main sources for the reconstructions 146 on the Dutch shore of the Ems estuary are geospatial datasets with the location of his-147 torical embankments¹ and the National Historical Culture registry². This information 148 was supplemented with information from maps presented by Knottnerus (2013a) and Van Maren 149 et al. (2016), to determine the year in which a reclamation was completed. Digital el-150 evation models (DEMs) of the surface topography, aerial imagery (allotment pattern), 151 and palaeogeographical reconstructions (P. C. Vos & Knol, 2015, 2013) were used to de-152 tail the maximum extent of storm-surge-formed bays, to include the oldest (poorly-documented) 153

¹ https://geoportaal.provinciegroningen.nl/portal/apps/experiencebuilder/experience/ ?id=9e93c75c4e5e47a584829e1deb0ad5f6

² https://nationaalgeoregister.nl/geonetwork/srv/dut/catalog.search#/metadata/9a9cef3a-2dfc-4aa8-b248-f73f4064d7ad

reclaimed lands. The maximum extent of the Dollard Bay, in particular, increased through 154 this approach, leading to a reclamation reconstruction that largely agrees with the map 155 presented by Knottnerus (2013a). The reclamation history on the German part of the 156 Ems estuary is digitized from maps presented by Homeier (1962) and Homeier et al. $(1969)^3$. 157 The reclamation history of Sielmönken bay could not be reconstructed but the approx-158 imate maximum extent of the embayment is derived from DEMs and aerial imagery. The 159 lands reclaimed along the tidal river (landwards of the port of Emden) are not included 160 in the land reclamation database (Schrijvershof, 2024) because the focus of this paper 161 is on the mouth and transitional regions of the Ems estuary. 162

The morphological evolution of the Ems estuary is reconstructed for the period with 163 intense anthropogenic interventions since the 16th century. A unique long-term record 164 of geospatial datasets is compiled that almost completely covers this time-period (Ta-165 ble 1). The datasets were collected from published literature (Lang, 1954; Homeier, 1962; 166 Gerritsen, 1952; Stratingh & Venema, 1855), published data sources (H. Pierik, 2019; 167 Sievers et al., 2021), or collected from national archives, and were provided in digitized 168 format (Herrling & Niemeyer, 2007, 2008; De Jong, 2006) or, otherwise, digitized using 169 GIS software. The recent gridded topo-bathymetrical datasets (1985-2020) are publicly 170 available at Rijkswaterstaat⁴ and WSA Emden⁵. The datasets can be divided in three 171 categories: (1) historical reconstructions of channel and tidal flat planform, based on a 172 large variety of written and illustrated sources, but interpreted and compiled in the 20^{th} 173 century, (2) digitized nautical charts originally collected in hydrographic surveys for mil-174 itary and water way organizations, and (3) recent (1937, 1985-2020) full coverage dig-175 ital elevation models (DEM) collected through (echo) sounding observations. All geospa-176 tial datasets were provided or converted in a digitized format (Table 1) and published 177 with this paper (Schrijvershof, 2024). The three types of datasets provide different kind 178 of geospatial information. The historical reconstructions only reveal the geographical lo-179 cation of the Mean Low Water line (MLW), Mean High Water line (MHW) and fixed 180 bank lines; the nautical charts provide a DEM of the subtidal (below MLW) domain; and 181 the recent sounding observations provide a full DEM of the subtidal, intertidal and suprati-182 dal domain. Contour lines of MLW and MHW are derived from the recent DEMs using 183 an along-estuary averaged value for MLW (NAP -1.50 m) and MHW (NAP +1.30 NAP), 184 following Arcadis (2011). The spatial extent of the geospatial datasets varies and do not 185 all cover the full extent of the estuary. Datasets with incomplete coverage are not used 186 for all analyses. The accuracy and precision of the geospatial information are lower for 187 older datasets than for more recent datasets. The historical reconstructions of pre-19th-188 century morphology (made in the 20th century), in particular, are constructed with con-189 siderable interpretation of the original authors who drafted the maps. The inaccuracies 190 of older maps therefore introduce uncertainty in the metrics we develop as part of our 191 morphological analysis. We minimize the impact of such uncertainties by collecting data 192 from multiple sources and authors, and by focusing on morphological trends based on 193 a wide range of independent datasets. 194

We identify and quantify the main morphological changes in the estuary over the past 500 years. Subtidal surface area (A_c) and intertidal surface area (A_s) are derived from enclosed areas formed by MLW, MHW, and fixed bank lines. These surface area metrics are, due to data availability, quantified for a region that includes the Dollard Bay and the central estuary, but excludes the mouth zone with the tidal inlets (see Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). Channel geometry metrics (area, depth, volume) are

³ https://www.nlwkn.niedersachsen.de/startseite/hochwasser_kustenschutz/kustenschutz/ ausgewahlte_projekte/kustenschutz_projekt_leybucht/kuestenschutz-projekt-leybucht-43552.html

⁴ https://www.rijkswaterstaat.nl/formulieren/contactformulier-servicedesk-data

⁵ https://www.wsa-ems-nordsee.wsv.de/Webs/WSA/Ems-Nordsee/DE/00_Startseite/startseite_node.html

derived as spatial mean values for areas defined in the outer, central, and inner estuary and along a defined cross-section covering the central-estuary channels (Figure 1).

Contextual background information on the historic landscape developments and 203 the most important human-landscape interactions in the Ems estuary is provided in Sup-204 porting Information S1. Palaeogeopgraphical reconstructions, presented by P. Vos et al. 205 (2020); P. C. Vos and Knol (2015, 2013), were modified to show and describe the inher-206 ited geological setting and Holocene evolution of the Ems estuary region (Section S1.1 207 in Supporting Information S1). The historic evolution is particularly relevant to under-208 stand the formation of the storm surge-formed embayments that were reclaimed (Sec-209 tion S1.2 in Supporting Information S1). The 20^{th} -century human-landscape interactions, 210 particularly relevant for the recent observed morphological developments, include chan-211 nel dredging, port construction, and channel-realignments. An overview of these anthro-212 pogenic works is presented in Section S1.3 in Supporting Information S1. 213

214 **3 Results**

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3.1 Land reclamation reconstruction

In the Ems estuary region land reclamation works started probably in the 11th cen-216 tury (Homeier et al., 1969; Behre, 1999). The former "Sielmönken bay" (Figure 1), a for-217 mer sea ingression that reached its largest extent between 800 and 950 A.D., was already 218 completely reclaimed in the 13th century. The Fivel bay (Figure 1) started to silt-up prior 219 to human settlement because outflow of the Fivel river was hampered by expanding shore 220 ridges (P. Vos & van Kesteren, 2000). The process was accelerated because, from the 12th 221 century onwards, embankments were constructed and the flow from the Fivel river was 222 redirected to artificial tidal shipping canals (Knottnerus, 2013b). Reclamation of the Fivel 223 bay continued untill the 15th century, after which the seaward shoreline extension con-224 tinued in the 19th century with improved reclamation techniques. The most recent coastal 225 reclamation was the construction of a large seaport in the 1970's. The Ley bay reclama-226 tions started in the 15th century and continued until the 20th century (Figure 1). The 227 Dollard bay reclamations are the largest reclamation works in the estuary (Figure 1), 228 starting at the beginning of the 16th century (Figure 1) and continuing far into the 20th 229 century. The land surface elevations of the Dollard reclamations clearly show the decrease 230 in land surface level with reclamation age (Figure 1), because older reclaimed areas sub-231 sided more due to peat oxidation and compaction. The Dollard bay was never completely 232 reclaimed ($\approx 20\%$ remained) and is nowadays highly valued and protected as a unique 233 tidal flat and salt marsh landscape. Reclamations near the port city of Emden were ex-234 ecuted to relocate the city harbor towards the river (Figure 1), after it lost its access due 235 to a meander bend cut-off (see Section S1.2 in Supporting Information S1). In an effort 236 to narrow and deepen the Emden access fairway, the tidal flats west of Emden were re-237 claimed as well. The most recent reclaimed land in the inland part of the estuary is the 238 construction of the "Rysumer Nacken" (Figure 1). The 1933 completion of a bended lon-239 gitudinal training dam, constructed to redirect the navigational channel⁶, was followed-240 up by landfill deposits on the sheltered tidal flats with dredged material⁷. 241

The total cumulative amount of land surface reclaimed in the region of the Ems estuary since the start of reclamation works (12^{th} century) is approximately 700 km² (Figure 2). The Dollard Bay reclamations constitute half ($\approx 360 \text{ km}^2$) of the total reclaimed land. The reclamation rate in Dollard Bay decreased halfway through the 19th century, while the Fivel Bay and Ley Bay reclamations accelerated slightly around this time. Including all reclamation regions, there has been a continuous reclamation rate of ≈ 100

⁶ https://delibra.bg.polsl.pl/Content/22564/heft53_54.pdf

⁷ https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rysumer_Nacken

²⁴⁸ km² per century since the Dollard reclamations started in the beginning of the 16th cen-²⁴⁹ tury. The extent of the Ems estuary was largest after the formation of Dollard Bay in ²⁵⁰ 1509 (\approx 1750 km²) and decreased due to the land reclamation works to a present-day size ²⁵¹ of \approx 1200 km². The reclamation works reshaped the estuary outline and decreased $\approx \frac{1}{3}$ ²⁵² of the total basin extent. The Dollard Bay reclamations make up 65% of this reduction.

3.2 Morphological reconstruction

Channel-flat configuration

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The 16th-century morphology consisted of multiple tidal channels and tidal flats 255 consisting of fringing flats and mid-channel bars, or shoals (Figure 3a). A double inlet 256 system flanking the barrier island Borkum, connected the estuary and the North Sea. 257 The two inlets had approximate equal planform sizes, yet the western inlet was more ef-258 ficiently connected to the central-estuary (see Figure 1 for demarcation) channels. The 259 eastern inlet also drained the tidal volume of the Ley Bay, most of which was not yet 260 reclaimed in the 16th century (Figure 1). The central part of the estuary is bisected by 261 a western and an eastern channel, hereafter referred to as the western channel and east-262 ern channel. In the 16th-century the western channel dominates over the eastern chan-263 nel and connects via a meander bend to the western inlet in the outer estuary. In the 264 18^{th} century (Figure 3b) the orientation of the channel connecting the eastern tidal in-265 let with the central-estuary channels changes while shrinking in size. A mid-channel shoal 266 develops in the outer estuary western inlet. The central-estuary shoal complex migrates 267 westward, resulting in an increase of the size of the eastern channel at the expense of the 268 western channel. Despite this, the western channel remains to be the main channel. Sub-269 tidal bathymetries, available from the start of the 19th century (Figure 3c, Figure S5 in 270 Supporting Information S1), reveal the depths of the main estuarine channels. The main 271 channel route starts from the western inlet via the western channel into Dollard Bay. The 272 sinusoidal meandering pattern with mid-channel shoals confirms the multichannel ebb-273 flood pattern reported by Van Veen (1950) and Gerritsen (1952). 274

The connection of the eastern inlet to the central-estuary channels degenerated from 275 a well-connected channel in the 16th century into a tidal divide in the 18th century to 276 beginning of the 19th century (see Figure 3b, c). The main tidal channels are filling in 277 with sediments in the 20th century (compare Figure 3c with d and e) while degenera-278 tion of the former connection with the eastern tidal inlet progresses until it is completely 279 disconnected in the 21th century (Figure 3f). The tidal shoal complex in the central-estuary 280 zone becomes larger and migrates further westward. At the same time, the western chan-281 nel degenerates (becoming shallower and narrower) while the eastern channel deepens 282 and widens. During the 20th century, the meander bend connecting the outer estuary 283 channels with the central-estuary channels (see Figure 1) is straightened, resulting in a 284 reduction of channel sinuosity (H. J. Pierik et al., 2022). The southern section of the central-285 estuary eastern channel moves westward (Figure 3d), presumably forced by the construc-286 tion of a longitudinal training wall (Figure 1). The present-day situation shows that the 287 western channel has now degenerated into a minor channel (Figure 3f). 288

The land reclamation works and the channel and tidal flat pattern developments 289 illustrated in Figure 3 influence the areas occupied by tidal channels (A_c) and tidal flats 290 (A_s) . Up to the end of the 19th century, A_s decreased (Figure 4), which is a result of land 291 reclamation in Dollard Bay (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). Since the begin-292 ning of the 20th century the tidal flat surface area gradually increased because of expan-293 sion of the central-estuary shoal complex, and degeneration of the eastern inlet connec-294 tion to the central-estuary channels (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). A_c is more 295 variable over the reconstructed time period but shows, in general, a decreasing trend. 296 This decrease is due to the loss of tidal channels in the progressively reclaimed Dollard 297 Bay (up till the 20th century), and the central-estuary channel transition from a dou-298

²⁹⁹ ble to single channel system. The estuary-scale A_s/A_c ratio decreases up to the begin-³⁰⁰ ning of the 20th century, and since then increases again (Figure 4). The decrease in A_s/A_c ³⁰¹ is mostly attributed to a loss in A_s (due to land reclamations works) whereas the increase ³⁰² in A_s/A_c is mostly attributed to a loss of subtidal area A_c (resulting from subtidal in-³⁰³ filling).

Channel dimensions

Metrics of channel geometry, derived since the first available subtidal bathymetry 305 in 1833 show that in the period 1833 - 1900 the total central-estuary channel area de-306 creased (Figure 5a). The channels became shallower (Figure 5b), and as a combined re-307 sult, the channel volume decreased (Figure 5c). After 1900, the subtidal area further de-308 creased (Figure 5a and Figure 4). The remaining single channel, however, deepened (Fig-309 ure 5b) and, as a result, the subtidal volume of the central-estuary channels remained 310 mostly constant during the 20^{th} century (Figure 5c). This deepening is partly natural, 311 but since the 1970's deepening accelerated by increasing maintenance dredging for nav-312 igation purposes (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). In the inner estuary, the 313 subtidal volume has been nearly constant since 1888, because a decrease of subtidal area 314 was compensated for by an increase in channel depth (Figure 5b). The subtidal volume 315 of the outer estuary inlet increased (Figure 5c) and expanded (Figure 5a), presumably 316 because the western inlet accommodated the tidal volume exchange of the disconnected 317 eastern inlet. The depth of the outer estuary western inlet first decreased and later in-318 creased, which may be the result of the dynamic character of the inlets, influenced by 319 tidal discharge, and wave-driven along-shore (eastwards) sediment transport. 320

Cross-sectional geometry metrics (see Figure 1 for the location of cross-section A-321 A') show that the width (W_{cs}) of the central-estuary channels (Figure 6a) has been chang-322 ing very consistently since the oldest available historical reconstruction from 1580. The 323 western channel width decreased steadily with $\approx 300-400$ m/century up to 1900, after which 324 the channel width abruptly narrowed. In the past decades the rate of change decreased 325 again, but channel width continues to decrease up till present. The eastern channel width 326 steadily increased with ≈ 250 m/century over the reconstructed period. The cross-sectional 327 deepest point (Figure 6b) and cross-sectional area (Figure 6c) both show consistent trends 328 of channel shoaling in the western channel and channel deepening in the eastern chan-329 nel since the beginning of the 19th century. The change in the deepest point in the cross-330 section appears, similarly to channel width, to accelerate in the 20th century. 331

332 4 Discussion

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4.1 Adaptation timescales to land reclamation

The centennial-scale morphological reconstructions of the Ems estuary show that 334 since the beginning of the land reclamation works in the 16th century the morphology 335 of the estuary has been changing. The loss of estuarine tidal flats resulted in pronounced 336 infilling of tidal channels. The channels and tidal flats in the central area and Dollard 337 Bay clearly show this morphological response, despite 20th-century intensified channel 338 dredging favoring an increase in subtidal volume. The channel and tidal flat adaptation 339 demonstrates that the response time of estuaries to large-scale $(\frac{1}{3}$ of basin extent) and 340 continued land reclamation is in the order of centuries. This response time to human in-341 terventions depends on the processes driving the change, the size of the system, and the 342 magnitude of the intervention (van Maren, Colina Alonso, et al., 2023) as well as accom-343 modation space and sediment supply (Beets et al., 1992). 344

Intertidal storage volume decreased due to the reclamation of tidal flats. The de crease will lead to a smaller tidal prism conveyed through the tidal channels (Speer &
 Aubrey, 1985; Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988), and channel infilling because the channel di-

mensions correspond to a pre-reclamation tidal volume exchange (Dronkers, 2016). In 348 short tidal basins, the basin geometry change (Dronkers, 1986; Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; 349 Ridderinkhof et al., 2014) and a reduction in friction (Fortunato & Oliveira, 2005) in-350 crease tidal asymmetry-driven import of sediment. In the Ems estuary, the main source 351 of sediment is of marine origin (the Wadden Sea and/or North Sea), and the sediment 352 load carried by the Ems river is small (Van Maren, van Kessel, et al., 2015). With abun-353 dant supply of sand from the adjacent shallow sandy seabed (van der Molen & de Swart, 354 2001) and of mud supplied by the nearby Meuse and Rhine rivers, the tidal embayments 355 along the Dutch coast filled up rapidly during the Holocene (van der Spek, 1994; de Haas 356 et al., 2018). Despite the abundant sediment supply, the Ems Estuary required centuries 357 to adapt to human interventions. 358

Globally, dredging activities have accelerated in the past century (Talke & Jay, 2020). 359 The hydro-morphodynamic conditions of estuaries and tidal basins in the pre-dredged 360 era are often taken as a reference to study the impact of channel deepening (Ralston et 361 al., 2019; Bao et al., 2022; Siemes et al., 2023), maintenance dredging and disposal (Vellinga 362 et al., 2014; Jeuken & Wang, 2010; van Dijk et al., 2021), or a combination (Van Maren, 363 van Kessel, et al., 2015). Our results demonstrate that estuaries along which land was 364 reclaimed are unlikely to be in morphological equilibrium. Pre-19th-century land recla-365 mation may still impact the present-day morphodynamic evolution, which needs to be 366 taken into account when differentiating between natural controls and recent human mod-367 ifications (Monge-Ganuzas et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2019). The morpho-368 dynamic impact of future newly proposed interventions (e.g., Cox et al., 2006; Weisscher 369 et al., 2022) should carefully embed the lagging effects of a still adapting morphology. 370

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4.2 Tidal asymmetry and system resilience

The loss of intertidal area due to tidal flat reclamation distorts the estuary-scale configuration of channels and tidal flats, which is quantified with a ratio A_s/A_c . Land reclamations resulted in a decrease in A_s/A_c over several centuries, but the ratio increases again after 1937 (Figure 4). The reason for this change is stabilization of the tidal flat area (no more reclamations) while the subtidal area continued to decrease due to infilling in response to a smaller tidal prism. The reconstructed channel-flat ratio in the Ems estuary provides a unique long-term record, which allows testing stability theory.

Tidal inlet stability theory typically relates a metric for residual sediment trans-379 port (the type and degree of tidal asymmetry) to a metric representing the relative im-380 portance of flow over flats and channels. The type of tidal asymmetry is the result of a 381 competition between frictional interaction between the tide and the channel bed (cap-382 tured in the tidal amplitude over channel depth ratio, a/h and the relative intertidal 383 water storage capacity (captured in the intertidal volume over channel volume ratio, V_s/V_c) 384 (e.g., Friedrichs & Aubrey, 1988; Z. Wang et al., 1999; Dronkers, 2016). Various types 385 of tidal asymmetry-based stability relationships have been developed, which are quite 386 consistent, as demonstrated by Zhou et al. (2018). Comparisons between the stability 387 relationships and field-based conditions of real-world systems (Dronkers, 2016; Zhou et 388 al., 2018), however, shows considerable discrepancy. The discrepancy is due to the as-389 sumptions that inevitably have to be made to facilitate the analytical solutions (for ex-390 ample, simplifications of the cross-sectional geometry) and uncertainties in real-world 391 observations (Zhou et al., 2018). 392

To apply existing equilibrium realtionships to the Ems Estuary, the subtidal and intertidal surface areas are converted to subtidal and intertidal volumes, following Zhou et al. (2018) and assuming a rectangular cross-sectional geometry:

$$V_s = 2a(S_{HW} - S_{LW}) \tag{1}$$

396

$$V_c = h(S_{LW}) \tag{2}$$

Here, S_{HW} and S_{LW} are the surface area at high water and low water, respectively. 397 The surface area at low water is equal to the reconstructed subtidal area $(S_{LW} = A_s)$ 398 and the surface area at high water results from addition of the subtidal and intertidal 399 areas $(S_{HW} = A_s + A_c)$. The parameter a is the tidal amplitude at the mouth of the 400 estuary (equal to 1.2 m; see Herrling and Niemeyer (2007)) and assumed constant for 401 the reconstructed period (H. J. Pierik et al., 2022). The mean water depth h is taken 402 as the average channel depth (following Zhou et al. (2018)), and can only be computed 403 since the availability of subtidal DEMs (beginning of the 19th century). Linear interpo-404 lation and extrapolation provide the values of h at the moments the channel-flat con-405 figuration is known (Figure 4). The evolutionary trajectory of the reconstructed Ems 406 estuary (Figure 7) in the stability diagram shows that up till the beginning of the 20^{th} 407 century, the system evolved towards a more flood dominant regime (increasing a/h), but 408 became more ebb dominant since then (decreasing a/h and increasing V_s/V_c). Such an evolutionary trajectory from an increasingly flood dominant system to ebb-dominant con-410 ditions agrees with the theoretical trajectory of an estuarine system responding to land 411 reclamation (Dronkers, 2016). The agreement between the observed and theoretical tra-412 jectories suggests a certain resilience of the morphodynamic system, because there is sys-413 tem tendency towards a morphodynamic equilibrium state. A delta system is defined 414 as resilient when it has the capacity to recover from an extreme forcing at one of its bound-415 aries and is largely self-sustaining (i.e., not in need of high maintenance) (Hoitink et al., 416 2020). In this case, the anthropologically disturbed channel-flat configuration is the forc-417 ing and the morphodynamic system response through tidal asymmetry-driven import 418 of sediment restores this configuration. 419

420

4.3 Controls on channel-flat dynamics

The channel-flat pattern in the Ems estuary transitioned from a double-inlet mul-421 tichannel system with mutually evasive ebb- and flood channels separated by shoals, to-422 wards a channel system consisting of a single inlet with a main channel and less pronounced 423 ebb- and flood channels. The degeneration of the connection with the eastern Ems in-424 let and the central-estuary channel system change are the most pronounced channel pat-425 tern developments. These channel dynamics can be observed since the 16th century (Fig-426 ure 3) untill present, indicating a permanent channel pattern change with no tendency 427 of re-establishment of the multi-channel system. Considering that these developments 428 started in the 16th century, the loss of the characteristic multichannel pattern is not caused 429 by channel re-alignment and dredging works in the 19th and 20th centuries (Van Veen, 430 1950; Van Veen et al., 2005). The past decadal developments of channel geometry do show 431 a clear signature of dredging activity (Figure 5, Figure 6) but these changes are super-432 imposed on the long-term system-scale response to the loss of intertidal areas (Figure 433 4, Figure 7). The most likely trigger for the channel pattern change is thus the loss of 434 intertidal areas landward of the central-estuary channels and the resulting decrease of 435 the tidal volume exchange (Gerritsen, 1952), predominantly caused by reclamation of 436 Dollard Bay. 437

The loss of a naturally stable multichannel ebb- and flood system has previously 438 been related to dredging and disposal activities (Monge-Ganuzas et al., 2013), because 439 a change in flow and sediment distribution can lead to bifurcation instability and sub-440 sequent channel degeneration (avulsion) (Z. B. Wang & Winterwerp, 2001; Jeuken & Wang, 441 2010). Here, we present a system in which the degeneration of the multichannel system 442 is not primarily caused by dredging and disposal activities but by land reclamation, al-443 though dredging works may have accelerated the response to land reclamations. This 444 points to a relation between the tidal prism and the number of channels in an estuary 445 or tidal basin. 446

The cross-sectional area (A) of a tidal inlet is linearly correlated to the tidal prism 447 (P) (O'Brien & P., 1931; Jarrett, 1976). This well-known tidal prism-area (P-A) rela-448 tionship is argued to be applicable along the entire length of the tidal channel (D'Alpaos 449 et al., 2010), although it seems to have upper and lower limits (a. Hibma et al., 2004). 450 In the Western Scheldt estuary, a channel will bifurcate into more channels if the cross-451 sectional area exceeds 25.000 - 30.000 m² (Allersma, 1992; Voorsmit, 2006). Interestingly, 452 the total cross-sectional area of the central-estuary channels in the Ems estuary equaled 453 this critical value in the 19th century (Figure 6c), shortly after which the multichannel 454 system degenerated. This supports that the loss of the multichannel system results from 455 a reduction in cross-sectional area, which in turn is the result of channel infilling due to 456 lower tidal flow velocities. The range in the critical cross-sectional area found in the West-457 ern Scheldt is, however, not universally constant, but depends on the size of the system 458 and type of sediment in the estuary (Allersma, 1994). The number of channels is lim-459 ited by the width to depth ratio of the estuary cross-section, with an increasing num-460 ber of channels with increasing estuary width (Stive & Wang, 2003). The development 461 of quantitative relationships between the number of tidal channels and the tidal prism, 462 the cross-sectional area, and the width to depth ratio of the estuary is a contemporary 463 challenge that is crucial in making future predictions for estuarine morphology. 464

465 5 Conclusion

The land reclamation history and the morphodynamic evolution of the Ems estu-466 ary were reconstructed since the beginning of $16^{\rm th}$ century. The reconstructions show 467 that the morphodynamic evolution of the Ems estuary is heavily influenced by land recla-468 mation works, particularly by those carried out in the Dollard Bay. The loss of intertidal 469 storage volume as a result of tidal flat reclamation reduces the tidal prism, which leads 470 to subtidal infilling. Interpretation of the long-term change in tidal channels and flats 471 shows that the system-scale morphodynamic adaptation is controlled by the effects of 472 land reclamation. Channel deepening and maintenance dredging in the 20^{th} century cu-473 mulatively impacted the system, while still adapting to the land reclamation works. The 474 disconnection of a tidal inlet to the main estuarine system, and the transition from a multichannel-475 shoal complex towards a single channel configuration with fringing flats, is shown to be 476 primarily forced by the effects of land reclamation. Dredging works and channel re-alignment 477 478 have likely accelerated these developments. The centennial-scale historical analysis shows that estuarine systems follow the evolutionary trajectory predicted by tidal asymmetry-479 based stability theory as they move toward a new equilibrium configuration with mod-480 ified tidal flats and channels. The channel pattern transition - from a multichannel sin-481 gle channel system - is found to be related to the changes in tidal prism and the width 482 to depth ratio of the estuary. 483



Figure 1. Land surface reclaimed in the region of the Ems estuary, with the year of completion indicated in the reclaimed area. The background color-scale visualizes the present-day topo-bathymetric Digital Elevation Model, compiled from multiple sources (see Open Research section, Section 5)



Figure 2. Cumulative area reclaimed since the 12th century, summed over half-century periods and subdivided for each defined land reclamation region.



Figure 3. Centennial morphological evolution of the Ems estuary, based on: historical reconstructions of Lang (1954) (a, b); reconstructed subtidal bathymetry from H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019) (c, d); and compiled datasets of echo sounding observations from the years 1985 and 1996 (e) and the years 2016 and 2020 (f). The Mean Low Water line is shown in red (a, b) and black (c, d, e, f). On the two most recent maps (e, f) the present-day outline of the estuary is shown and the dotted lines indicate the extent of the Rijkswaterstaat datasets.



Figure 4. Subtidal and intertidal surface area (A) and subtidal to intertidal surface area ratio (A_s/A_c) in the estuarine zone, excluding the mouth zone (see Figure 1 for the demarcation of the estuarine zone). The zigzags on the x-axis indicate a time-scaling discontinuity.



Figure 5. Relative change of the subtidal (below Mean Low Water) area A_{sub} (a), mean water depth \overline{WD}_{sub} (b, with negative values implying shallower channels) and volume $V_{sub}(c)$ with respect to the same properties derived from the first available subtidal bathymetry (1833 or 1888), depending on the region.



Figure 6. Channel width W_{cs} (a), deepest point Zb_{cs} (b), and cross-sectional volume V_{cs} (c) along the cross-section A-A' in Figure 1. Note that the channel geometry metrics are shown for time periods with data availability, leading to a longer time span in panel a (indicated by a gray patch) than in panels b and c. Channel width in panel shows averaged values for years with multiple sources available.



Figure 7. Tidal asymmetry based on the stability diagram in Zhou et al. (2018). For the Ems estuary data, V_s/V_c is derived by applying equations 1 and 2 on the surface areas from the morphological reconstructions, the tidal amplitude *a* is assumed constant at 1.2 m, and the mean water depth *h* is derived from linear interpolation and extrapolation (red data points) on the sub-tidal DEMs. The stability curves represent the analytical expressions derived by Dronkers (2016) with $\gamma = [1,2]$.

Year	Format & resolu- tion	Original source	Digitized source
1580	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1650	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1650	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstruction (Homeier, 1962)	Herrling and Niemeyer
	supratidal contours		(2007)
1720	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1750	MLW, MHW and supratidal contours	Hist. reconstruction (Homeier, 1962)	Herrling and Niemeyer (2007)
1790	MLW contours	Hist, reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1812	LLW contours	Hist reconstruction (Gerritsen 1952)	This article
1833	Gridded (100x100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	 H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019)
1855	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstruction (Stratingh & Ven-	De Jong (2006)
	supratidal contours	ema, 1855; Gerritsen, 1952)	<u> </u>
1860	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1860	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstructions (Homeier, 1962;	Herrling and Niemeyer
	supratidal contours	Gerritsen, 1952)	(2007)
1873	MLW contours	Hist. reconstruction (Gerritsen, 1952)	This article
1888	Gridded (100x100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense,	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022);
	× ,	Hist. reconstruction Relative change of the subtidal (Homeier, 1962)	H. Pierik (2019)
1898	Gridded $(20x20)$	Nautical charts Ems Mündung (1:50000) & Die Ems Von Delfzijl Bis Pogum (1:25000) von Beichs Marine Amt	This article
1901	MLW contours	Hist, reconstruction Gerritsen (1952)	This article
1928	Gridded (100x100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019)
1930	MLW contours	Hist, reconstruction (Lang, 1954)	This article
1937	Gridded (5x5)	Depth soundings (German marine, RWS, Waterway agency Emden & Mep- pen)	Herrling and Niemeyer (2008)
1953	Gridded (100×100)	Nautical chart Dutch dep. of defense	H. J. Pierik et al. (2022); H. Pierik (2019)
1960	MLW, MHW and	Hist. reconstructions (Homeier, 1962;	Herrling and Niemever
	supratidal contours	Gerritsen, 1952)	(2007)
1985	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
1990	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
1996	Gridded (10×10)	Echo soundings	Sievers et al. (2021)
1997	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2001	Gridded $(20x20)$	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2005	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2008	Gridded (20x20)	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2010	Gridded (25x25)	Echo soundings	WSA Emden
2014	Gridded $(20x20)$	Echo soundings	Rijkswaterstaat
2016	Gridded (10x10)	Echo soundings	Sievers et al. (2021)
2020	Gridded (20×20)	Echo soundings	Riikswaterstaat

Table 1. Overview of the type and sources of the geospatial datasets gathered and digitized for this study.

484 Open Research Section

Figure 1 is compiled from various sources of topo-bathymetric data to construct 485 a full coverage DEM, all sources are publicibly available. The data sources include the 486 land surface topography at 25 m resolution provided by Copernicus (EU-DEM - version 487 1.1, Apr. 2016; https://doi.org/10.5270/ESA-c5d3d65), subaqueous bathymetry of 488 the North Sea at ≈ 90 m resolution provided by the European Marine Observation and 489 Data Network (EMODnet - https://emodnet.ec.europa.eu/en/bathymetry) and the 490 coastal bathymetry which was requested through the servicedesk data of Rijkswaterstaat 491 (https://www.rijkswaterstaat.nl/formulieren/contactformulier-servicedesk 492 -data). 493

The main sources for the reconstruction of the land reclamation history are geospatial datasets with the location of historical embankments (https://geoportaal.provinciegroningen .nl/portal/apps/experiencebuilder/experience/?id=9e93c75c4e5e47a584829e1deb0ad5f6) and the National Historical Culture registry (https://nationaalgeoregister.nl/geonetwork/ srv/dut/catalog.search#/metadata/9a9cef3a-2dfc-4aa8-b248-f73f4064d7ad). The land reclamations reconstructions are published (Schrijvershof, 2024) and available at

4TU.ResearchData (https://data.4tu.nl/datasets/78ac0cf9-e9f7-47c7-8c4e-93f7fb2c633e/
 1).

The morphological reconstructions are based on a large number of historical maps, 502 reconstructions and data sources, all listed in Table 1. All maps that were georeferenced 503 and digitized (MLW, MHW, and supratidal contours) in this study (Lang, 1954; Ger-504 ritsen, 1952) and the the maps of Homeier (1962) are included in Schrijvershof (2024). 505 The digitized reconstructions made by Herrling and Niemeyer (2007) from the maps of 506 Homeier (1962) were provided by the Niedersächsischer Landesbetrieb für Wasserwirtschaft, Küsten-und Natur- schutz (NLWKN) and can be contacted for the data. The gridded 508 (subtidal) bathymetry datasets are available through the references included in Table 509 1 and therefore not included in Schrijvershof (2024). 510

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Supporting Information for "Land reclamation controls on multi-centennial evolution of the Ems Estuary"

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8. Table S1: Major anthropogenic interventions in the Ems estuary

This supplement outlines contextual background information on the historal landscape development in the Ems estuary, and the most important human-landscape elements besides the land reclamations.

1. Text S1: Historical landscape setting

1.1. Palaeogeography

The Ems estuary is a meso-tidal system located on the border between the Netherlands and Germany and part of the larger Wadden Sea tidal lagoon. The present-day geomorphological setting of the estuary is largely inherited from the Early to Mid-Holocene development of the Wadden Sea region, after which it transformed into a marine environment under a fast-rising sealevel (van der Spek, 1994; de Haas et al., 2018). After the Last Glacial Period (the Weichselian), lower-lying Pleistocene valley systems drowned under the rapidly rising sealevel (van der Spek, 1994). The first Holocene tidal basins and estuaries developed by channel erosion of the Pleistocene substrate and became progressively deeper because of sealevel rise. These tidal systems required sediments to keep pace with sealevel rise, resulting in erosion of the adjacent coastline and the North Sea. Early Holocene sealevel rise rates exceeded sediment availability and as a result the Wadden islands, tidal basins, and estuaries migrated landwards (van der Spek, 1994). The sealevel rise rate decreased between 7000 Before Present (B.P.) - 5500 B.P. to 0.15 m/century (Meijles et al., 2018), and the Early Holocene tidal basins started to fill in with deltaic sediments.

The tidal channels silted up, salt marshes formed along the coastline, and the drainage of the back-barrier basin deteriorated, creating favorable conditions for the formation

and expansion of peatlands (Figure S1a). Between 5000 B.P. and 4250 B.P., sediment supply to the basins exceeded sealevel rise rate (Cleveringa, 2000), leading to a transition from coastline transgression to regression. Salt marshes along the coastal margins did not expand further seaward because of the stable sealevel and became more vulnerable to erosion during storm surges. From 2500 B.P. till present the sea regularly flooded the coastal peat area in the back-barrier basin, often following the paths of existing drainage systems (van der Spek, 1994). Erosion of the back-barrier peat bogs led to expansion of the tidal embayments and increasing tidal channels and inlet size. Eventually, the regular flooding led to more efficient natural drainage of the peatlands, strengthening oxidation and therefore subsidence. Clay deposited on the peatlands during subsequent storm surge induced flooding, increasing the sediment load on the peatlands, exacerbating the subsidence process (known as auto-compaction). From the Late Iron age (400 - 800 AD) onwards, however, human involvement dominated the landscape development by artificially draining the margins of the coastal peatlandscape.

1.2. Formation of storm surge basins

Early habitation in the Ems estuary region concentrated on high grounds of natural levees and sand ridges around 100 A.D (Anno Domini). The regularly flooding landscapes were settled by constructing dwelling mounds (Figure S1b). The peatlands surrounding the settlements were fertile grounds, but needed artificial drainage for agriculture. Oxidation of the peat, and peat extraction, led to subsidence and land surface heights lowered below the high water storm surge level. The first artificial levees (embankments) were therefore constructed in the 12th and 13th century at the border of the salt marshes and the peatlands (Figure S1b). The protected lands provided a safe and productive area,

allowing the region to flourish and population density to increase. Extreme high water levels in the estuary, however, increased because storm surge waves were less effectively attenuated over the (partly) embanked tidal marshes while the embanked land progressively lowered because of subsidence. This created a vulnerable situation for the low lying peatlands protected by basic earthen embankments.

The Ley bay (Figure S1c) probably resulted from a storm surge breach on December 26, 838 A.D¹. Its largest extent, however, was reached after two storm surges in the years 1374 and 1376 (Homeier, 1962)^{2,3}. Formation of the Dollard bay (referring it's name to 'Dolle aarde', Dutch for 'mad lands') has been clouded with mythical anecdotes, that have persisted for many centuries (Knottnerus, 2013). Historical geographical maps of the Dollard expansion often date the storm-surge flooding disaster to the year 1277 (Figure S2). The date originates from a 16th century missal that assigns the storm surge breach to a divine vengeance for the victims' sinning and contentiousness, in which 33 villages were swept away in the disaster (Knottnerus, 2013). Palaeogeographic reconstructions, however, indicate that the first large breaches occurred in the 15th century and were mainly a consequence of landscape developments (P. C. Vos & Knol, 2013) and negligence of the land owners in maintenance of the embankments (Knottnerus, 2013). The Eastern part of the Dollard basin formed in the 15th century (Figure S1c). After the Second Cosmas and Damianus storm surge on 26 September 1509 formed the western inlet, the Dollard bay reached its largest extent (Figure S1d).

The shape of the newly formed Dollard bay reflects the position of former Pleistocene valley systems, which were filled with peat in the early Holocene (P. C. Vos & Knol, 2013). A secondary, adverse, effect of the formation of the Dollard bay was a redistribution of

the tidal prism at the river-estuary transition. The channel along the port city of Emden (located at a meander bend of the Ems river; Figure S2), started to degenerate leading to an obstruction of the harbors entrance. In an effort to guide the tidal and river flow towards the channel near Emden, a 4.5 kilometer long stockage (a barrier from upright wooden posts) was constructed: the Nesserlander head⁴ (1585 - 1616). These water works can be considered as one of the first large engineering works in the Ems estuary. The flow-diverting stockage failed eventually because maintenance was costly and abandoned in 1631. The main tidal flow from the Ems Estuary was now towards the Dollard bay rather than the upper Ems Estuary, and carried sediments that led to rapid sedimentation in the embayment and development of tidal (fringing) flats.

2. Text S2: Human-landscape interaction

2.1. Channel re-alignment and dredging

Human interference in the Ems estuary intensified in the second half of the 19th century as the expansion of seaports led to more extensive fairway requirements to accommodate increasing ship traffic and size. Navigation benefits from deep, well-accessible, and wellconnected fairways to facilitate the shortest travel route from port to outer sea. In this context several fairway re-alignment works have been implemented and channel deepening and associated maintenance dredging is performed on a regular basis.

A large shoal, called Geise shoal, separates Dollard Bay from the main tidal channel connected to the Ems river (see Figure 1 in the paper). Hydraulic construction works consisting of groynes and longitudinal training walls were built on the tidal flats flanking the fairway to concentrate tidal and river flow and to prevent navigational-hindering lateral flow (Figure S3). A secondary effect of the construction of the channel re-alignment

works on the Geise shoal is a redirection of tidal flows in to Dollard Bay, towards an east-west orientation. As a result, the western Dollard Bay channels decreased in size (Gerritsen, 1955). In 1933 a bended longitudinal training wall was completed at the southern side of the eastern central-estuary channel (Figure S3); the Rysumer Nacken training wall (Figure 1 in the main text). The purpose of the training wall was to guide the tidal flow through the main tidal channel, instead of over the tidal flats as flood chutes. As a result of this dam the fairway deepened and stabilized.

The fairway re-alignment works were combined with regularly executed maintenance dredging to maintain fairway depths, specifically at channel bifurcations/confluences where sediment transport diverges and sills are formed. Dredging started probably in the late 19th century (Figure S3). Dredging volumes, however, increased substantially in the 1960s through the 1980s to an averaged 10 * 10⁶ ton/year (Van Maren et al., 2016), because of increasing ship traffic and size requiring progressively deeper access channels (Essink et al., 1992). The main dredged material disposal sites are the Dollard entrance channel (up to approximately 2010), the central-estuary western channel up to 1973 (Figure S3), a channel in the western Ems inlet, and the connection between the eastern tidal inlet and main estuary (Boon et al., 2002).

The most recent major flow-regulating construction in the Ems estuary was the the Ems storm surge barrier completed in 2003. The barrier closes during storm surges to prevent flooding of the lands surrounding the Ems river and is also used approximately twice a year to increase navigational draft for cruise ships build upstream (Talke & de Swart, 2006) by storing water. In the near future, the storm surge barrier will be used

additionally to regulate tidal flow into the Ems river with the purpose of controlling fine sediment import (Oberrecht & Wurpts, 2014).





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Notes

2. https://www.nlwkn.niedersachsen.de/startseite/hochwasser_kustenschutz/kustenschutz/ausgewahlte_projekte/kustenschutz _projekt_leybucht/kuestenschutz-projekt-leybucht-43552.html

3. http://www.michaeltillheinze.de/f_k1989/f_k890223.htm#1

4. https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nesserlander_Hoofd

^{1.} https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leybucht



Figure S1. Palaeogeographic maps showing (a) the situation of the northeast Netherlands and northwest Germany around 800 A.D., and the situation for the Ems estuary April 13, 2024, 1:47pm around 1250 A.D. (b), 1500 A.D. (c), and 1550 A.D. (d) showing the formation of the storm-surge formed Ley bay and Dollard bay. Figure is produced with data from P. Vos et al. (2020) and P. C. Vos and Knol (2015, 2013).



Figure S2. "Submerged lands of the Dollard" (Hendricus Teysinga, 1735). The maps shows the extent of the Dollard Bay and the towns lost in the storm surge. The map subscription, written in Old Dutch and, wrongfully, dating the event to the year 1277 (see main text), translates: "The 25 December 1277 storm surge flooding submerged and destroyed 33 villages, including thousands of inhabitants and livestock. The flooding disaster, likewise the previous flood [13 January 1277], repeated three quarters of a year later and created a breach at the village Jansum to create the Dollard expansion. The cause of the disaster can be found in quarrel: the villagers living near the dyke were unable to restore the dyke and those living at a distance felt irresponsible."



Figure S3. Time line of land reclamations, and most important dredging, disposal, and hydraulic re-alignment works in the Ems estuary.

Start	End	Intervention
$12^{\rm th}$ century	13^{th} century	Embankment of Ems river and Ems estuary
$11^{\rm th}$ century	13^{th} century	Sielmönken bay reclamations
1190	1944	Fivel bay reclamations
1400	1999	Ley bay reclamations
1509	1924	Dollard bay reclamations
1583	1631	Construction and operation of Nesserlander head
1860		Start canalization Lower Ems river
1870	1871	Construction of rubble mounted groynes on the Geise Sand bank
1897	1899	Construction first weir at Herbrum
1898		Start dredging Oost Friesche Gaatje
1899		Tidal barrier upper Ems river (at Herbrum)
1907		Sluice Nieuwe Statenzijl constructed
1912	1924	Land reclamations Emden
1911	1929	
		Lower Ems maintenance depth at 5 m
		Upper Ems maintenance depth at $4.0 - 5.0$ m
1930	1935	Extension Geise training dam
1932		Construction bended training wall at Rysumer Nacken
1932	1939	Lower Ems maintenance depth at 5.5 m
1958	1961	Construction Geiseleit training wall
1959		Construction Harbor at Leer (Lower Ems river)
1960		Extraction gas from Groningen field starts
1961	1962	Narrowing river bed between Herbrum and Papenburg
1960	1964	Land reclamation Rysumer Nacken
	1969	Closure Lauwerszee
	1972	
		Reconstruction of Delfzijl harbor entrance channel
		Dredging at Bocht van Watum is stopped
1970	1973	Construction Seaport Eemshaven
	1985	Lower Ems maintenance depth at 5.7 $\rm m$
	1991	New sluice and watergate at Nieuwe Statenzijl
	1992	Lower Ems maintenance depth at 6.5 - 6.8 m $$
	1994	Lower Ems maintenance depth at 7.3 m
2002	2003	Storm surge barrier Gandersum (Emssperrwerk)

 Table S1.
 Major anthropogenic interventions in the Ems estuary.



April 13, 2024, 1:47pm

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April 13, 2024

Dr. K.K. Caylor Editor-in-chief Earth's Future

Dear Dr. K.K. Caylor

I am pleased to submit a research article entitled 'Land Reclamation Controls on Multi-Centennial Estuarine Evolution' by Reinier Schrijvershof, Bas van Maren, Mick van der Wegen, and Ton Hoitink. Intertidal areas are wetlands that alternate between being flooded by tides and a state of exposure. The submitted manuscript reports a study that investigates the impact of reclaiming intertidal areas on estuarine landscape development. Relatively little is known about land reclamation effects on estuary evolution, because observations taken in recent history display the effect of multiple natural and human-induced controls. Human-forced changes in intertidal areas potentially impact coastal evolution for centuries, and few studies have addressed this multi-centennial evolution.

We address this knowledge gap by focusing on the reclamation of intertidal embayments along the Ems estuary, which were mostly formed during storm surges in the 16th century. We use historical maps to build an open access digital dataset that covers the complete adaptation period since that time, and show that the present-day morphology is still adapting to the large-scale and continued land reclamation works over the past centuries.

We believe the manuscript is of interest to readers in the journal *Earth's Future*, because it emphasizes that future morphological developments of our coastal systems (estuaries and tidal basins) will still inherit the lagged effects of Medieval land reclamations. This bears relevance for coastal management, because additional interventions will cumulatively impact estuarine systems that are still adapting to past interventions. The manuscript is original and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere. Furthermore, there are no conflicts of interest to disclose. If the manuscript is considered appropriate for the journal, we suggest the following reviewers:

- Dr. Zeng Zhou (zeng.zhou@hhu.edu.cn)
- Dr. Leicheng Guo (lcguo@sklec.ecnu.edu.cn)
- Dr. Chris Paolo (cpaola@umn.edu)
- Dr. Alvise Finotello (alvise.finotello@unipd.it)

Thank you for considering our manuscript for publication in Earth's Future.

Sincerely,

R.A. Schrijvershof, MSc.