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1 **Evolution of a salt marsh in the southeastern North Sea region – anthropogenic**  
2 **and natural forcing**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Salt-marsh sediments of the southeastern North Sea provide an archive to unravel the  
15 influences of coastal management and natural processes such as storm-tide deposition on  
16 salt-marsh development. We present a record of salt-marsh evolution during the past century  
17 from the Bay of Tümlau (northwestern Germany) based on fossil foraminiferal assemblages  
18 and sedimentological data. After diking the hinterland of the Bay of Tümlau in 1935 CE and  
19 commencing marsh management, the environment at the study site changed from a tidal flat  
20 to a salt marsh. Salt-marsh sediment accretion is influenced by recurrent dredging events, as  
21 indicated by layers rich in calcareous tidal-flat foraminifera, and redeposition of siliciclastic  
22 particles from the surrounding tidal flats during storm tides. The latter fostered the  
23 establishment of a typical salt-marsh foraminiferal fauna dominated by the agglutinating  
24 species *Entzia macrescens*. Storm-tide layers have a lighter sediment color and commonly a  
25 more negatively skewed grain-size distribution with variable sorting. The observed long-term

26 coarsening of the salt-marsh sediment likely reflects the landward progression of the vertical  
27 erosional cliff and the depletion of fine-grained sediment particles in the tidal flats under the  
28 influence of sea-level rise. Supra-tidal conditions, resulting from natural protection measures  
29 and abandonment of dredging, are indicated by the occurrence of *Balticammina*  
30 *pseudomacrescens* around 2001 CE. This species is adapted to only occasional  
31 submergence during storm tides. The recent increase in elevation is accompanied by  
32 establishment of high-marsh vegetation and characterized by a present height of the marsh  
33 surface 50 cm above mean high water springs. During the past sixty years, average  
34 sediment accretion rates decreased from 18 to 11 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> reflecting the maturing of the salt  
35 marsh. These rates clearly outpace the recent mean sea-level rise in the southern North Sea  
36 demonstrating that the regional salt marshes are still resilient to sea-level rise.

37

38 Keywords: Salt-marsh evolution, coastal management, foraminifera, grain-size distribution,  
39 storm tides, sea level rise

40

## 41 **1 Introduction**

42 The southeastern North Sea region is frequently affected by storms and experienced the  
43 most and highest storm tides of the entire North Sea coast during the past centuries  
44 (Tomczak, 1952; Gerber et al., 2016). Hence, storm-tide protection management is crucial  
45 for populated regions such as the German North Sea coast, especially since the regional  
46 mean sea-level rise has a linear long-term trend of a  $2.4 \pm 0.1$  mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, as recorded by the  
47 Cuxhaven tide gauge over the period from 1871 to 2008 CE (Dangendorf et al., 2012, 2013).  
48 The impacts of tides, storm tides and waves on North Sea coasts, in a context of sea-level  
49 rise, and their importance when considering coastal defense strategies have been discussed  
50 for a long time (Grossmann, 1916; Schelling, 1952), although are still not well understood  
51 (Möller et al., 2014; Arns, 2017). In this context, it is essential to understand the function of

52 salt marshes in attenuating storm-tide energy and their long-term resilience to storm tides  
53 with respect to lateral and surface erosion and sediment accretion (Möller et al., 2014;  
54 Karimpour et al., 2017).

55 Storm tides (defined as water levels exceeding mean high water by at least 1.5 m; Müller-  
56 Navarra et al., 2013; Gerber et al. 2016) occur during almost every winter, with on average  
57 five storm tides per season (Gerber et al., 2016). Severe storm tides (water levels exceeding  
58 mean high water by at least 2.5 m; Müller-Navarra et al., 2013; Gerber et al. 2016)  
59 repeatedly impacted the coastal region and led to dike failures, losses of marsh areas and  
60 numerous casualties. Examples include the so-called 'Grote Mandränke' in 1362 CE (Lamb,  
61 1991; Meier, 2004) but also more recent events in 1962 CE and 1976 CE (Zitscher et al.,  
62 1979; Gerber et al., 2016). Storm tides deposit large amounts of suspended matter onto the  
63 salt-marsh surface when current velocity slows down due to friction with the vegetation cover  
64 while storm waves propagate inland (Turner et al., 2006; Kirwan and Megonigal, 2013;  
65 Schuerch et al., 2014; Fagherazzi, 2014; Leonardi et al., 2018). Consequently, storm tides  
66 foster enhanced sediment deposition on salt marshes, and their surface may exceed mean  
67 high water spring, independently from regional relative sea-level changes (Allen, 1990). This  
68 stands in contrast to regular mean high tides, where sediment accretion is minor to non-  
69 existent, as marsh surfaces elevate to and exceed mean high-tide level. Numerical modeling  
70 indicates that in areas with a tidal range below 3 m and suspended sediment concentrations  
71 <30 mg/l regular high tides may not supply the amount of material needed to outpace  
72 accelerated sea-level rise (Kirwan et al., 2010). As a result, low marshes, which are  
73 submerged for longer time periods during regular high waters, exhibit higher depositional  
74 rates compared to high marshes (Kirwan and Megonigal, 2013). Results from a salt marsh  
75 on the island of Sylt revealed that the sediment accretion rate of low marshes is proportional  
76 to mean storm strength, while in high marshes it is mainly controlled by storm frequency  
77 (Schuerch et al., 2012). Model results further suggest that an increase in storm frequency  
78 can raise the ability of salt marshes to keep up with a sea-level rise of up to 3 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> if

79 sediment supply is high enough (Kirwan et al., 2010; Schuerch et al., 2013) and  
80 accommodation space is available (Schuerch et al., 2018).

81 The grain-size spectrum of siliciclastic sediments depends on the grain sizes available during  
82 sedimentation and the hydrodynamic conditions during settling of particles and final burial by  
83 subsequently deposited material. The availability of siliciclastic particles is controlled by the  
84 sediment source and the processes of transport and sedimentation which could alter the  
85 original grain-size spectrum. Post-sedimentary alteration includes winnowing, i.e. the  
86 depletion of fines due to reworking, or enrichment of the fine fraction by subsequent filling of  
87 open pore space under lower energetic conditions. Mobilization of fine-grained material and  
88 subsequent mud enrichment in storm-tide deposits has been observed in salt-marsh  
89 sequences elsewhere (Reineck and Singh, 1975; Bartholdy, 2012).

90 Tidal flats and salt marshes are populated by benthic foraminifera. The different taxa exhibit  
91 a distinct vertical zonation relative to the tidal frame, and hence elevation in relation to mean  
92 sea level (Scott and Medioli, 1978, 1980). In this context, salt-marsh foraminifera provide an  
93 important tool for the reconstruction of past relative sea-level changes by using transfer  
94 functions (Guilbault et al., 1995; Horton and Edwards, 2006; Gehrels et al., 2006; Kemp et al,  
95 2013; 2017) but can also be applied to the paleo-environmental reconstruction of salt  
96 marshes (Cearreta et al., 2013; Francescangeli et al., 2016; 2017). Foraminifera can also be  
97 used for the identification of events of sediment reworking such as storm layers in salt-marsh  
98 deposits (Scott et al., 2003; Kortekaas and Dawson, 2007). Fossil storm layers in salt  
99 marshes likely contain allochthonous calcareous foraminifera from tidal flats while the  
100 autochthonous fauna mainly comprises arenaceous taxa in salt marshes. The application of  
101 this proxy can be limited by the dissolution of calcareous tests, which occurs in many salt  
102 marshes worldwide (Jonasson and Patterson, 1992; Murray and Alve, 1999; Horton and  
103 Murray, 2006; Berkeley et al., 2007; Hawkes et al., 2010; Milker et al., 2015). Allochthonous  
104 foraminiferal tests may also be introduced on the sediment surface during dredging of  
105 ditches in managed salt marshes but this process has not been studied so far. The

106 distribution patterns of modern foraminifera in ditched and grazed salt marshes of the  
107 southeastern North Sea lack a clear separation between low- middle- and high-marsh  
108 faunas. Instead, the different species reflect the anthropogenic impacts and inhabit specific  
109 niches on the salt marsh, in ditches and ponds, depending on substrate, submergence  
110 frequency and pH (Müller-Navarra et al., 2016).

111 This study focuses on the temporal evolution of a managed salt marsh with artificial drainage  
112 system from the southeastern North Sea coastal region (Bay of Tümlau on Eiderstedt,  
113 northwestern Germany) during approximately the last century. We use the fossil foraminiferal  
114 assemblages preserved in the sediment section (TB13-1) to characterize the paleo-  
115 environment, specifically changes in the vertical elevation and reworking. In addition, grain-  
116 size data from this and adjacent sections TB17-1 and TB17-2 characterize storm-tide  
117 deposits and their role in the salt-marsh evolution of the Bay of Tümlau. Based on this, we  
118 address the following questions: (1) Which natural and anthropogenic processes controlled  
119 the salt-marsh evolution in the Bay of Tümlau during the past century; (2) what are the  
120 micropaleontological and sedimentological characteristics of dredging and storm-tide layers  
121 in the salt-marsh; and (3) what controls the vertical sediment accretion and lateral erosion of  
122 salt marshes and its resilience to sea-level rise?

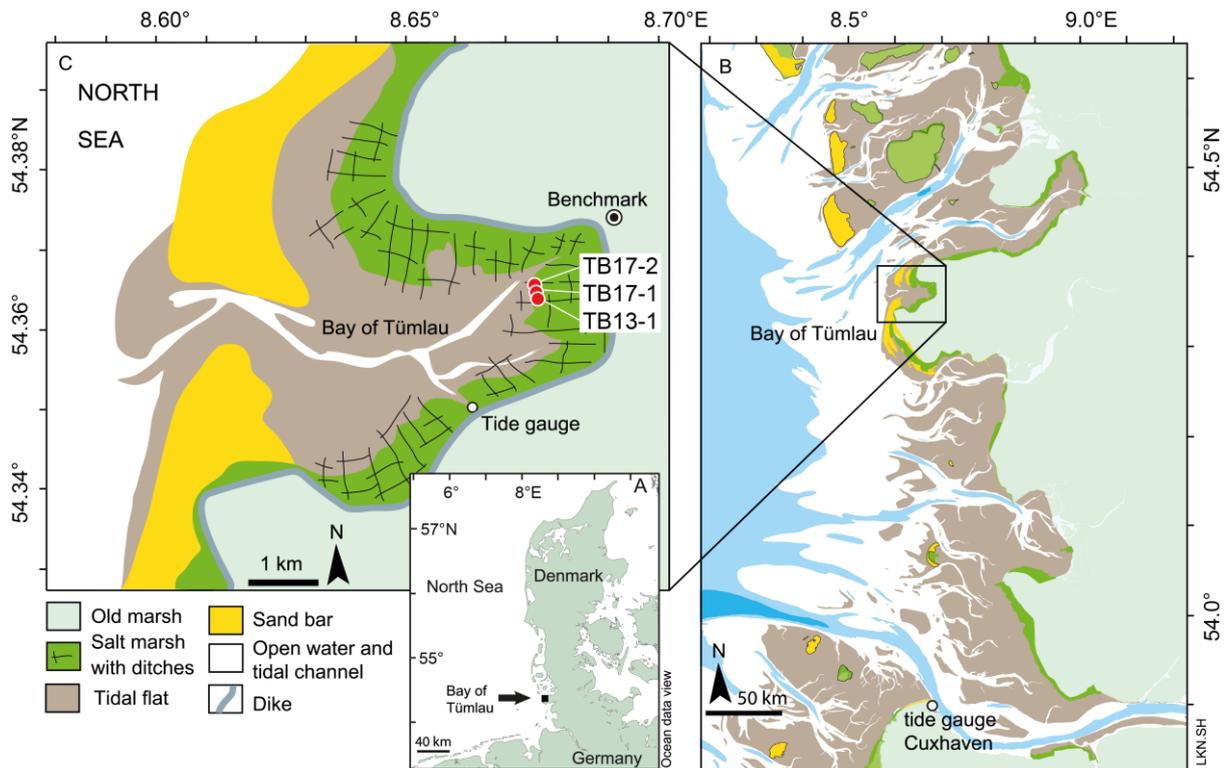
123

## 124 **2 Study area**

125 The southeastern German North Sea coast is fringed by approximately 100 km<sup>2</sup> of salt  
126 marshes, of which 60 km<sup>2</sup> are located in the Wadden Sea National Park, and 36 km<sup>2</sup> are a  
127 nature reserve (Landesbetrieb für Küstenschutz, Nationalpark und Meeresschutz Schleswig-  
128 Holstein, LKN.SH, 2017). The salt marsh of the Bay of Tümlau is located on the Eiderstedt  
129 peninsula in the German Wadden Sea region (Fig. 1). Two inter- to subtidal sandy barriers  
130 fringe the bay since around 1878 CE (Hofstede, 1997). Eiderstedt peninsula itself was  
131 separated in several islands until around 1100 CE dikes were built in the hinterland of the  
132 bay to protect the region against storm tides (Meier, 2004).

133 The construction of groynes and management of artificial drainage systems aimed at  
 134 enhancing clastic sedimentation in most salt marshes along the German North Sea coast  
 135 (Stock, 2011). After the foundation of the Wadden Sea National Park in 1985 CE ditching  
 136 and dredging was abandoned successively in protected areas but the patterns of (formerly)  
 137 ditched salt marshes are still ubiquitous along the coast (Stock, 2011; Stock et al., 2005). In  
 138 the salt marsh of the Bay of Tümlau ditches were implemented at a spacing of ~10 m and  
 139 subsequently dredged every three to seven years (pers. comm. LKN.SH, 2017) for drainage  
 140 and land-reclamation purposes. Repeated vegetation monitoring and mapping confirmed this  
 141 development also for the Bay of Tümlau, where first patches of high marsh vegetation in the  
 142 vicinity of the location of our studied section were documented in 2001 (Stock et al., 2005).  
 143 Nowadays, the straight ditches are more and more filled with sediment and natural salt-  
 144 marsh vegetation and dendritic drainage system are gradually returning. The modern dike  
 145 prevents migration of the marsh belt further landwards. As a result, the marsh is under  
 146 erosion and now bordered by a cliff towards the tidal flat.

147



148

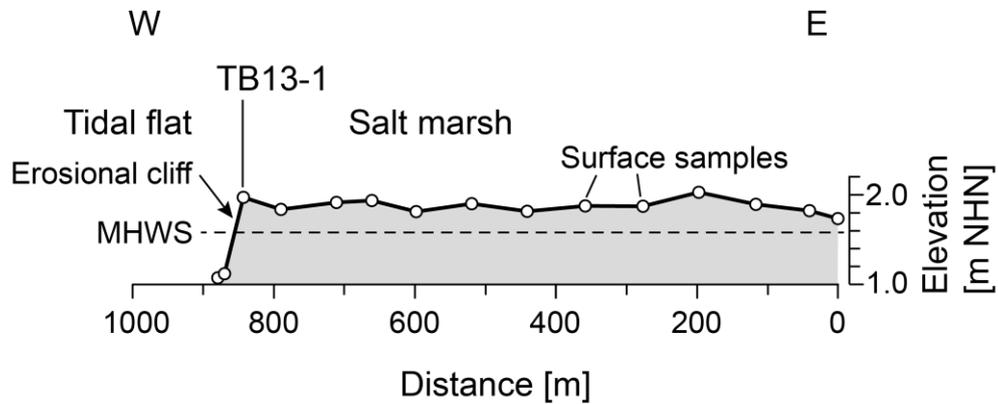
149 Figure 1: A) Overview of the southeastern North Sea region; B) North Frisian North Sea  
150 coast with intertidal areas and study area, and location of the tide gauge Cuxhaven; C) Bay  
151 of Tümlau on Eiderstedt peninsula with locations of study sites TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2,  
152 local tide gauge and benchmark. Topographic information after Landesbetrieb für  
153 Küstenschutz, Nationalpark und Meeresschutz Schleswig-Holstein LKN.SH (2017) and  
154 Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2014).

155

156 Historical maps show that the study area was a tidal flat in 1919 CE, and that first salt-marsh  
157 patches were present in 1943 CE after the polder “Tümlauer Koog” was separated from the  
158 southeastern part of the Bay of Tümlau by dike construction in 1935 CE (Königlich  
159 Preussische Landes-Aufnahme, 1879 with supplement of 1919; Reichsamt für  
160 Landesaufnahme, 1943). Today, the salt marsh exhibits zones of low, middle and high marsh  
161 areas, as defined by plants although the general topography is rather flat (Fig. 2; Müller-  
162 Navarra et al., 2016). The salt-marsh vegetation close to the studied erosional cliff includes  
163 *Artemisia maritima*, *Carex extensa*, *Halimone portulacoides*, and *Glaux maritima*, and hence  
164 represents a high-marsh zone. The region has semi-diurnal tides, and tidal range is 1.52 m  
165 (Müller-Navarra et al., 2016). Tidal datums of the “Tümlauer Hafen” tide gauge (tide gauge  
166 number 110016, observation period: 2001-2013), installed 1.4 km away from the location of  
167 the sediment succession (Fig. 1C), include: highest astronomical tide (HAT): 2.0 m  
168 “Normalhöhennull” (NHN; German reference datum), mean high water springs (MHWS): 1.59  
169 m NHN, mean high water (MHW): 1.44 m NHN, and mean low water (MLW): -0.07 m NHN. It  
170 should be noted that the tide gauge “Tümlauer Hafen” falls dry during low water so that the  
171 calculation of mean low water (MLW) is based on four nearby tide gauges, including Husum,  
172 Pellworm (Anleger), St. Peter Ording (Bad), and Stucklahnungshörn (observation period  
173 2010-2015). The modern salt-marsh surface lies 0.5 cm above MHWS and no spring waters  
174 above the elevation of the marsh surface are recorded at the tide gauge “Tümlauer Hafen”,  
175 thus the salt-marsh surface is only inundated during storm tides (Fig. 2). A total of 582 storm  
176 tides were recorded at Cuxhaven tide gauge between 1843 CE and 2013 CE (data provided

177 by the Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency, BSH), 50 km south of the Bay of Tümlau  
178 (Fig. 1B).

179



180

181 Figure 2: A) East-west surface transect F across the salt marsh in the Bay of Tümlau  
182 showing the erosional cliff, where sediment section TB13-1 was sampled (modified from  
183 Müller-Navarra et al., 2016). The dashed line marks mean high water spring (MHWS) in the  
184 Bay of Tümlau. Elevation is given in the German reference level "Normalhöhennull" (NHN).

185

### 186 3 Material and methods

#### 187 3.1 Salt-marsh sampling

188 For this study, a primary sediment section (TB13-1) was sampled at an erosional cliff for  
189 foraminiferal and grain-size analysis in August 14, 2013 CE (Fig. 1C; Table 1). Two adjacent  
190 sections (TB17-1 and TB17-2) were sampled for grain-size analyses in March 17, 2017 CE  
191 (Fig 1 C; Table 1). The location and elevation of the cliff surface at sites TB13-1, TB17-1 and  
192 TB17-2 were determined with reference to a base station (trigonometric point no. 1618 031  
193 10, Fig. 1C) by means of a Leica Geosystems AG, Viva Uno GNSS receiver, Type CS10,  
194 operated in real time kinematic mode. Raw data were processed using the software Geo  
195 Office 8.3 (Leica). Resulting uncertainty of elevations is <0.01 m. Sediment sampling was  
196 conducted using U-channels (each 120 cm long, 1.6 cm wide and 1.6 cm deep). The U-  
197 channels were pushed into the cleaned erosional face of the salt-marsh cliff and

198 subsequently detached by pulling a wire through the sediment behind the U-channels, which  
199 enables the recovery of undisturbed, vertical sediment successions (Fig. 3). In the laboratory,  
200 the sediment succession from site TB13-1 was described, photographed and three U-  
201 channels were sliced into 1 cm aliquots, each with a volume of  $\sim 2.56 \text{ cm}^3$ , for grain-size  
202 analyses, foraminiferal investigations, and age dating, respectively. The sediment sections  
203 TB17-1 and TB17-2 were sampled equidistantly ( $1.5 \text{ cm}^3$ , each cm) for grain-size analyses.  
204 Additionally, surface sediments along a coast normal transect (transect F; Fig. 2), deposited  
205 during the winter storm flood on January 31, 2013 CE, were sampled in April 2013 CE and  
206 also investigated for grain-size distribution.

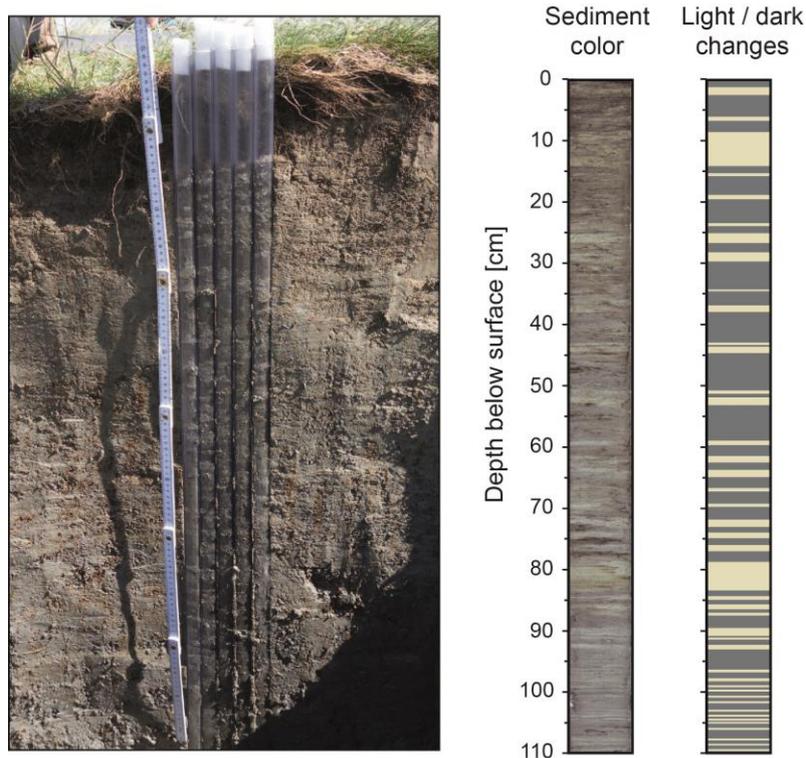
207

208 Table 1: Section number, sampling date, surface height, latitude and longitude of the study  
209 sites. NHN denotes the German reference level "Normalhöhenull".

Station	Sampling date	NHN [m]	Latitude [°N]	Longitude [°E]
TB13-1	14 August 2013	2.09	54.3646	8.6775
TB17-1	17 March 2017	2.11	54.3647	8.6762
TB17-2	17 March 2017	2.19	54.3650	8.6761

210

211



212

213 Figure 3: A) Picture of the sampling design showing five out of a total of 15 U-channels  
 214 pushed into the sediment of the erosional cliff; B) Picture of section TB13-1 and generalized  
 215 succession of lighter and darker layers.

216

### 217 3.2 Age dating

218 Chronologies of recent sediments up to an age of ca. 120 years can be inferred from e.g.,  
 219  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , a natural radioactive isotope of lead, in combination with independent time markers  
 220 like the artificial fallout products  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{241}\text{Am}$  (Appleby, 2002). A total of 38 samples were  
 221 taken from section TB13-1 to establish an age model. After determining porosity and density,  
 222 and drying and grinding, the samples were closed airtight. After four weeks, sediment  
 223 samples were gamma-counted for  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{214}\text{Bi}$ ,  $^{214}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  on a planar broad  
 224 energy GE detector (CANBERRA), and  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  ( $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ) and  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  were  
 225 calculated accordingly.  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  is constantly produced in the sediment by decay of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$   
 226 due to authigenic material, and was calculated using the activities of the  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  daughters  
 227  $^{214}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{214}\text{Bi}$  (295; 352; 609 keV lines). Subtracting  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  from the corresponding  
 228 total  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (46.6 keV line) in each sample results in  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$ , which originates from the

229 atmospheric deposition (Pittauerova, 2011). The CRS (constant rate of supply) model  
230 (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978) was applied to develop the sediment chronology and to  
231 calculate mass accumulation rates (MAR) as described in detail in Appleby (2002). The CRS  
232 model assumes a constant rate of supply of  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  from the atmosphere. Accordingly,  
233 the  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  activity of the sediment varies inversely proportional to the sedimentation  
234 rate, i.e., high sediment accumulation means lower  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  activity in the sediment due to  
235 dilution and vice versa. In order to support the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ -based age model, Cesium ( $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ) and  
236 Americium ( $^{241}\text{Am}$ ) were measured and used as independent time markers as well  
237 (Pennington et al., 1973; Hardy et al., 1973).  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  has strongest peaks in 1963 CE, which  
238 marks the end of the atmospheric fallout from nuclear bomb testing, and in 1986 CE due to  
239 the Chernobyl accident. An additional minor peak can be probably associated with the  
240 Sellafield accident in 1957 (Ehlers et al., 1993). The  $^{241}\text{Am}$  time marker forms by decay of  
241  $^{239}\text{Pu}$ , originating from fallout of atmospheric nuclear-weapons tests debris and marks the  
242 period of nuclear tests from 1952-1963 CE, with the strongest signal in 1963 CE. The  
243 distribution of errors in the measured activities is approximated by Gaussian (normal)  
244 distribution, and given as 1-sigma counting errors. The errors for sediment ages and MAR  
245 are calculated by error propagation (Binford, 1990) as the square root of the sum of the  
246 squares of the uncertainties of the individual variables, assuming normal distribution. The  
247 estimated errors in sediment ages are  $\pm 10$  years and  $>50$  years in the upper and lower parts  
248 of the section, respectively (Fig. 4).

249

### 250 **3.3 Grain-size analyses**

251 All samples for grain-size analysis were treated with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  prior to measurement to oxidize  
252 the organic matter and subsequently sieved using a 2000  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve to remove large plant  
253 remains. Samples were then suspended in water with addition of a 0.05%-solution of Tetra-  
254 Sodium Diphosphate Decahydrate ( $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7 \times 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) as a dispersing agent. The particle-  
255 size distributions of the samples were determined by means of a Sympatec Helos/KF Magic

256 laser diffraction particle sizer (measuring range 0.5/18-3500 µm). Grain-size statistics,  
257 including mean grain size, skewness and sorting, were calculated using GRADISTAT (Blott  
258 and Pye, 2001), and are based on the graphical method (Folk and Ward, 1957).

259

### 260 **3.4 Foraminiferal analyses**

261 For foraminiferal analyses, 106 samples were wet sieved over 63 µm and 500 µm sieves  
262 from sediment section TB13-1. The fraction 63-500 µm was divided into equal aliquots by  
263 using a wet-splitter after Scott and Hermelin (1993) and by applying the procedure described  
264 in Gehrels (2002). Around 200 specimens per sample were counted under a  
265 stereomicroscope. The identification of foraminiferal taxa was based on Murray (1971, 1979),  
266 Gehrels and Newman (2004), and Müller-Navarra et al. (2016, 2017). Based on the census  
267 counts, the total foraminiferal density (per 10 cm<sup>3</sup> sediment volume) and the ratio of  
268 calcareous to agglutinated species were calculated. For quantification of reworked tidal flat  
269 foraminifera in the salt-marsh sediments a reworking index has been developed referring the  
270 relative abundance of *Elphidium excavatum* to the sum of *E. excavatum* and all agglutinated  
271 taxa (% *E. excavatum* / (% *E. excavatum* + % agglutinated taxa)). In the Bay of Tümlau, the  
272 modern occurrence of *Elphidium excavatum* is restricted to the tidal flats and ditches while  
273 agglutinating taxa only inhabit the salt marsh (Müller-Navarra et al., 2016).

274

## 275 **4 Results**

### 276 **4.1 Sedimentology of section TB13-1**

277 The sediments in section TB13-1 mainly consist of sandy mud. The dominant sediment color  
278 is dark-greenish gray in the lower part, which turns into a dark reddish grey in the uppermost  
279 24 cm (Fig. 3). Intercalations of thin light greenish gray layers of variable thickness are  
280 observed throughout the section, which likely contain a lower amount of organic matter  
281 and/or less sulfides in the lower part of the section. In the lowermost part, between 110 and

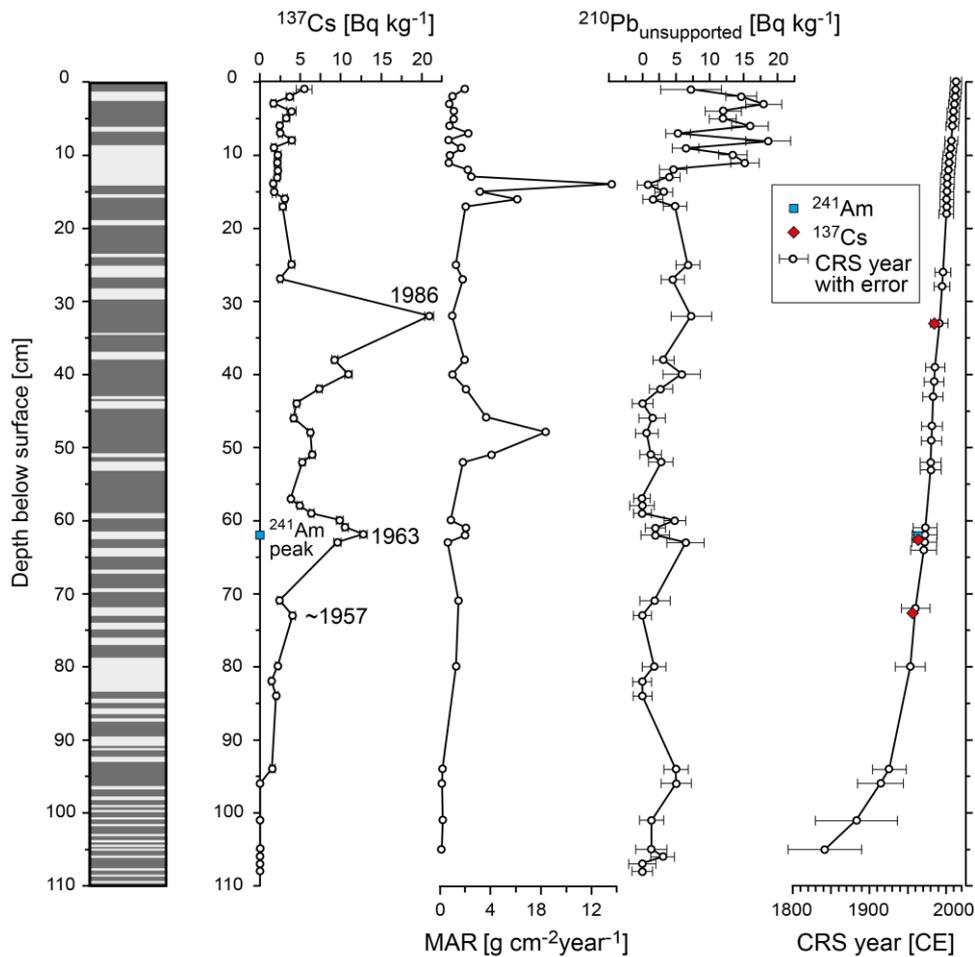
282 96 cm depth, the section is finely laminated including frequent intercalations of lighter  
283 intervals, each with a thickness of a few mm. In the upper part of the section, the lighter  
284 layers have a higher thickness ranging from a few mm to up to 3 cm and are more unevenly  
285 spaced. Between 84 and 27 cm the sediment section contains some horizons with iron  
286 oxides as indicated by dark reddish color.

287

#### 288 **4.2 Distribution of radiogenic isotopes and age dating**

289 The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  record exhibits two distinct peaks at 32 cm and 62 cm depths. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  peak at  
290 62 cm is associated with a distinctive  $^{241}\text{Am}$  peak (Fig. 4). Below 95 cm depth,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activities  
291 approach zero. The  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  declines quasi exponentially down to zero with depth (Fig.  
292 4). According to its half-life of 22.6 years this indicates a sediment age of ca. 120 years at  
293 100 cm depth. The surface sample contains very little  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  because of the  
294 dominance of macro-plant remains. In the upper 15 cm of the section  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  varies  
295 strongly between 18 and 5  $\text{Bq}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  suggesting strong variability in the mass accumulation  
296 rates (Fig. 4). The  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  activity, representing the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  of lithogenic origin, varies  
297 between 39.5  $\text{Bq}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  and 16.5  $\text{Bq}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  throughout the succession.  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  represents  
298 the sedimentary background value, which is constantly produced by decay of its radioactive  
299 precursors in the lithogenic components of the sediment, and remains largely constant in  
300 steady, undisturbed environments. The variability of  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{supported}}$  at site TB13-1 therefore  
301 indicates variable rate of sediment supply. The estimated errors of the CRS model are  $\pm 10$   
302 years and  $>50$  years in the upper and lower parts of the section, respectively (Fig. 4). The  
303 calculated mass accumulation rates (MAR) represent an approximation of the sedimentation  
304 rates and therefore, values for the sediment deposited prior to approximately 1950 CE are  
305 affected with high uncertainties, due to the counting errors.

306



307

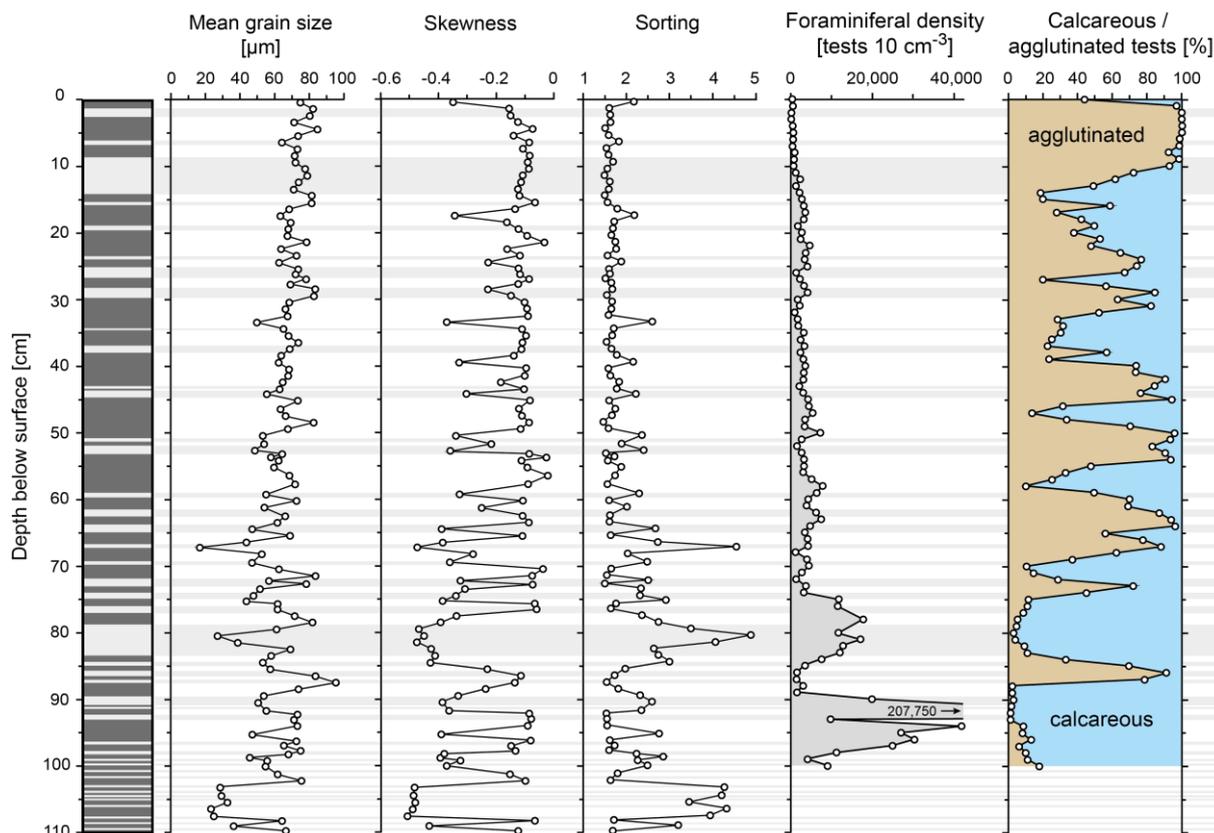
308 Figure 4: Age dating of the sediment succession based on  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ,  $^{241}\text{Am}$ , and  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$   
 309 and derived mass accumulation rates (MAR) and results of the CRS (constant rate of supply)  
 310 age model. Error bars were calculated by Gaussian error propagation and represent the 1-  
 311 sigma counting error for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  activities.

312

### 313 4.3 Grain-size distribution

314 The mean grain size of samples from sections TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2 varies between  
 315 16.6 and 95.3  $\mu\text{m}$ . The grain-size distribution is symmetrical to very fine skewed and  
 316 sediments are moderately well to very poorly sorted (Fig. 5, Suppl. Fig. 1). All sections show  
 317 an overall coarsening towards the sediment surface accompanied by a trend towards fewer  
 318 occurrences of samples with a strongly negative skewed grain-size distribution. The mean  
 319 grain size of all samples is rather controlled by the fine fraction ( $r_{\text{mean}/d_{10}} = 0.93$ ;  $\rho < 0.00001$ )  
 320 than by the coarse end of the grain size spectrum ( $r_{\text{mean}/d_{90}} = 0.75$ ;  $\rho < 0.00001$ ).

321 Furthermore, there is a good correlation between skewness and sorting ( $r_{skewness/sorting} = 0.92$ ;  
 322  $\rho = < 0.00001$ ), with more negatively skewed samples being less sorted and, in general,  
 323 finer-grained (Suppl. Fig. 1). The mean grain sizes of surface samples from transect F range  
 324 from 8.3 to 76  $\mu\text{m}$  (with 13 samples out of 16 having a mean grain size below 25  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (Suppl.  
 325 Fig. 1). Sorting is poorly to very poorly and the grain-size distribution is very fine skewed.  
 326



327  
 328 Figure 5: Mean grain size, skewness, sorting, total foraminiferal density, and ratio of  
 329 calcareous and agglutinated taxa in TB13-1 versus depth. The succession of lighter and  
 330 darker layers is shown for comparison.

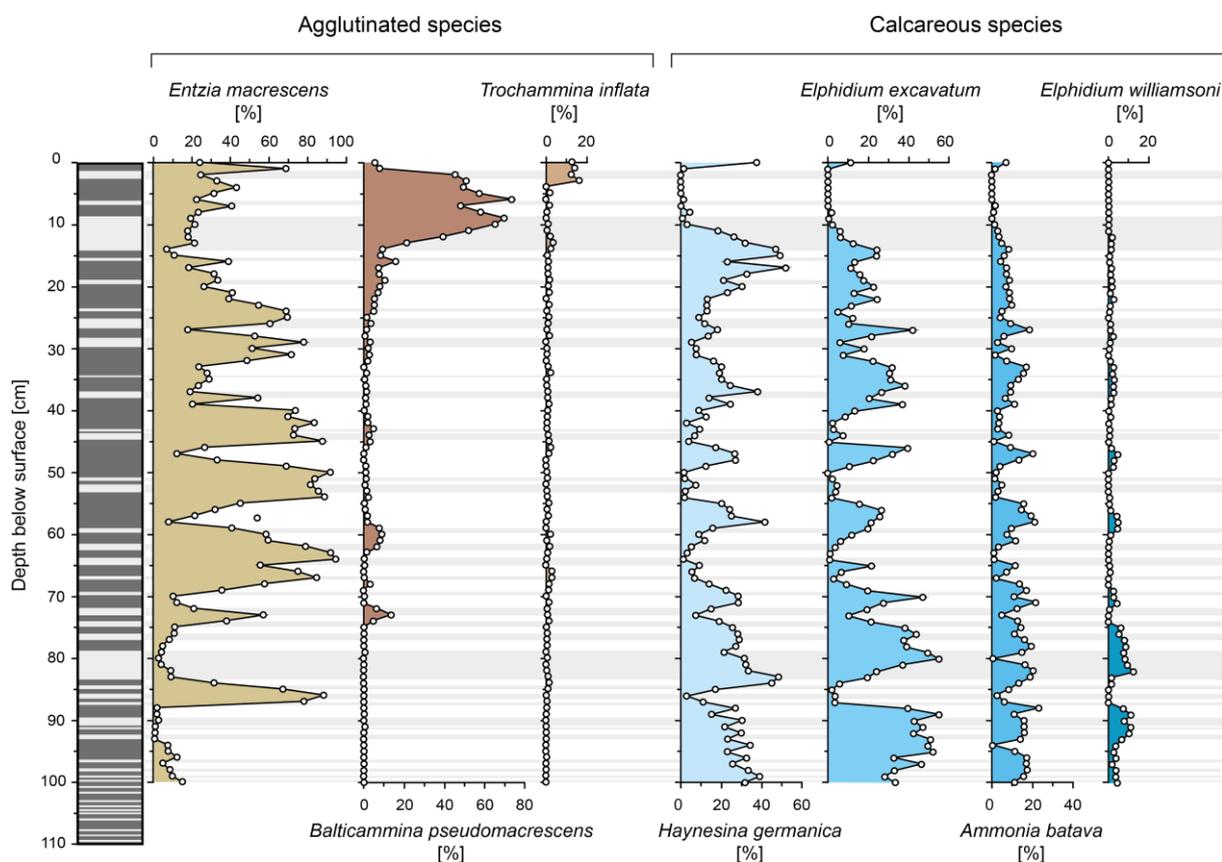
331

#### 332 4.4 Distribution of fossil foraminifera

333 A total of 24 foraminiferal taxa were identified. The most common species comprise *Entzia*  
 334 *macrescens*, *Balticamina pseudomacrescens*, *Elphidium excavatum*, *Haynesina*  
 335 *germanica*, *Ammonia batava*, *Trochammina inflata*, and *Elphidium williamsoni* (Fig. 6). Total  
 336 foraminiferal densities are higher in the lower part of the sediment section (between 106 and

337 74 cm depth) with, on average, ~18,500 individuals per 10 cm<sup>3</sup> sediment volume and lower in  
 338 the upper part of the section (between 74 and 0 cm depth) with, on average, ~3000  
 339 individuals per 10 cm<sup>3</sup> (Fig. 5)

340 The lower part of the section, between 106 and 74 cm depth, is mainly dominated by  
 341 calcareous taxa, comprising *E. excavatum* (up to 80%), *H. germanica* (up to 50%), and *A.*  
 342 *batava* (up to 20%). One exception is the interval between 87 and 84 cm depth where *E.*  
 343 *macrescens* is the most dominant species with a relative abundance between 31 and 88%.  
 344 In the middle and upper parts, between 74 and 10 cm depth, the fauna is alternately  
 345 dominated by agglutinated (mainly *E. macrescens*) and calcareous taxa (mainly *E.*  
 346 *excavatum*, *H. germanica* and *A. batava*). These alternations are also reflected in the  
 347 reworking index, with a series of six pronounced maxima in this interval (Fig. 7). In the  
 348 uppermost part of the section, the most abundant species are *B. pseudomacrescens* (with up  
 349 to 70%), *E. macrescens* (with up to 50%) and *T. inflata* (with up to 10%) (Fig. 6).



350

351 Figure 6: Relative abundance of most abundant foraminiferal species in sediment succession  
352 TB13-1 versus depth. The succession of lighter and darker layers is shown for comparison.

353

## 354 **5 Discussion**

### 355 **5.1 Age model**

356 The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  record exhibits two distinct peaks and implies the absence of substantial  
357 bioturbation and vertical erosion. The lower  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  peak at 62 cm depth is associated with a  
358 distinctive  $^{241}\text{Am}$  peak and can be related to the time of highest fallout of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{241}\text{Am}$   
359 prior to the banning of nuclear bomb testing in 1963 CE (Delaune et al., 1978; Appleby et al.  
360 1991; Ehlers et al., 1993). Although  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is more mobile in the sediment (Abril, 2004) its  
361 close correspondence with the immobile  $^{241}\text{Am}$  (Appleby et al., 1991) confirms its applicability  
362 as a reliable age marker in TB13-1. The upper  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  peak at 33 cm depth most likely  
363 originates from the Chernobyl reactor accident in 1986 CE (Ehlers et al., 1993). Comparison  
364 with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  records from salt marshes of the island of Sylt suggest a relation of a minor  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
365 peak at 73 cm depth with the Sellafield fire accident in 1957 CE (Ehlers et al., 1993),  
366 although this peak may be masked by the global increase in baseline values since 1954 CE  
367 (Delaune et al., 1978).

368 The age model based on  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  deviates by five to seven years from the age  
369 indicated by the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{241}\text{Am}$  markers (Fig. 4). The average atmospheric deposition of  
370  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  in the North Sea is  $42 \text{ Bq}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ , with a total flux into the sediment of  $150 \text{ Bq}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$   
371 (Beks, 1997). The measured annual average lead flux in the TB13-1 is  $141.1 \text{ Bq}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ , which  
372 is in good agreement with the literature value. The MAR show two major peaks at 15 cm and  
373 49 cm depth with  $13.5$  and  $8.3 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ , respectively, where the  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  activities  
374 are very low (Fig. 4). This consequently indicates dilution of the atmospheric  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  signal by  
375 large amounts of deposited material. An alternative interpretation is the redeposition of old  
376 material (>120 years) that contains no  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  delivered during storm tides. Similar

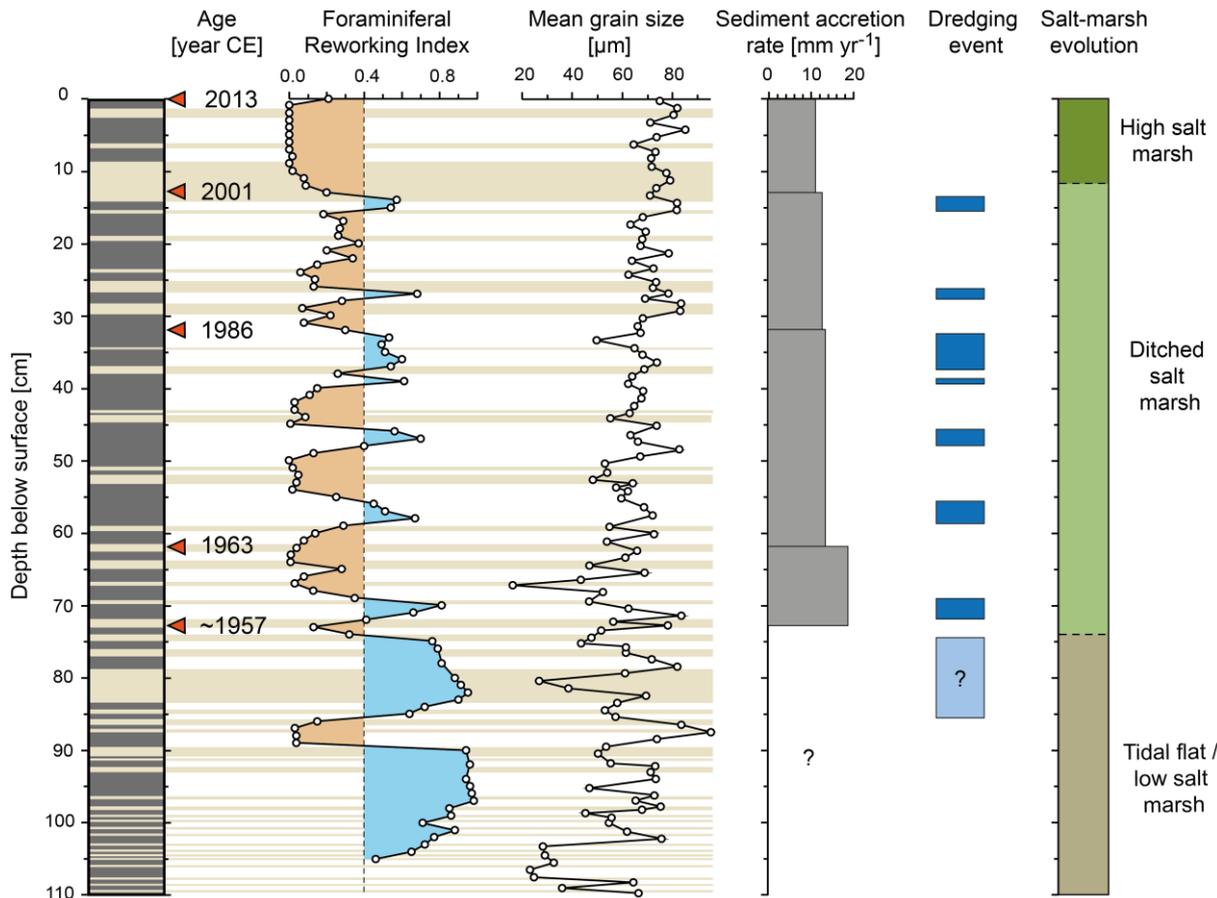
377  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{unsupported}}$  anomalies were observed in a Danish salt marsh and assigned to storm tides  
378 (Andersen et al., 2011).

379 Due to the substantial uncertainties of the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  based CRS model, particularly in the lower  
380 part of the section, we base our age model of TB13-1 primarily on the more reliable  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
381 and  $^{241}\text{Am}$  marker horizons. An additional age control point is available with the onset of  
382 high-marsh conditions at 13 cm depth, corresponding to the documented year of 2001 CE  
383 (Stock et al., 2015). Within the given CRS error ranges, all age marker horizons show a good  
384 agreement with the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ -based age model (Fig. 4).

385

## 386 **5.2 Salt marsh evolution in the Bay of Tümlau**

387 The sedimentary record of coastal evolution in the Bay of Tümlau preserved at site TB13-1  
388 covers approximately the last 120 years with an accurate temporal frame work for the past  
389 ~60 years (Figs. 4). The general salt-marsh evolution during the 20<sup>th</sup> century is accompanied  
390 by coastal protection measures, including the construction of the landward dike in 1935 CE,  
391 and subsequent ditching and dredging of the seaward salt marsh. The foraminiferal  
392 assemblages in TB13-1 document three main periods in the evolution of the salt marsh (Fig.  
393 7).



394

395 Figure 7: Comparison of the foraminiferal reworking index, mean grain size and average  
 396 sediment accretion rate of TB13-1, and derived dredging events and salt-marsh evolution of  
 397 the Bay of Tümlau. The succession of lighter and darker layers and reliable ages are  
 398 indicated.

399

400 The first period, from the beginning of the record until the completion of the landward dike in  
 401 1935 CE and subsequent initial reclamation measures, is not constrained very well by our  
 402 age model but likely includes the interval below ~75 cm depth. This sediment interval is  
 403 dominated by calcareous foraminiferal tests. Dominant taxa comprise *A. batava*, *E.*  
 404 *excavatum* and *H. germanica*, which represent characteristic species of modern tidal-flat and  
 405 shallow sub-tidal environments (Francescangeli et al., 2017) and are also very common in  
 406 the modern tidal flats of the Bay of Tümlau (Müller-Navarra et al., 2016). This interpretation is  
 407 further supported by extremely high values of foraminiferal density (partly exceeding 20,000  
 408 tests per 10 cm<sup>3</sup>), while densities in the shallower intervals are considerable lower (Fig. 5). A  
 409 similar contrast of foraminiferal numbers between tidal flat and salt-marsh environments has

410 been also reported from other regions, e.g. from southwestern Denmark (Gehrels and  
411 Newman, 2004).

412 The second period, which extends between ~1957 and 2001 CE, is characterized by  
413 substantial fluctuations in the dominance of the agglutinating species *E. macrescens* and  
414 calcareous taxa (Figs. 5, 6). *Entzia macrescens* is a typical cosmopolitan salt-marsh species  
415 (Horton et al., 1999) and dominates the ditched and grazed salt marshes along the North  
416 Frisian coast and in southern Denmark (Gehrels and Newman, 2004; Müller-Navarra et al.,  
417 2016; 2017). This species is considered a generalist with a herbivore or detritivore feeding  
418 strategy and an epifaunal to deep infaunal microhabitat, often associated with decaying plant  
419 material (Murray, 2006, Murray and Alve, 2011). The foraminiferal density (on average 2000  
420 individuals per 10 cm<sup>3</sup>) during the second period is comparable to densities of dead  
421 foraminifera in the modern salt marsh of the Bay of Tümlau, which range between 2000 and  
422 3000 individuals per 10 cm<sup>3</sup> (Müller-Navarra et al., 2016). The foraminiferal reworking index  
423 suggests repeated events of redeposition, which can be either attributed to storm tides or to  
424 dredging events (see discussion below).

425 The third period starts around 2001 CE, and is characterized by high abundances of *B.*  
426 *pseudomacrescens*, a high-marsh indicator in the German North Sea region (Gehrels and  
427 Newman, 2004; Müller-Navarra et al., 2017). This observation implies the establishment of  
428 supra-tidal conditions, which is confirmed by the occurrence of high-marsh vegetation (Stock  
429 et al., 2015) and the present marsh surface, which is located 50 cm above MHWS. Marsh  
430 sediment accretion during this period is controlled by storm-tide deposition and accumulation  
431 of decaying autochthonous remains from salt-marsh plants. The low values of the reworking  
432 index suggest negligible redeposition of allochthonous tidal flat foraminifera (Fig. 7).

433

### 434 **5.3 Sedimentation processes and identification of storm-tide layers and dredging** 435 **events in the Bay of Tümlau**

436 Sections TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2 and surface transect F are located inside the Bay of  
437 Tümlau and are protected from larger waves by the sand bars which close the bay mouth  
438 towards the open North Sea (Fig. 1B). A small fetch and shallow water depths inside the bay  
439 prevent the built-up of large waves in the bay, even during storms. Sediments are therefore  
440 deposited under comparable low-energy conditions and reworking of material from the active  
441 marsh should be minor. This view is supported by mean grain sizes in the coarse silt to fine  
442 sand range (Fig. 5, Suppl. Fig. 1).

443 Based on skewness data, samples of sections TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2 are qualitatively  
444 assigned to two distinct grain-size populations, termed GSP-1 and -2. Samples of GSP-1  
445 cluster around a skewness of -0.1 and are moderately well sorted (around 1.5), whereas  
446 samples of GSP-2 have a greater variability in sorting and are more negatively skewed  
447 (lower than -0.2; Suppl. Fig. 1). GSP-2 samples, in general, have a smaller mean grain size  
448 than GSP-1 samples. All samples of transect F, sampled from sediments deposited by a  
449 known storm tide (Suppl. Fig. 1), belong to GSP-2. Based on this and given that differences  
450 in grain-size reflect different hydrodynamic conditions during transport and sedimentation of  
451 clastic particles, GSP-1 and -2 are interpreted to reflect fair-weather and storm  
452 sedimentation, respectively. In addition, the dominance of symmetrical to fine skewed grain-  
453 size populations and the absence of coarse skewed sediments suggests deposition during  
454 suspension settling and absence of fast tidal currents at sites TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2,  
455 as also observed by Rahman and Plater (2014) in UK marshes. GSP-2 samples are  
456 preferably associated with the relatively lighter layers in TB13-1 suggesting that these layers  
457 represent storm-tide events (Fig. 5).

458 The observed enrichment of fine material in the storm layers is interpreted to reflect the  
459 prolonged clastic sedimentation on the marsh due to increased water levels and increased  
460 availability of fine material due to enhanced storm-wave erosion at the mud-flat area inside  
461 the bay. Mobilization of fine-grained material and subsequent mud enrichment in storm  
462 deposits on salt marshes are well known characteristics of salt-marsh sequences elsewhere

463 (Reineck and Singh, 1975; Bartholdy, 2012). Goodbred and Hine (1995), in addition,  
464 observed re-suspended near-shore sediments with variable grain-size distribution, showing a  
465 mineralogical similarity between storm-tide deposits and underlying marsh sediments. The  
466 suspension load consists of single clastic particles, sediment aggregates and flocculated  
467 material (Christiansen et al., 2000), and is subsequently transported onto the salt marsh  
468 surface where it is trapped by the vegetation (Fagherazzi et al., 2013; Brandon et al., 2014;  
469 Rahman and Plater, 2014; Chaumillon et al., 2017). In summary, the grain-size  
470 characteristics and composition of storm-tide layers in the section are controlled by the  
471 regional effects of sediment sources, i.e., erosion of tidal-flat and former salt-marsh deposits,  
472 submergence time, and vegetation cover.

473 According to observations in other regions (Scott et al., 2003; Kortekaas and Dawson, 2007),  
474 storm-tide deposits in salt marshes may also contain a considerable number of  
475 allochthonous tidal-flat foraminifera. The sediments of TB13-1 lack any larger shell fragments  
476 demonstrating the absence of high-energy conditions in the Bay of Tümlau during storm-tide  
477 deposition of clastic sediment corroborating the granulometric results. The foraminiferal  
478 reworking index exhibits six distinct intervals with dominance of allochthonous tests in the  
479 interval between ~1957 and 2001 CE. These layers are sharply bordered, occur roughly  
480 every seven to eight years, and do not correlate with the suspected lighter storm-tide layers,  
481 suggesting a different origin (Fig. 7). It appears most likely that these layers represent  
482 dredging events, when large amounts of sediment were redistributed from ditches onto the  
483 surface of the adjacent salt marsh leaving layers of 1-7 cm thickness in TB13-1. In  
484 comparison, the number of allochthonous tests, which were reworked during storm tides is  
485 obviously considerably lower. The largely absence of clear peaks in the reworking index in  
486 the intervals between the dredging events may also be attributed to the ability of *Entzia*  
487 *macrescens* to inhabit infaunal microhabitats (Murray, 2006; Berkeley et al., 2007) resulting  
488 in attenuation of the faunal signals.

489

#### 490 **5.4 Vertical salt-marsh sediment accretion, lateral erosion, and resilience to sea-level** 491 **rise**

492 Vertical salt marsh sediment accretion at site TB13-1 ranges between 18 and 13 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>  
493 during the phase of dredging and grazing (~1950-2001 CE) and 11 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> in recent years  
494 when the marsh has been submerged only during storm tides. The long-term decrease of  
495 sediment accretion rates reflects the commonly observed decrease of inundation frequencies  
496 with increasing elevation in mature salt marshes (Allen, 2000; Bartholdy et al., 2004). The  
497 recorded values are similar to those reported from other salt marshes of the German North  
498 Sea coast (Schuerch et al., 2012; Nolte et al., 2013) and demonstrate the potential of both  
499 ditched and natural marshes to outpace the present rate of relative sea-level rise of  $\sim 2.4 \pm 0.1$   
500 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, even when the effects of sediment autocompaction are considered (Allen, 2000;  
501 Bartholdy et al., 2010). Similarly, high sediment accretion rates of up to 16 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> in a back-  
502 barrier salt marsh on the island of Sylt, 57 km north of the study site, are the result of  
503 increased storm frequency and intensity during the 1980s and 1990s CE (Schuerch et al.,  
504 2012). These results demonstrate the high potential of salt marshes to withstand sea-level  
505 rise as long as they are able to migrate inland (Kirwan et al., 2016).

506 Although storm tides deliver substantial amounts of sediment to the salt marsh, the increase  
507 of the elevation gradient between the tidal flat- and the salt-marsh surface may enhance the  
508 erosive impact of incoming storm-tide waves at the transitional face (Leonardi et al., 2018). In  
509 the Bay of Tümlau, a retreating cliff developed since the 1960s CE (LKN.SH, 2017). Aerial  
510 images and repeated vegetation monitoring suggest only minor retreat since 1988 CE (Stock  
511 et al., 2005). A similar evolution has been documented for UK salt marshes (Allen and  
512 Haslett, 2014). The feedbacks mechanisms between lateral marsh erosion and regeneration,  
513 however, are not yet fully understood.

514 Grain-size trends across salt-marsh platforms, leading to a proximal-to-distal fining of the  
515 sediments, are interpreted to reflect the lateral gradient in depositional energy (Schuerch et  
516 al., 2012; Leonardi et al., 2018). Consequently, the long-term coarsening of the sediment in

517 all three investigated sections in the Bay of Tümlau (Figs. 5, 7, Suppl. Fig. 1) is interpreted to  
518 result mainly from the backward erosion of the cliff face, towards the locations of the studied  
519 sediment sections. The establishment of the dike in 1935 CE, which borders the marsh  
520 towards the land, impedes the lateral shift of intertidal facies zones under the influence of  
521 sea-level rise (Flemming and Nyandwi, 1994; Dellwig et al., 2000; Doody 2004) and could  
522 have further triggered a coarsening of the sediment.

523

## 524 **6 Conclusions**

525 Foraminiferal, sedimentological and geochemical data from a  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dated salt-  
526 marsh succession of the Bay of Tümlau (southeastern North Sea coast) are used to  
527 reconstruct the development of a managed salt marsh, and for the identification of storm-tide  
528 and dredging events. The benthic foraminiferal fauna reflects three periods of salt-marsh  
529 evolution, accompanied by significant changes in elevation and environmental conditions.  
530 Following a period of tidal-flat deposition, a managed salt marsh established at latest by the  
531 end of the 1950s CE. Until 2001 CE, the salt-marsh fauna is dominated by the generalist  
532 *Entzia macrescens*, which characterizes the ditched salt marshes in the entire southeastern  
533 North Sea region. The dredging of ditches, which occurred approximately every seven to  
534 eight years, is documented by sharply confined intervals of variable thickness, which are  
535 dominated by allochthonous calcareous tidal-flat species (particularly *Elphidium excavatum*,  
536 *Haynesina germanica*, and *Ammonia batava*). After protection of the salt marsh and  
537 abandonment of dredging and gracing, supratidal conditions established, accompanied by  
538 the occurrence of the high marsh indicator *Balticammia pseudomacrescens*. Within the  
539 sediment succession, relatively lighter coarse silt to fine sand layers with strongly negative  
540 skewness and variable sorting suggest deposition during storm tides but under relatively low  
541 energy conditions in the Bay of Tümlau. The lack of strong waves within the bay is also  
542 confirmed by the absence of shell layers and the minor amount of allochthonous tidal-flat  
543 foraminifera apart from the dredging layers. The long-term coarsening of the salt-marsh

544 sediments likely reflects the lateral progression of the salt-marsh cliff and the gradual  
545 depletion of fine-grained sediments in the source area of the mud flats. Since ~1957 CE  
546 sediment accretion rates decreased from approximately 18 to 11 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> reflecting the  
547 maturing of the salt marsh. These accretion rates are comparable to those measured in other  
548 salt marshes of the region and they outpace the relative sea-level rise of ~2.4 ±0.1 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>,  
549 demonstrating the potentially high resilience of both managed and natural salt marshes to  
550 sea-level rise.

551

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562

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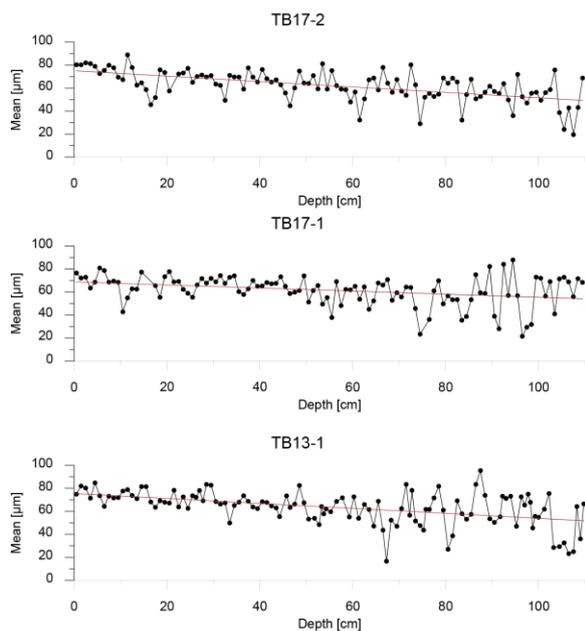
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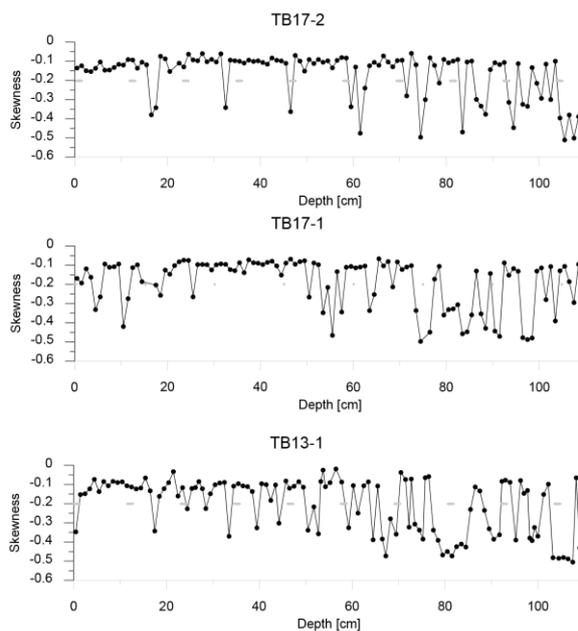
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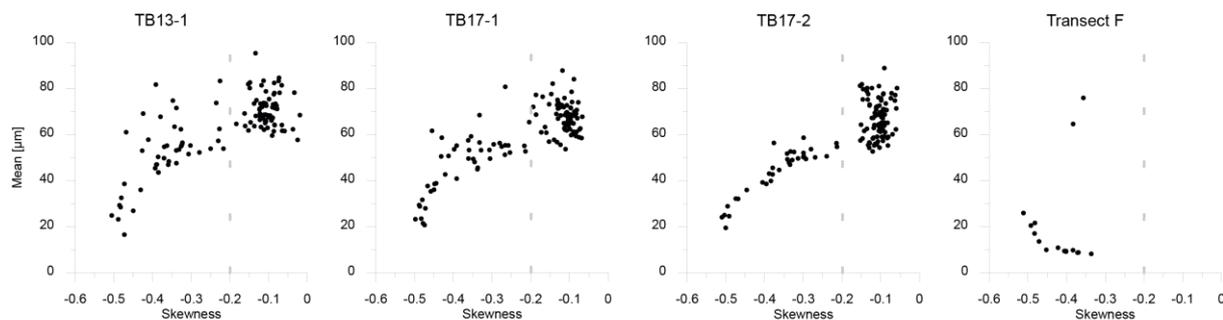
**A. Mean grain size**



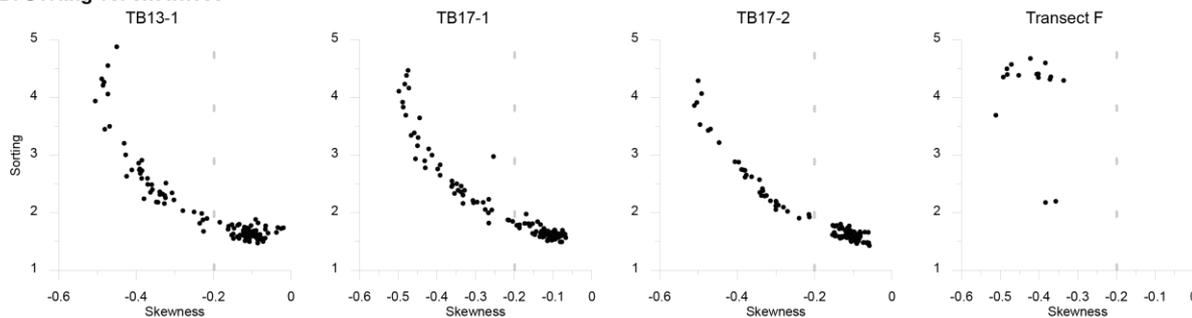
**B. Skewness**



**C. Mean vs. skewness**



**D. Sorting vs. skewness**



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800 Supplement Figure 1: Mean grain size (A) and skewness of the grain-size distribution (B) of  
 801 sediment sections TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2. Mean grain-size versus skewness (C), and  
 802 sorting versus skewness for sections TB13-1, TB17-1 and TB17-2, and surface transect F.