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1 **Tectonic and environmental controls on Palaeozoic fluvial environments:**
2 **reassessing the impacts of early land plants on sedimentation**

3
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9 *Abbreviated title: Meandering rivers and terrestrialization*

10 **Abstract:** The apparent increase in occurrence of meandering fluvial channel systems
11 in the Middle Palaeozoic has long been related to the effects of land-plant colonization.
12 However, evidence for meandering channels in non-vegetated settings is shown by pre-
13 vegetation successions on Earth, from the prevalence of meandering channels on Mars,
14 from physical modelling of meandering channels, and from non-vegetated channels in
15 modern desert basins. In addition, early land plants had small dimensions, were limited
16 in their occurrence, and were dependent on environmental factors. Here, we question
17 the capacity of early land plants to impose the major impacts suggested by current
18 models. We propose that the sudden widespread occurrence on Earth of fluvial deposits
19 indicative of the accumulation of meandering river systems in the Middle Palaeozoic
20 was primarily an effect of environmental and tectonic conditions that prevailed during
21 this period. These conditions induced a worldwide increase in the proportion of
22 meandering rivers, which in turn helped propitiate the appropriate environment for land-
23 plant colonization of the continents. We propose that land plants opportunistically took
24 advantage of an appropriate global environment which enabled them to thrive in
25 continental environments. Fluvial environments characterized by single channel systems
26 and stable floodplains facilitated the greening of the land.

27 =====

28 Terrestrialization heralded the colonization of the continents by land plants and animals,
29 and occurred primarily from the Ordovician to the Devonian (Vecoli *et al.* 2010). Early
30 land-plant colonization is considered to be a major cause of fundamental global changes
31 in continental depositional environments in the Middle and Upper Palaeozoic, a
32 situation that has been reported to be particularly pronounced in the fluvial realm, where

33 an increase in the occurrence of inclined heterolithic meandering fluvial system deposits
34 has been reported (Cotter 1978; Davies & Gibling 2010, 2013; Gibling *et al.* 2014).
35 However, early land plants had small dimensions and were limited to geographically
36 restricted wet habitats, linked to mud-prone and heterolithic settings typical of estuarine
37 and fluvio-deltaic environments (Algeo *et al.* 1998; Mintz *et al.* 2010; Labandeira 2007;
38 Kennedy *et al.* 2012); consequently, the magnitude of their influence on channel
39 patterns is uncertain.

40 Alluvial plain slope and the availability of fine-grained sediments required to
41 provide cohesion to river banks are the major controls of channel planform style
42 (Schumm & Khan 1971, 1972; Peakall *et al.* 2007). Meandering, sinuous channelised
43 fluvial deposits can accumulate without vegetation, where appropriate bank cohesion is
44 provided by fine-grained sediments (Peakall *et al.* 2007; Matsubara & Howard 2014;
45 Matsubara *et al.* 2015). Such systems are recorded from the Neoproterozoic of Scotland
46 (Santos & Owen 2016), and are described from Mars (Burr *et al.* 2009, 2010; Williams
47 *et al.* 2013) and Titan (Burr *et al.* 2013). Although Middle Palaeozoic meandering-
48 channel deposits have been linked to early vegetation, the overall tectonic and
49 environmental settings which accompanied, and may have acted as catalysts for
50 Terrestrialization on Earth, have yet to be fully considered.

51 A specific set of tectonic and environmental settings was present concomitant to
52 colonization of the continents by land plants. Abnormally high sea levels during the
53 Ordovician, Silurian, and Devonian (200 to >500 m above present-day level) (Hallam
54 1984; Haq & Schutter 2008) resulted in the development of a series of very large
55 epicontinental marine basins throughout much of what is now North and South
56 America, Africa and Europe (Ronov *et al.* 1976) – a situation which has not occurred
57 again during the later Phanerozoic. Furthermore, the Taconic and Caledonian orogenies
58 promoted overall tectonic settings in which large sea-ways became progressively
59 isolated from global ocean systems (Soper *et al.* 1992; Blakey 2003), leading to the
60 development of long-lived, internally-drained basins (Sobel 2003). Such continental
61 amalgamation at tropical latitudes meant that most continental masses experienced
62 warm climates, which encouraged enhanced rates of chemical weathering and clay
63 production (Nardin *et al.* 2011). These tectonic and environmental conditions, which
64 prevailed during the Middle Palaeozoic, led to the development of sedimentary

65 environments characterised by abundant fine-grained clastic detritus that accumulated
66 on low-gradient slopes.

67 The aim of this study is to test the hypothesis that it was the specific set of
68 palaeogeographic and tectonic conditions that prevailed during the Middle Palaeozoic,
69 rather than early land plants, that induced the conditions required for the extensive
70 accumulation of fine-grained sediments (and organic matter) in fluvial floodplain and
71 coastal plain palaeo-environments, and in turn drove the increase in the occurrence of
72 meandering fluvial successions. Such abiotic environmental controls may be more
73 likely to have imposed major and geologically rapid changes in patterns of
74 sedimentation than the typically small and geographically restricted early plants that
75 colonized the land in the Late Silurian and Early Devonian. Such conditions may then
76 have promoted the development of meandering channel fluvial systems with stable
77 floodplains under the influence of a warm and wet climate, thereby establishing
78 appropriate conditions for the Terrestrialization event. We review the geological and
79 climatic settings, the palaeontological evidence, and the fossil record of land plants of
80 the Early to Middle Palaeozoic. Further, we provide examples of meandering channel
81 planforms developed in the absence or near-absence of vegetation in modern desert
82 basins. Specific objectives of this work are as follows: (i) to gain an improved
83 understanding of secular changes in sedimentary successions; (ii) to establish the
84 relative roles of tectonic and environmental controls over biogenic activity in stabilizing
85 fluvial floodplains and encouraging meandering river behaviour; (iii) to present modern-
86 day analogues and experimental examples of non-vegetated meandering channels; and
87 (iv) to propose a novel and innovative mechanism with which to account for observed
88 trends in Mid-Palaeozoic fluvial deposits.

89 **Rivers through geological time**

90 Fluvial deposits provide abundant information on the evolution of continental
91 environments through geological time (Bridgland *et al.* 2014). Pre-vegetation fluvial
92 systems encompass a number of distinct fluvial styles, with in-channel bar dynamics
93 similar to modern rivers, and high geomorphic variability (Long 2011, Santos *et al.*
94 2014, Ielpi & Ghinassi 2015, Ielpi & Rainbird 2015). Examples of published data
95 describing pre-vegetation meandering channel deposits include two stratigraphic levels
96 of the Early Proterozoic Hatches Creek Group in central Australia (Sweet 1988),

97 interpretations of which are based on fining-upward vertical successions with few
98 examples of three-dimensional architectural geometries described. Pretorius (1974)
99 suggested that a meandering channel belt may have developed in proximal-to-middle
100 reaches of fluvial-dominated alluvial fan deposits preserved in the Proterozoic
101 Kaapvaalian sedimentary basins of South Africa, similar to modern-day distributive
102 fluvial systems (Hartley *et al.* 2010). Other examples include sandy meandering fluvial
103 systems, which have been identified in the Serpent Formation (pebbly sandstone
104 deposits) from the Huronian of Canada (Long 1976), in the Neoproterozoic Katherine
105 Group (Long 1978), in the Neoproterozoic Nelson Head Formation (Long 1978;
106 Rainbird & Young 2009), in cobble-grade conglomerates at Ularu (Long 2011), and in
107 sandy-conglomerates in the Borden Basin (Long & Turner 2012). Examples of
108 preserved levee and crevasse-splay elements, and inclined heterolithic strata (*sensu*
109 Thomas *et al.* 1987) associated with laterally-accreting channels, typical of fluvial
110 systems characterized by long-lived floodplains, have been identified in the
111 Neoproterozoic Torridon Group (Fig. 1) (Santos & Owen 2016). This demonstrates that
112 the presence of fine-grained sediments alone could stabilize point bars in pre-Silurian
113 fluvial systems.

114 **Insights from experiments, modern analogues and other planets**

115 Many laboratory-based attempts have been made to simulate the conditions with which
116 to produce self-sustaining meandering channel systems. Slope, bank cohesion and
117 resistance are considered to be the main controls on the formation of highly-sinuuous
118 channels (Peakall *et al.* 2007; Braudrick *et al.* 2009; Tal & Paola 2010; Lazarus &
119 Constantine 2013). Flow resistance can be represented by landscape roughness
120 (topography and vegetation density), and its relation with surface slope directly
121 influences river-channel sinuosity (Lazarus & Constantine 2013). Grain-size scaling
122 presents many constraints in flume experiments, particularly the scaling of silt and clay
123 (Peakall *et al.* 1996), but progress on optimising this has been made (Peakall *et al.*
124 2007; Kleinhans *et al.* 2014). The necessary cohesion required to stabilize river banks
125 and floodplains, and to reduce chute cutoffs, can be achieved in the presence of silt-
126 grade sediments, which can considerably reduce erosion rates (Peakall *et al.* 2007; Van
127 Dijk *et al.* 2013). Furthermore, vegetation alone is not wholly sufficient to induce
128 meandering (Gran & Paola 2001) and, although clay-grade sediments were apparently
129 rare in pre-vegetation times, silt-grade sediments were not (Long 2011).

130 Analysis of numerous presently active sedimentary basins developed in arid
131 climates can also shed light on the question of whether vegetation is required for
132 meandering channel formation. Non- to poorly-vegetated meandering river systems are
133 evident on Google Earth[®] imagery. Figure 2 highlights the similarities between
134 meandering channels with and without the presence of vegetation: Figs. 2a and 2b show
135 non-vegetated meander belts developed in the Sahara Desert in Chad and the Aral Sea
136 Basin in Turkmenistan, respectively. These meander belts have similar widths, channel
137 widths and sinuosities (i.e. similar morphological forms) to the meander belt of the
138 Taquari River in the Pantanal wetlands in Brazil (Fig. 2c), which developed with
139 abundant vegetation on both channel and floodplain environment.

140 The widespread occurrence of meandering channel planforms elsewhere in the
141 solar system may seem paradoxical, with numerous examples from Mars (Schon *et al.*
142 2012) and also Titan (Burr *et al.* 2013). Outstandingly preserved meandering
143 palaeochannels on Mars are widespread (e.g. Moore 2003; Burr *et al.* 2010; Hoke *et al.*
144 2014; Irwin III *et al.* 2014; Williams & Weitz 2014; Lefort *et al.* 2014; Peakall 2015),
145 whereas braided palaeochannels have not been confirmed (Ori *et al.* 2013; Matsubara *et al.*
146 2015; Peakall 2015), with potential examples restricted to alluvial fans within craters
147 (e.g. Palucis *et al.* 2014; Morgan *et al.* 2014). In each of these systems, the cohesion
148 required for bank stability was probably provided by the presence of fine-grained
149 sediments in the overall depositional environments, and this was likely the key control
150 for the development of meandering channel planforms on Mars (Matsubara *et al.* 2015;
151 Peakall 2015). The preservation, retention, and production of fine-grained sediments in
152 alluvial environments can be achieved through various environmental controls, and on
153 Earth this situation is shown to have occurred prior to the greening of the land (e.g.
154 Santos & Owen 2016).

155 **Early land plants and their impacts on sedimentation**

156 Prior to Terrestrialization, continents were not completely barren, but occupied
157 by primitive life forms (Prave 2002; Dott 2003), with a significant volume of biomass
158 present at least since the Palaeoproterozoic (Ohmoto 1996). Microbially-induced
159 sedimentary structures (MISS) have been present in intertidal areas since the Archean
160 (Noffke 2007, 2009), and some authors have proposed microbially colonized land areas
161 during the Proterozoic (Prave 2002). Primitive life forms could not only induce

162 weathering (Astafieva & Rozanov 2012), but could also trap and bind sediments and
163 create mature soil profiles with kaolinitic clays (Retallack & Mindszenty 1994; Dott
164 2003). MISS are recorded in 1.58 Ga fluvial deposits from the Mukun Basin in Siberia
165 (Petrov 2014), and 1.2 to 0.9 Ga non-marine deposits from the Mesoproterozoic to
166 lower Neoproterozoic Torridonian Sandstones from Scotland (Prave 2002; Battison &
167 Brasier 2012). They still occur in present-day fluvial systems (Schieber *et al.* 2007).

168 Land plants (i.e. embryophytes) spread initially from Gondwana, and later
169 colonized Avalonia and Baltica (Stemans *et al.* 2009; Gerrienne *et al.* 2010; Rubinstein
170 *et al.* 2010). The oldest embryophytes appeared during the Middle Ordovician (Kenrick
171 *et al.* 2012). They are recorded from heterolithic and muddy sediments deposited in
172 estuarine environments from eastern Gondwana, and presented very-low rates of
173 evolution at least until the early Silurian (Rubinstein *et al.* 2010), as indicated by
174 “bryophyte-like” plant microfossils with probable liverwort affinities (Gray *et al.* 1982;
175 Strother *et al.* 1996; Wellman & Gray 2000; Wellman *et al.* 2003; Stemans *et al.*
176 2009). The first plants to colonize the continents in the latest Ordovician to earliest
177 Silurian were pre-tracheophyte, embrophytic or bryophytic plants that were intrinsically
178 linked to wet substrates; their evolution progressively helped construct different types of
179 wetlands (Greb *et al.* 2006). Early land plants from the Ordovician and Silurian likely
180 imposed limited impacts on weathering rates and soil formation due to their shallow
181 root systems (Algeo & Scheckler 2010).

182 The plant body-fossil record begins in the Late Silurian: such fossils are
183 typically a few centimetres in length at most and possess little or no internal structure
184 (Kenrick *et al.* 2012). Land plants occupied coastlines of Late Silurian to Middle
185 Devonian palaeocontinents (Labandeira 2007), simultaneously to the development of
186 ecosystems characterized by plant-animal interactions (Chaloner *et al.* 1991). By the
187 late Lower Devonian (Emsian), land plants had colonized many wet alluvial
188 environments, such as lake margins, wetlands, basin margins, coastal-deltaic settings
189 adjacent to brackish water bodies, and river plains (Kennedy *et al.* 2012), being
190 ecologically restricted to moist environments. They were less than 1.0 m tall, and most
191 likely exercised limited geochemical effects on soils as a result of their limited biomass
192 (Morris *et al.* 2015). Lignophytes (woody plants) rapidly spread from Gondwana in the
193 Lower Devonian, towards Laurussia in the Middle Devonian (Gerrienne *et al.* 2010);
194 they were analogous to tree ferns, and possessed centimetre-long root systems (Algeo *et*

195 *al.* 2001; Meyer-Berthaud *et al.* 2010). Tree habitats were extensive only by the Middle
196 Devonian (Cornet *et al.* 2012; Kenrick *et al.* 2012), and at this time were confined to
197 swampy environments associated with fluvial and deltaic systems, which facilitated
198 water-dependent reproduction (Mintz *et al.* 2010).

199 Root systems of early land plants were of limited size by the Silurian and Lower
200 to Middle Devonian: they evolved to larger size by the end of the Devonian (Kenrick &
201 Crane 1997; Algeo & Scheckler 2010; Kenrick & Strullu-Derrien 2014). Rhizomes
202 preserved in the Late Silurian (Ludlow) of Pennsylvania penetrated up to 20 cm into the
203 substratum (Retallack 2015). Although Lower Devonian palaeosols record roots and
204 rhizomes generally <10 cm (Gensel & Berry 2001), Hillier *et al.* (2008) described 0.6
205 m-long root structures preserved in the Lower Devonian of the Anglo-Welsh Basin.
206 Plant-root networks capable of penetrating more than one metre into the substratum
207 evolved concomitantly with the evolution of more complex land plants in the Upper
208 Devonian (Mintz *et al.* 2010; Morris *et al.* 2015), when floodplain forests with complex
209 root networks developed (Algeo *et al.* 1998; Algeo & Scheckler 2010). Although the
210 proportion of plant mass represented by roots increased gradually from the Lower to
211 Upper Devonian (Pragian – Frasnian), vegetated land area increased sharply only during
212 the last stage of the Upper Devonian (Famennian) as a result of plant diversification
213 (Algeo & Scheckler 2010).

214 The first forests are believed to have developed by the Middle Devonian, and
215 were characterized by tree-fern-like plants (some of which reached up to 8 m height),
216 but characterized by small anchoring roots, developed on sandy mudstone horizons
217 preserved in wetland coastal-plain deposits (Stein *et al.* 2007, 2012). In the Middle
218 Devonian, fossils of water-restricted cladoxylopsid trees provide evidence of the earliest
219 land-plant fossil group with bifacial vascular cambium, which produced wood; these
220 forms were characterized by root systems of limited depth, with typical diameters of 1
221 to 2 cm; they occupied muddy swamp and boggy environments, and were water-
222 dependant for reproduction (Driese *et al.* 1997; Mintz *et al.* 2010; Stein *et al.* 2012).
223 The first cladoxylopsid forests developed in deltaic and tidal environments (Cornet *et*
224 *al.* 2012). They were followed during the Givetian (upper Middle Devonian) by
225 Archaeopteridales, which spread from Laurussia and developed forests in tropical
226 fluvial floodplains near palaeoshorelines; these forms were characterized by roots up to
227 1.5 m long, and had horizontally extended deciduous branches (Driese *et al.* 1997;

228 Meyer-Berthaud *et al.* 1999; Bridge 2000; Mintz *et al.* 2010; Cornet *et al.* 2012). The
229 fossil record of the first forests, from the Early and Middle Devonian, is mostly
230 restricted to freshwater near-channel deposits developed in subtropical-to-tropical
231 palaeoclimates as a result of peculiar continental configuration (Edwards & Fanning
232 1985; Greb *et al.* 2006; Berry & Marshall 2015).

233 **Terrestrialization through the Middle Palaeozoic fluvial rock record**

234 It is important to highlight that braided and meandering morphologies are just
235 end-members of a continuum of fluvial-channel planform types (Bridge 2003).
236 Distinctions between straight and meandering channel are generally not process-based,
237 and the characterization of river types through planform alone is potentially inadequate
238 (Carling *et al.* 2014). Meandering is a mature channel planform style, mostly related to
239 a combination of process-controlling factors such as discharge, sediment input, alluvial
240 plain gradients, and bank stabilization (Smith *et al.* 1989). Flume experiments have
241 highlighted that variations in slope and availability of fine-grained sediments (cohesion)
242 are major controls of channel planform style (Schumm & Khan 1971, 1972; Peakall *et*
243 *al.* 2007): slope is not dependent on the presence of vegetation, and fine-grained
244 deposits are not exclusively dependent on vegetation, although their preservation can be
245 enhanced by the presence of the latter.

246 The idea that land-plant colonization drove important changes in the dominant
247 type of fluvial system accumulation and preservation from the Silurian and Devonian
248 periods was originally inspired by the work of Schumm (1968), and further developed
249 by other workers (e.g. Cotter 1978; Davies & Gibling 2010; Davies *et al.* 2011; Gibling
250 *et al.* 2014; Corenblit *et al.* 2015; Almeida *et al.* 2016). Databases on Palaeozoic fluvial
251 deposits (Cotter 1978; Davies & Gibling 2010) show a trend of a preferential
252 occurrence of meandering channel systems from the Middle to Late Palaeozoic, which
253 these researchers link to the effects of the greening of the land. This situation has led to
254 the establishment of a number of paradigms regarding pre-vegetation fluvial systems,
255 and the impacts of early vegetation on continental sedimentation. A marked increase in
256 the occurrence of preserved palaeosols, thick muddy floodplain deposits, and sets of
257 inclined heterolithic stratification is recorded for Silurian-Devonian fluvial settings
258 (Cotter 1978; Davies & Gibling 2010; Gibling *et al.* 2014). The earliest Palaeozoic
259 heterolithic succession described in the literature to date is in the Ordovician, whereas

260 the first record of lateral-accretion sets (Fig. 3) is close to the Silurian-Devonian
261 boundary (Davies & Gibling 2010). More recently, the latter database has been
262 expanded to include the Carboniferous period, and the anastomosing fluvial style
263 (Davies & Gibling 2013; Gibling *et al.* 2014). We exclude the anastomosing
264 interpretations in Fig. 3 to keep the original distinction of just the two end-member
265 fluvial styles: braided and meandering.

266 **Palaeozoic environment**

267 A predominantly alkaline atmosphere prevailed between the Ordovician and Silurian,
268 with the highest pH levels recorded in the entire geologic record (Jutras *et al.* 2009).
269 High pH levels increase silicate mineral dissolution, similarly to low pH levels (Drever
270 1994). The Ordovician Taconic orogeny and the Silurian to Early Devonian Caledonian
271 continental amalgamation, and associated tectonic plate movements, promoted a
272 palaeogeographic setting where most of the continents (with the exception of
273 Gondwana) occupied intertropical convergence zones that were subject to warm and
274 humid climatic conditions with high rates of rainfall. This resulted in enhanced rates of
275 chemical weathering (Nardin *et al.* 2011; Lenton *et al.* 2012). Furthermore, average
276 rates of sedimentation are enhanced in the initial and final stages of tectonic cycles: an
277 increased rate of accumulation of sediment is recorded in the Devonian (Fig. 4) as a
278 response to the Caledonian Orogeny (Ronov *et al.* 1980).

279 A large area of the continental landmasses (35–47%) was inundated by the sea
280 (Fig. 4) between the Ordovician and the end of the Devonian (Ronov 1994). From the
281 eustatic lowstand at the beginning of the Cambrian (Fig. 3), eustatic sea level
282 progressively rose, and in the Middle Ordovician to Late Devonian the highest long-
283 term eustatic sea level of the Phanerozoic is recorded (Hallam 1984; Haq & Schutter
284 2008), with shallow-marine inundation of many continental basins (Ronov 1994). The
285 maximum recorded transgression of the Phanerozoic occurred in the Late Ordovician,
286 with a second maxima recorded in the Middle-Late Silurian (Fig. 3), related to the
287 Caledonian orogenic cycle (Ronov *et al.* 1980). Ordovician to Devonian deposits from
288 Gondwana basins (e.g. the Paraná, Parnaíba, and Amazonas basins in Brazil, the Central
289 Basin in Zaire, the Cape Supergroup in South Africa, and the Carnarvon Basin in
290 Australia) are dominated by marine, shallow marine, and coastal deposits.

291 Large Ordovician epicontinental seas and their shorelines progressively retreated
292 leaving emergent low-lying coastal plains in the Silurian (Weller 1898), and exposure of
293 large areas of marine, fine-grained deposits. The culmination of continental assemblage
294 resulted in narrow oceans and relatively short distances between palaeocontinents in the
295 early Silurian, as recorded by close similarities of miospore-assemblages between the
296 Gondwana, Avalonia and Laurentia palaeoplates (Stemans & Pereira 2002). A globally
297 pronounced intense weathering event due to CO₂ decrease resulting from continental
298 motion through intertropical zones is recorded concomitantly with the start of the
299 Terrestrialization during the Ordovician (Nardin *et al.* 2011). Sea-ways were
300 progressively dammed, and many endorheic (internally-drained) basins formed, as
301 recorded, for example, by numerous examples of terminal fan deposits in Devonian
302 basins from England, Ireland, Greenland, and Spitsbergen (e.g. Friend & Moody-Stuart
303 1972; Kelly & Olsen 1993; Williams 2000). This is recorded in the Old Red Sandstone
304 magnafacies of the British Isles and Scandinavia, which comprises Silurian to
305 Carboniferous successions of the North Atlantic borderlands, and records the
306 sedimentary response to the Caledonian, Ellesmerian, and Variscan orogenies. The Old
307 Red Sandstone magnafacies marks the transition from marine Lower Palaeozoic
308 sedimentation to continental Middle Palaeozoic sedimentation (Friend *et al.* 2000). The
309 Lower Old Red Sandstone was deposited under the influence of a warm to hot climate,
310 and it is a key stratigraphic section from which global interpretations regarding
311 terrestrialization (e.g. Davies & Gibling 2010; Gibling *et al.* 2014) were made. Of
312 significance, the Old Red Sandstone also records many classic examples of lateral
313 accretion sets (so-called epsilon cross-bedding of Allen 1963), some of them (e.g. the
314 Red Marls Group, Late Silurian) are interpreted by Davies *et al.* (2011) as being the
315 oldest known examples in the Palaeozoic of laterally-accreting macroforms of fluvial
316 origin with inclined heterolithic stratification. The Lower Old Red Sandstone deposition
317 occurred in littoral and littoral-related environments, and changes in relative sea levels
318 were fundamental in governing fluvial dynamics recorded by such deposits (e.g. Boyd
319 & Sloan 2000; Hillier 2000). Land-plant fossils are there preserved as allochthonous
320 fragments present in channel deposits (Edwards & Fanning 1985).

321 Prominent examples of the earliest forests recognised in the rock record are
322 recorded from Middle Devonian deposits of the Catskill magnafacies, particularly in
323 finer-graded fluvial and deltaic successions (e.g. Driese *et al.* 1997; Mintz *et al.* 2010).

324 River-channel styles in the latter magnafacies of the Middle-Upper Devonian
325 Appalachian foreland basin of New York changed dramatically with distance from
326 palaeoshoreline, with braided-channel styles dominating inland in upstream parts of the
327 succession, and highly sinuous, single channel types with extensive muddy floodplains
328 dominating closer to the palaeo-coast, where such forms occur adjacent to sandy and
329 muddy tidal flats, muddy interdistributary bays, lakes, and tide-influenced channels
330 (Gordon & Bridge 1987; Willis & Bridge 1988; Bridge 2000). The concentration of
331 many datasets of published studies on Palaeozoic fluvial deposits are largely based on
332 the Catskill and Old Red Sandstone magnafacies, and this has resulted in a bias whereby
333 these particular periods are represented by a markedly limited range of depositional
334 settings that are notably characterized by meandering channel systems.

335 **Discussion**

336 *An extraterrestrial paradox?*

337 The outstanding meandering palaeodrainage patterns preserved on Mars demonstrate
338 that meandering channels can develop despite the absence of vegetation (e.g. Matsubara
339 *et al.* 2015), and such conditions were met in pre-vegetation Earth (Santos & Owen
340 2016). The geomorphic expressions of Martian examples of meandering-channel
341 planform are typically characterized by inverted relief (Pain *et al.* 2007), whereby
342 coarser-grained in-channel deposits, that are more resistant to weathering and erosion,
343 are preserved as features with positive relief, whereas the less resilient overbank fines
344 are eroded by aeolian winnowing. In the case of pre-vegetation fluvial deposits, such
345 differential erosion might have played an important role in sediment preservation, as for
346 channel deposits on Mars (see Matsubara *et al.* 2015), masking the original depositional
347 signatures of such systems. On Earth, meandering systems that have been preferentially
348 preserved are those that accumulated in less tectonically active settings, such as stable
349 cratons (Eriksson *et al.* 2006), but which were also more prone to differential erosion of
350 finer-grained sediments during long episodes of terrain denudation (e.g. Williams *et al.*
351 2009).

352 *Production and preservation of fine-grained sediments*

353 The abundance of mudrocks and their metamorphic equivalents in all continental and
354 marine sedimentary environments is apparently constant through Archean, Proterozoic

355 and Phanerozoic Eons (Ronov 1964). Production of fine-grained sediments and clays
356 could be enhanced by microbial associations well before terrestrialization (Ohmoto
357 1996; Dott 2003). Fine-grained sediment can accommodate abundant organic matter
358 (carbon and nutrients), as a result of adsorption onto grains, and of similar densities
359 (Mayer 1994). Clay formation from biotic soils predates complex terrestrial ecosystems
360 (Kennedy & Droser 2011), and the weathering products of mafic rocks generate
361 significant mud content (Cox & Lowe 1995). Models indicate that chemical weathering
362 rates in pre-vegetation environments were not significantly different to modern-day
363 ones (Keller & Wood 1993), and some suggest that microbially-induced weathering is
364 only an order of magnitude less effective than land-plant induced weathering
365 (Schwartzman & Volk 1989). Additionally, the recorded high pH levels during the
366 Middle Palaeozoic (Jutras *et al.* 2009) substantially increased weathering rates, thereby
367 yielding larger volumes of fine-grained sediment. Geochemical data indicate a major
368 change in chemical weathering and a rapid increase in clay mineral formation and
369 deposition in the Neoproterozoic, suggesting an already widespread occurrence of
370 primitive biota on land, with clay-forming biotic soils (Kennedy *et al.* 2006).

371 Several mechanisms that preserve floodplain deposits and fine-grained
372 sediments in non-vegetated systems have been proposed (e.g. Winston 1978; Fralick &
373 Zaniewski 2012; Marconato *et al.* 2014; Santos & Owen 2016). Yet the majority of pre-
374 vegetation fluvial systems described in the literature are characterized by a paucity of
375 such sediments (Long 2011). The bypass of fine-grained sediments to distal areas of a
376 basin as a result of a lack of vegetation cover is a possible mechanism (Long 1978;
377 Winston 1978; Eriksson *et al.* 1998; Santos *et al.* 2014), as is post-depositional aeolian
378 winnowing (Dalrymple *et al.* 1985). Given appropriate conditions, pre-vegetation
379 fluvial systems could preserve fine-grained sediments and depositional architectures
380 similar to post-vegetation deposits, including inclined heterolithic strata and laterally
381 accreting channel deposits (Santos & Owen 2016). Source-area lithology is a
382 fundamental control on sediment type (Assine *et al.* 2015) but is rarely discussed. As an
383 example, sedimentary deposits of the modern Taquari megafan from the Pantanal
384 wetlands in Brazil are characterized almost solely by fine-grained sand (Assine 2005),
385 and the resulting preserved sedimentary facies are homolithic, despite being deposited
386 in a densely vegetated wetland (Fig. 2c).

387 *Tectonics and environment as major depositional controls during the Palaeozoic*

388 The coupling between geomorphic and biological processes results in feedback that can
389 promote what can be considered as evolutionary geomorphology, where vegetation and
390 earth surface processes conspire to influence the evolution of landforms (Corenblit &
391 Steiger 2009). However, tectonics, climate, sediment flux, atmospheric and water body
392 productivity, and sea level remain the primary controls on sedimentary environment
393 development, despite the feedbacks provided by biogenic processes (Leeder 2007). This
394 situation was consequently more pronounced in the Precambrian and in the initial
395 phases of terrestrialization, from the Ordovician to the Devonian. The relative
396 abundance of meandering river deposits in comparison with braided river deposits can
397 also vary as a consequence of climate and tectonic controls (Michaelsen 2002; De La
398 Horra *et al.* 2012).

399 The nature of climate, oceanic currents, atmospheric composition, and,
400 particularly, of the position of global landmasses, changed considerably throughout the
401 Phanerozoic, meaning that a uniformitarian approach is not necessarily applicable to
402 interpretations of sedimentary trends in the rock record (Bateman *et al.* 1998). The
403 sedimentary rock record is biased by the preservation of particular geomorphic features,
404 such as sedimentary basins, which are not necessarily an ideal representation of the past
405 (Nyberg & Howell 2015). Alluvial environments are largely controlled by tectonics and
406 eustatic sea levels in modern-day basins (Weissmann *et al.* 2010). Large-scale sea-level
407 changes alter the relative predominance of sedimentary environments (Peters 2006;
408 Smith & McGowan 2011). Critically, transgressive and highstand system tracts are the
409 times during a sea-level cycle when maximum rates of fluvial sedimentation and
410 accumulation occur (Wright & Marriott 1993; Colombera *et al.* 2013).

411 The development of large epicontinental seas and internally-draining basins as a
412 consequence of the Caledonian continental amalgamation from the Ordovician-
413 Devonian period (Fig. 5) contributed to an increase in the proportion of preserved fine-
414 grained sediments: internally-draining basins significantly enhance the likelihood of
415 preservation of mud-prone deposits (Nichols & Fisher 2007). A transition from the
416 preferential accumulation of coarse-grained to finer-grained fluvial strata is coincident
417 with the timing of maximum marine incursion (i.e. the Maximum Flooding Surface)
418 into alluvial-plain environments (Shanley & McCabe 1991). This increase in fine-
419 grained strata occurs due to an increase in the rate of creation of accommodation space
420 and the opportunity for rapid vertical accretion of fluvial successions to fill that space

421 (Wright & Marriott 1993; cf. Colombera *et al.* 2015). Base-level rise also reduces valley
422 slope (i.e. the average gradient of the fluvial profile) and, when coupled with the
423 reduction in sediment grain calibre, tends to favour a transition from a braided fluvial
424 pattern to a meandering pattern (Bridge & Leeder 1979), with a high proportion of the
425 alluvial plain becoming river-dominated and floods more commonly reaching the
426 interfluves (Allen 1974). A long-term, sustained rise in base level favours the
427 accumulation of thick successions of fluvial deposits (Shanley & McCabe 1994;
428 Nichols & Fisher 2007). Transgressive- to highstand-system tract deposits tend to be
429 characterized by isolated, meandering channel-fill deposits arranged into stacked fining-
430 upward successions, each separated by thick, mud-prone floodplain deposits (Shanley &
431 McCabe 1991). The prolonged global sea-level highstand during the Middle Palaeozoic
432 had major impact on continental sedimentation and changed fluvial base levels, leading
433 to a reduction in overall gradient in the distal reaches of many large rivers, thus
434 encouraging these systems to adopt a meandering, low-gradient morphological form in
435 their lower reaches (Fig. 5). Such transition from marine to continental sedimentation is
436 recorded in the Siluro-Devonian Lower Old Red Sandstone of the UK (Hillier &
437 Williams 2004), where the influence of relative sea level, climate, and overall tectonic
438 settings were potentially more important in determining preserved depositional
439 architecture and on the production and preservation of fine-grained sediments than the
440 impact of early land plants.

441 The recorded weathering conditions during the Middle Palaeozoic led to higher
442 rates of clay generation and consequent input of such sediments into alluvial systems.
443 Large areas covered with fine-grained sediments were exposed as low-lying, low-
444 gradient plains (Weller 1898), after a long period of marine inundation of the
445 continental shelves in the Silurian. This environmental setting was unusual, although the
446 Precambrian rock-record is considerably less representative due to rock-recycling
447 events and lithological characteristics, meaning that such settings could have occurred
448 before but as yet remain unrecognized. As a result of the continental assemblage in the
449 intertropical convergence zones during the Middle Palaeozoic, high rates of rainfall
450 coupled with warm climates resulted in an environmental setting suitable for water-
451 dependant land-plant establishment, further increasing weathering rates (Nardin *et al.*
452 2011; Lenton *et al.* 2012). The relationship between palaeogeographical settings and
453 evolution, through speciation and diversification, has also been proposed as a major

454 driver of angiosperm diversification in the Late Jurassic and Early Cretaceous (Buerki *et*
455 *al.* 2014).

456 *Meandering channels and land plants: the chicken and the egg*

457 The current paradigm suggests that early land plants led to a rapid rise in meandering
458 channels. However, mechanisms to induce the stabilization of single channels were
459 present before terrestrialization, and meandering fluvial systems did develop prior to the
460 evolution of land plants (e.g. Pretorius 1974; Sweet 1988; Long 2011; Santos & Owen
461 2016). Furthermore, processes to produce clay sediments and clays were present at least
462 by the Palaeoproterozoic, and the volume of mudrock apparently did not vary
463 considerably through geological times. The presence of a widespread biota by the
464 Neoproterozoic would also affect bed roughness and promote fine-grained sediment
465 retention and production, thereby reducing runoff rates and enhancing cohesion of
466 fluvial systems. The transition from microbial to early land-plant ecosystems suggests
467 that the impact of early land plants was unlikely to have been as pronounced as
468 previously envisaged since early land plants exerted influences similar to those of
469 earlier continental life forms. The presence of microbes, and the environmental
470 conditions that encouraged them to flourish, assisted land-plant colonization. Not only
471 can microbial action induce weathering, but most of the chemical weathering induced
472 by root systems comes from the symbioses between roots and mycorrhizal fungi
473 (Jongmans *et al.* 1997; Kenrick & Strullu-Derrien 2014).

474 Early land plants are mostly associated with fine-grained sediments (Elick *et al.*
475 1998), implying that such life forms required the presence of such sediment types (or
476 organic matter accumulation) to become established. Ordovician-Devonian land plants
477 could not supplant major controls on alluvial stratigraphy such as aggradation rates,
478 sediment input, alluvial plain surface gradients, and base level, in a relatively short
479 period of time (the end of the Silurian and the early Devonian). These plants, with their
480 shallow anchorage systems, were not capable of inducing marked increases in rates of
481 weathering to produce the observed increased preservation of fine-grained sediments
482 (e.g. Cotter 1978) since they were at least ten times less effective than later trees
483 (Kenrick & Strullu-Derrien 2014; Quirk *et al.* 2015). The constant need for, and
484 adaptations to retain, water by early land plants indicates that they were not sufficiently
485 resilient to overcome difficulties imposed by the environment; shallow root systems

486 meant they were less resistant to drought, for example. As recorded by fossil
487 occurrences, early land plants were intimately associated with swamp, deltaic and
488 floodplain environments. Although the greening of the land unquestionably represents
489 an important event in the evolution of continental landscapes, most of the depositional
490 controls with which to induce meandering channels were present before the Silurian and
491 Devonian. Meandering river environments, with their stable single-thread channels on
492 low-gradient plains and stable floodplains on which fine-grained sediments and organic
493 matter could accumulate, are the most appropriate continental environment type for
494 sessile organisms to thrive. Conversely, a braided river environment with multiple,
495 highly mobile channels and coarse-grained floodplains would be sub-optimal for initial
496 colonization. Early land plants may have required meandering fluvial systems and their
497 extensive floodplains to become established, rather than being the primary cause of their
498 presence.

499 We propose that the combination of extensive epicontinental and internal
500 drainage basins, land masses in intertropical convergence zones, high sea levels, low
501 slope gradients, and a period of intensive weathering, was the primary cause of the
502 observed systematically increasing occurrence of fluvial deposits containing mudrock
503 (Fig. 4) and inclined heterolithic strata from the Silurian to the Devonian, particularly in
504 deposits from Europe and North America. These fine-grained sediments promoted the
505 necessary cohesive forces and gradients required to stabilize the substrate of alluvial
506 plains. The presence of extensive floodplains facilitated the establishment of appropriate
507 settings for early land plants and their fragile root systems. It may be that the
508 environmental impact of land plants was able to homeostatically sustain such
509 appropriate conditions.

510 **Conclusions**

511 The dimensions of Silurian to early Devonian land plants, in particular their root
512 systems with limited penetration depth, corroborates the idea that the observed impacts
513 on the Middle Palaeozoic fluvial realm are most likely dominated by allogenic
514 processes. These include environmental and tectonic conditions, such as high eustatic
515 sea level, low-gradient alluvial plain slopes, orogenic cycles, high weathering rates as a
516 result of elevated pH conditions, the widespread development of endorheic basins, and
517 the location of continental landmasses in intertropical latitudes. This worldwide context,

518 which has not occurred again since, induced the widespread development and unusual
519 dominance of meandering channel fluvial system types. These settings may have
520 provided the appropriate environment for the onset of the colonization of the continents
521 by land plants. The interpretation of plants as the dominant control on sedimentation
522 from the time of their first evolutionary stages is unrealistic. Land plants were not the
523 primary cause of the apparent peaks in occurrences of meandering channel fluvial
524 systems. In contrast, the evolution and appearance of different types of embryophytes
525 since the Middle Palaeozoic – notably angiosperms in the Mesozoic – have exerted
526 various different impacts on modern sedimentary environments. The changing impacts
527 of land plants on sedimentation must be understood as a series of gradual steps during a
528 longer time frame. We suggest that the impacts of early land plants on fluvial systems
529 have been overstated, and were less influential than the current paradigm envisages. We
530 suggest that land plants may have taken an evolutionary advantage of fortuitous
531 environmental conditions, and developed ways with which to impose a feedback onto
532 the environment, sustaining, as geo-engineers, a situation whereby river plains and
533 dynamics became buffered and less energetic, resulting in the establishment of
534 homeostasis (Fig. 6).

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1030

1031 **Figures captions**

1032 **Fig. 1.** Examples of inclined heterolithic deposits from the Neoproterozoic Torridon
 1033 Group (Allt na Béiste Member of the Applecross Formation). **(a)** Channel deposits
 1034 encased by fine-grained, floodplain deposits. Two fining-upward successions are
 1035 present, and levee deposits can be identified (at the level of the legs of person as scale),
 1036 and dip to the left of the picture. These are overlain by lenses of crevasses and overbank
 1037 fines. **(b)** Point bar deposits with inclined heterolithic strata. See Santos & Owen (2016)
 1038 for further details. SB, sandy bedforms; CV, crevasse deposits; LV, levee deposits; FF,
 1039 floodplain fines; IHS, inclined heterolithic stratification. White arrow at the upper right
 1040 of (b) indicates direction of accretion.

1041 **Fig. 2:** Comparison between non-vegetated meander belts developed laterally to dune
 1042 fields, at the Sahara Desert in Chad (a) and at the Aral Sea Basin at Turkmenistan (b),
 1043 with abundantly-vegetated meander belt developed on modern wetland, at the Pantanal

1044 Basin, central-west Brazil (c). Flow to left in all examples. Black arrows indicate scroll
1045 preservation. Black bars at upper left are 2 km long.

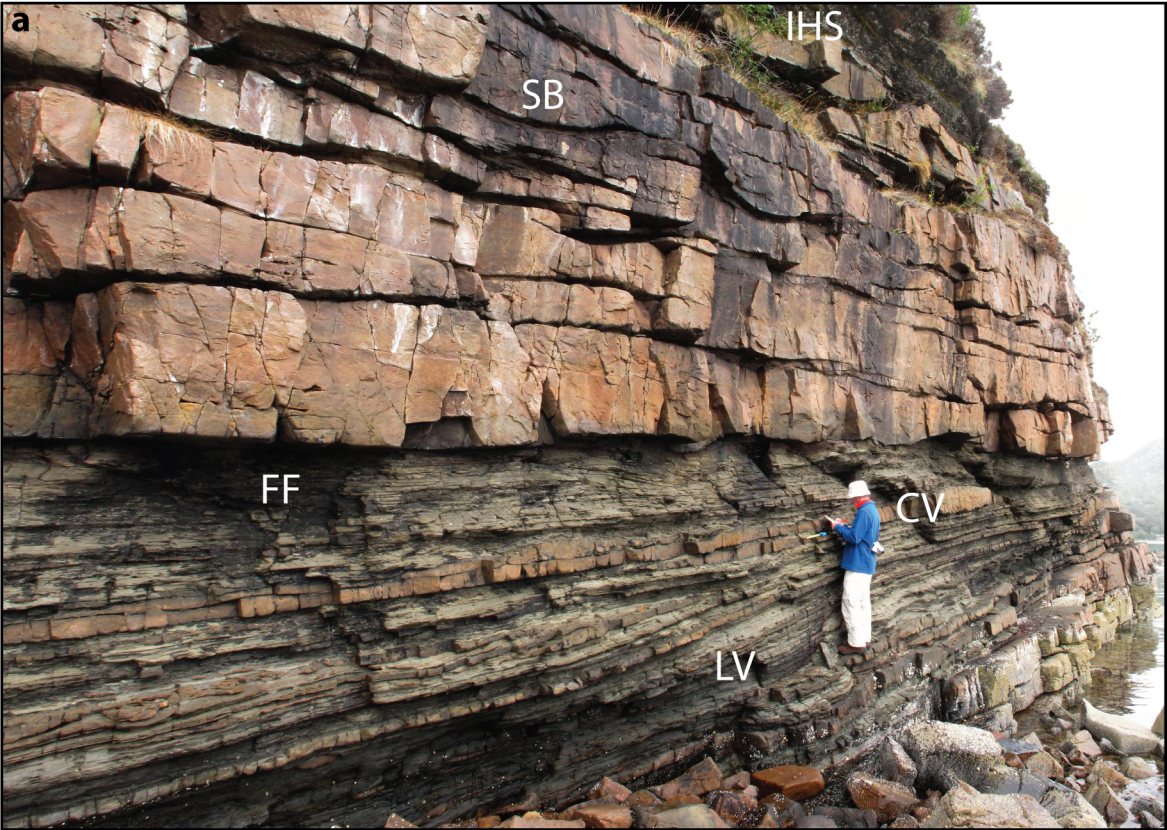
1046 **Fig. 3.** Meandering river deposits, mean sea-level curves, and plant root depths,
1047 throughout the Phanerozoic. Eustatic curves (adapted from Haq & Schutter 2008) of the
1048 Palaeozoic (a) and the percentage of interpreted meandering river deposits (b) described
1049 in the literature (modified from Gibling *et al.* 2014). The mean sea-level curve is
1050 relative to present day sea-level (0 m)". (c) Land plant root-depth evolution during the
1051 Palaeozoic; values relate to maximum root-depth in metres (Hillier *et al.* 2008;
1052 Kahmann & Driese 2008; DiMichele *et al.* 2010; Giesen & Berry 2013, Morris *et al.*
1053 2015; Retallack 2015). Geological ages are shown above the graphic: Carb.
1054 (Carboniferous); Dev. (Devonian); Sil. (Silurian); Ord. (Ordovician); Camb.

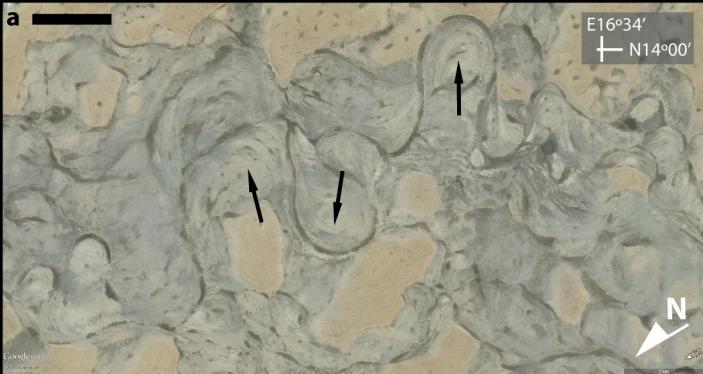
1055 (Cambrian).**Fig. 4.** Epicontinental seas, mud-prone fluvial successions, and rates of
1056 sediment accumulation. Graph shows the relationship between (a) the average rates of
1057 sediment accumulation ($m/10^6$ years) within geosynclines, platforms and continents as a
1058 whole (Ronov *et al.* 1980), (b) the area (in 10^6 km²) of continents covered by seas
1059 (Ronov 1994), and (c) the percentage of published papers describing fluvial successions
1060 containing >10 % of mudrock (modified from Davies & Gibling 2010).

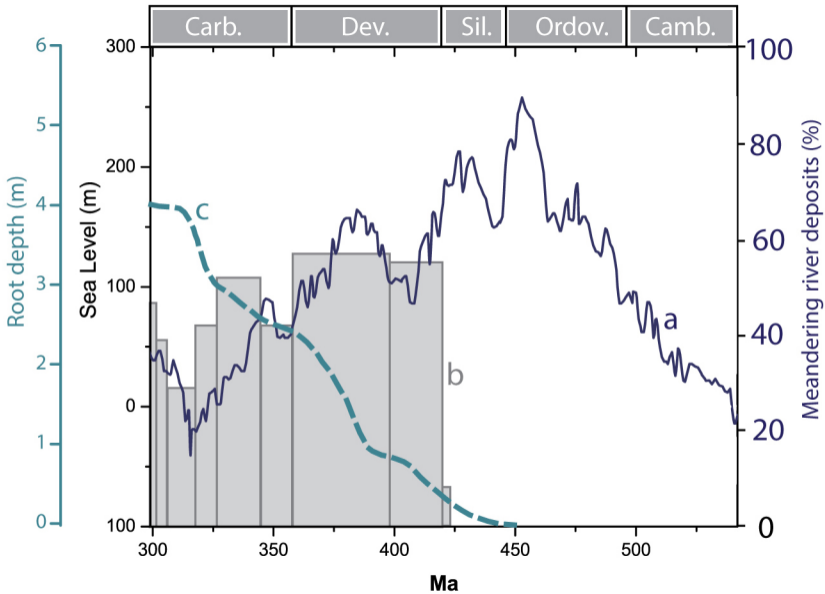
1061 **Fig. 5.** Evolution of continental environments from the Cambrian until the Devonian.
1062 Below each palaeoenvironmental reconstruction is shown the palaeogeographic
1063 reconstruction of the tectonic configuration of the continents (Blakey 2003). Scale in the
1064 right of each period shows mean sea-level curves of each period (Hallam 1984) in
1065 metres relative to current levels. Notice that meandering rivers and fine-grained
1066 sediment abundance increases before land plant colonization, which we argue herein
1067 utilized such environmental configuration to facilitate their spread throughout the

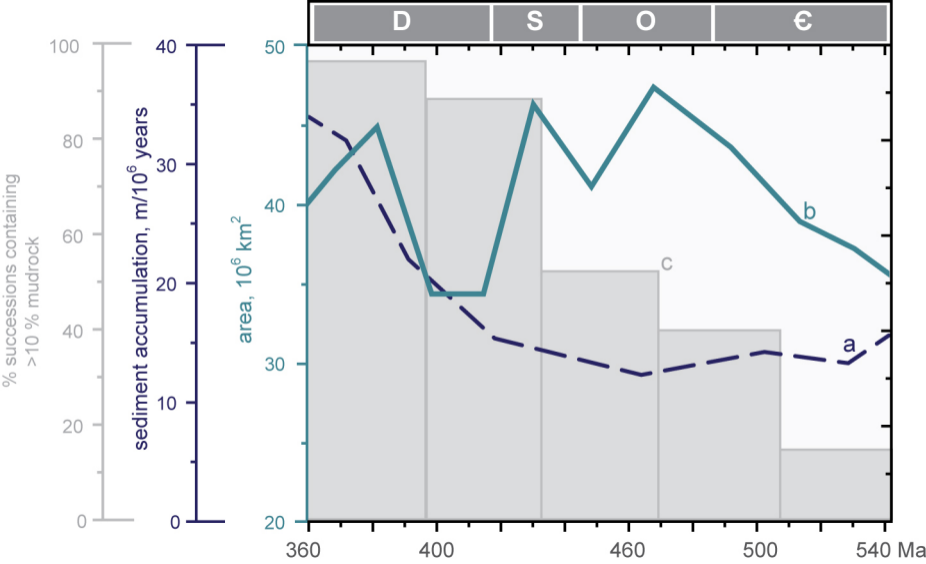
1068 continents. Palaeocontinents: Gond. = Gondwana; Laur. = Laurasia; Laurus. =
1069 Laurussia; Sib. = Siberia; and Balt. = Baltica.

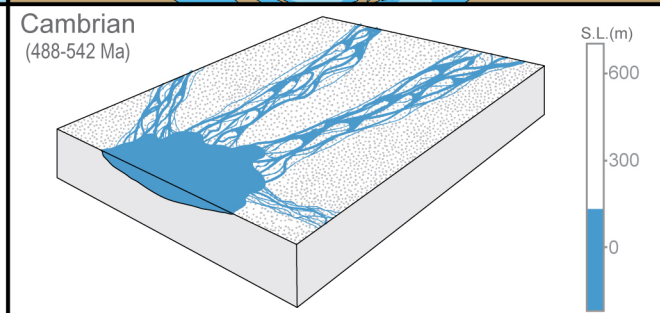
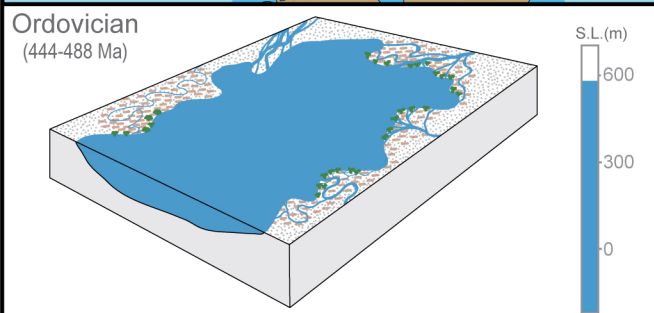
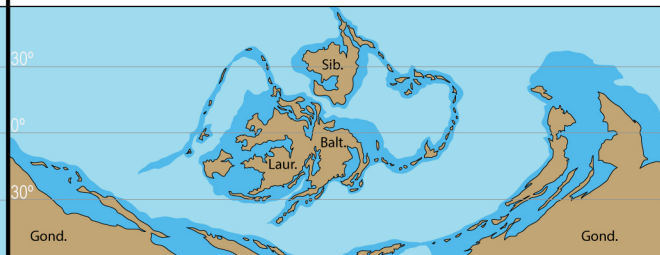
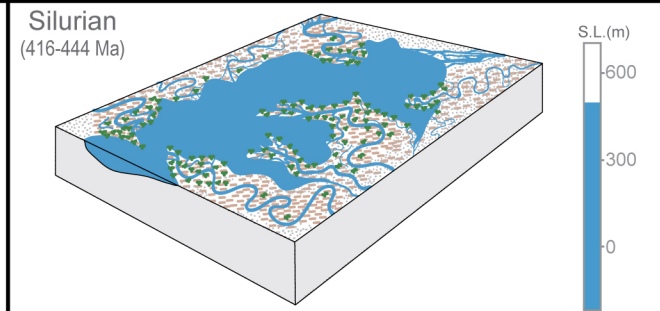
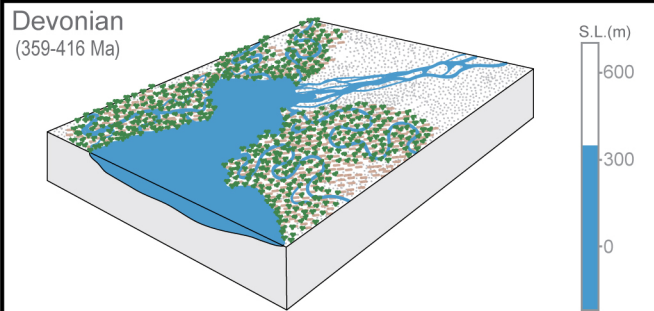
1070 **Fig. 6.** Schematic flow-chart showing the inter-relationship between meandering rivers
1071 and land plants. The synergistic relationship between meandering rivers and land plants
1072 is shown in red, representing features that are the result of that interaction and which
1073 propitiate not only the appropriate environment for vegetation, but also the increasing
1074 occurrence of meandering river deposits after the Devonian.











Meandering Rivers

seasonally-flooded floodplains

lower erosion rates

suspended load

single channel

lower rates of channel avulsion

mud accumulation

cohesion

bank stabilization

nutrients-fertile floodplains

organic matter accumulation

runoff control

chemical weathering

thick soil profiles

roots

log jams

Land Plants