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1 Meandering rivers in modern desert basins: implications for

2 channel planform controls and prevegetation rivers

3 Mauricio G.M. Santos^{1*}, Adrian J. Hartley², Nigel P. Mountney³, Jeff Peakall³, Amanda Owen⁴,

4 Eder R. Merino⁵, Mario L. Assine⁶

5 ¹CECS, Universidade Federal do ABC (UFABC), Av. dos Estados 5001, Santo André, Brazil, CEP 09210-580, Brazil.

⁶ ²Department of Geology and Petroleum Geology, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen AB24 3UE, UK.

7 ³School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.

8 ⁴ School of Geographical and Earth Sciences, University of Glasgow, University Avenue, Glasgow, 8NN, UK.

9 ⁵ Institute of Energy and Environment, USP, Av. Professor Luciano Gualberto 1289, Cidade Universitária, CEP 05508-010, Brazil.

- 10 ⁶Instituto de Geociências e Ciências Exatas, UNESP, Avenida 24A 1515, Rio Claro, CEP 13.506-900, Brazil.
- 11

12 *Corresponding author. *E-mail address*: mauriciogmsantos@gmail.com

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14 **A B S T R A C T**

The influence of biotic processes in controlling the development of meandering channels in 15 16 fluvial systems is controversial. The majority of the depositional history of the Earth's continents 17 was devoid of significant biogeomorphic interactions, particularly those between vegetation and sedimentation processes. The prevailing perspective has been that prevegetation meandering 18 19 channels rarely developed and that rivers with braided planforms dominated. However, recently 20 acquired data demonstrate that meandering channel planforms are more widely preserved in 21 prevegetation fluvial successions than previously thought. Understanding the role of prevailing fluvial dynamics in non- and poorly vegetated environments must rely on actualistic models 22 23 derived from presently active rivers developed in sedimentary basins subject to desert-climate 24 settings, the sparsest vegetated regions experiencing active sedimentation on Earth. These 25 systems have fluvial depositional settings that most closely resemble those present in prevegetation (and extra-terrestrial) environments. Here, we present an analysis based on satellite 26 27 imagery which reveals that rivers with meandering channel planforms are common in modern

28 sedimentary basins in desert settings. Morphometric analysis of meandering fluvial channel 29 behaviour, where vegetation is absent or highly restricted, shows that modern sparsely and non-30 vegetated meandering rivers occur across a range of slope gradients and basin settings, and 31 possess a broad range of channel and meander-belt dimensions. The importance of meandering 32 rivers in modern desert settings suggests that their abundance is likely underestimated in the 33 prevegetation rock record, and models for recognition of their deposits need to be improved. 34 Keywords: Meandering rivers; arid sedimentary basins; prevegetation fluvial deposits; remote sensing; modern analogues; dryland. 35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Assessment of the biotic and abiotic controls on channel-planform development in 38 alluvial rivers is a fundamental objective in fluvial sedimentology (Wolman and Brush, 1961; 39 Leopold et al., 1965; Schumm, 1968; Peakall et al., 2007; Jansen and Nanson, 2010), and particularly in the geology of preserved fluvial deposits (Long, 1978, 2006, 2011; Sønderholm 40 41 and Tirsgaard, 1998; Eriksson et al., 2006; Santos et al., 2014; Ielpi et al., 2017a; McMahon and 42 Davies, 2017). A related research question is to what extent did the presence of vegetation in 43 continental environments induce the development of single-channel, meandering planforms and 44 the preservation of laterally-accreting strata (Davies and Gibling, 2010; Davies et al., 2017; 45 Santos et al., 2017a,b)? Experimental studies of fluvial systems using laboratory-based flume 46 apparatus have provided evidence which indicates that, although the presence of vegetation is believed to encourage fluvial systems to develop meandering planforms (Braudrick et al., 2009; 47 Tal and Paola, 2010), vegetation is not a requirement for the growth and preservation of point-48 49 bar deposits associated with meandering river behaviour (Peakall et al., 2007; Van de Lageweg et 50 al., 2014). Recent studies have highlighted the abundance of relict and potentially active flow-51 related features which were also apparently related to meander development in non-vegetated 52 landscapes on other planetary bodies, including Mars and Titan (Schon et al., 2012; Burr et al.,

53 2013; Matsubara et al., 2015). These observations contrast with the hypothesis that non-54 vegetated meandering rivers rarely developed in the pre-Silurian on Earth (Vogt, 1941; Cotter, 55 1978; Long, 1978; Davies and Gibling, 2010), and that most prevegetation river channels were 56 typified by braided planform morphologies characterized by shallow and wide channels (Cotter, 57 1978; Long, 1978, 2011). Ideas that prevegetation systems were subject to lower river-bank stability and flashy runoff characterized by markedly peaked flood hydrographs (Schumm, 1968), 58 59 lead to commonly observed biases on the interpretations of prevegetation river deposits in the 60 literature (Ethridge, 2011).

61 Few environments in modern aggradational settings are entirely devoid of vegetation. 62 Although the intrinsic association between life and water means that vegetation will inevitably 63 develop where rivers are present, the density of vegetation cover can vary according to climatic 64 conditions, with climatic deserts being the least vegetated continental environments in which 65 rivers develop. The understanding of meandering rivers developed in subsiding desert 66 sedimentary basins thus provides the best opportunity to assess not only how these rivers can 67 develop with little to no vegetation, but also the plausibility of their occurrence on the 68 prevegetated Earth.

69 Although braided channels are commonly considered to be the prevailing channel 70 planform in drylands (Tooth, 2000), recent work has highlighted the geomorphology of 71 ephemeral meandering rivers (Billi et al., 2018) and also meandering rivers developed in poorly 72 vegetated environments such as those that host aeolian dunes fields, proglacial rivers (e.g. sandur 73 plains in Iceland), and salt flats (Almasrahy and Mountney, 2015; Li and Bristow, 2015; Li et al., 74 2015; Ielpi, 2017b,c, 2019). However, there has hitherto been no systematic study of the 75 worldwide distribution, prevalence, and characteristics of meandering rivers in modern arid 76 sedimentary basins.

77 Here we identify and characterize the morphology of selected meandering rivers in a 78 variety of desert basins with little to no vegetation. We seek to determine the ability of rivers to 79 meander without vegetation present, and to assess what this means for prevegetation river 80 behaviour. Specific research objectives are to understand the following: (i) the characteristics of 81 major meandering fluvial systems developed with little to no vegetation; (ii) how restricted 82 vegetation is in modern meandering river systems which are present in deserts on Earth; (iii) the 83 controls that maintain meandering rivers with restricted vegetation; and (iv) if any of these 84 meandering rivers are potential analogues for rivers in prevegetation systems.

85 **2. Methods**

86 2.1. Global identification of meandering rivers on modern desert basins

87 Modern depositional areas with the most limited vegetation on Earth have been analysed using Google Earth to identify representative meandering channel planforms; we selected rivers 88 89 of basin-scale dimensions and with little or no anthropogenic influence. Sixteen meandering river 90 systems developed in 12 modern sedimentary basins from different tectonic settings (Nyberg and 91 Howell, 2015) developed under hot and cold desert climates (Kottek et al., 2006) from 5 92 continents have been studied (Fig. 1). Analysed river lengths varied between 10 and 400 km; 93 laterally-amalgamated meander belts were between 1 and 60 km wide, and channels varied from 10 to 900 m in width (Table 1). 94

Selected rivers were analysed using GIS software to extract the following morphometric
parameters: thalweg length, meander-belt length and width, channel sinuosity and planform
pattern, main channel width, and stream gradient (Table 1; Supplementary Fig. S1). River
gradient was calculated using Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM;
http://www.jpl.nasa.gov/srtm) elevation data, version 4.1 (Jarvis et al., 2008) with 3 arc-seconds
of spatial resolution (~90 m), with linear vertical relative height error less than 10 m for 90% of

the data (Rodríguez et al., 2005); the reported error in these data is chiefly concentrated in
mountainous regions (see Hirt, 2018).

103 Meander belts were identified as channel belts (thalweg and internal bars) and bends; 104 meander-belt and channel width were measured at regular intervals (every 20 km for > 200 km-105 long rivers, and every 10 km for smaller rivers). River sinuosity was defined as the ratio of 106 channel length (along channel centre path) to straight-line down-valley distance, in which rivers 107 with sinuosity <1.1 were classified as straight, those with a sinuosity of 1.1-1.5 were classified as low sinuosity, and those with sinuosity ≥ 1.5 were classified as meandering (Leopold et al., 1965). 108109 2.2. Vegetation cover classification 110 The presence of vegetation in the selected alluvial plains was identified through analysis of satellite images with high and medium spatial resolution. Vegetation classification was 111 performed using different types of satellite imagery depending on the scale of the selected river 112 113 reach. Large-scale reaches were analysed using Landsat 8 OLI (false colour composite bands 114 RGB 753, 654 and 543) with 30 m spatial resolution. For smaller reaches, GeoEye (0.46 m 115 spatial resolution) georeferenced snapshots acquired using the World Imagery plug-in were used 116 (ESRI, 2013). Calculation of cover percentage of vegetation types (palustrine or grasses) was 117 performed through supervised classification of medium- and high-resolution images using the "Maximum likelihood classification" method on ArcGIS 10.2.2 (ESRI, 2013). The images were 118 119 usually segmented in three classes (vegetation, water and soil), but some areas required the use of additional subclasses (i.e., vegetation 1 and 2, water 1 and 2, soil 1 and 2) to achieve a better 120 121 image classification.

Vegetation cover percentage was computed for each active meander belt, where there is a clear segmentation between the latter and surrounding areas (Fig. 2); otherwise, vegetation cover across the entire alluvial plain was computed. Additionally, we have also separately calculated the vegetation cover on areas with no current fluvial sedimentation and also the total area of the

analysed examples, which includes both the surrounding areas and the active meander belt (Table
1). These surrounding areas can be characterized by other ongoing sedimentation processes (e.g.,
non-confined runoff, aeolian re-working) or by exposed, older meander-belt and lacustrine
deposits (e.g. flat valley-bottom topography).

Variations between dry and rainy seasons and morphological details were acquired from recently released Planet images (Planet Team, 2017), with 3 m spatial resolution. Dry and rainy periods were identified using CHIRPS (Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station Data) (Funk et al., 2015) on the Google Earth Engine (GEE) environment. The Google Earth Engine was also used to create time-lapse imagery (see supplemental materials) of each area using the Landsat collection from 1984 to present.

136 **3. Results**

137 3.1. Meandering rivers in modern desert basins - overview

Sinuosity of the studied rivers ranges from 1.5 to 2.4, slope gradients from 9x10⁻⁶ to 2x10⁻ 138 139 ³, and vegetation cover from 0 to 38% on the analysed meander belts (Table 1). Eleven of the 140 studied systems developed laterally to, and were confined by, aeolian dunes. Scrolls, identified as 141 crescent-shaped ridges and swales preserved along the inner channel banks, are recorded on a 142 variety of scales (Fig. 3A, 3B), as are channel cut-offs (Fig. 3C) and oxbow lakes (Fig. 3A, 3D). 143 Crevasses and crevasse splays are rare features in the studied examples, and develop in only two 144 of the analysed systems: the Inner Niger Delta (Fig. 3B) and the Warburton River (Fig. 3C). 145 Preserved scroll features are abundant in some examples (e.g. Senegal River) but are sparse in the other examples. In the Senegal River (Fig. 2A), which is fed by an equatorial climate in its source 146 147 areas, vegetation follows scrolls and more recent deposits, particularly on river banks and on the 148 inner parts of point bars. Small channels on the channel belt of the Senegal River shift laterally to 149 erode the edge of vegetation-free aeolian dune fields and yet are able to develop meandering planforms (upper part of Fig. 3D). 150

Some of the studied examples are characterized by ephemeral flow (e.g., Amargosa River), others by perennial flow (e.g. Helmand River), and others are characterized by catchment areas with climatic regimes that differ from that of the depositional site (e.g., Senegal River). Yet, in all these different flow regimes, meandering rivers are able to develop with limited vegetation presence.

156 3.2 Geomorphology of meandering rivers in deserts

157 An abandoned contributory river to the Tarim River preserves multiple scrolls and abandoned-channel features (Fig. 4A). The example from Chad (Fig. 4B) is characterized by an 158 abandoned or ephemeral system which flowed onto the exposed area of the extinct Lake Chad 159 160 (Drake et al., 2011); it shows how fine-grained sediments can provide sufficient cohesion to stabilize river banks, even with very limited vegetation. Similarly, the Helmand River 161 162 (Afghanistan) (Fig. 4C) meanders across a valley bottom composed of Neogene deposits of 163 fluvial sand and silt, lacustrine silt and clay, and aeolian sand. These rivers develop in endorheic, intracratonic and foreland basin settings. 164

165 In rivers developed in siliciclastic environments, surrounding areas can either be largely 166 devoid of aeolian dunes such as in the Bermejo River (Fig. 4D), or may be partly occupied by 167 dune fields, such as in parts of the Senegal River. Areas with no currently active fluvial sedimentation are commonly dominated by aeolian processes, with the presence of aeolian dunes 168 169 in 10 examples; vegetation presence in this setting ranges from 0 to 7%. Examples from Bolivia and Death Valley (USA) are exceptions whereby aeolian dunes did not develop on areas 170 171 surrounding the active meander belt, with these rivers being developed in evaporitic settings: salt may have provided additional cohesion to induce meandering and scroll development (e.g., 172 173 Matsubara et al., 2015).

The Inner Niger Delta is characterized by a single-channel trunk system (Fig. 5A) with multiple tributaries with varying sinuosities (Fig. 5B) and varying dimensions (Fig. 5 C, D);

abundant scroll bars and sparse crevasses are recorded. Such tributaries commonly flow into
rectilinear interdune settings and yet develop highly sinuous single channels (Fig. 5E).

The Warburton River in Lake Eyre displays crevasse development (Fig. 3C, 6A, 6B)
where flow overspills levées and develops floodplain lakes such as the Perra Mudla Yeppa Lake.
The river is entrenched into, and surrounded by, areas with aeolian-dominated landforms (Fig.
6C), and also areas with developing channel-scrolls (Fig. 6D), abandoned channels and channel
cut-offs (Fig. 6E).

183 3.3 Meandering as a function of tectono-climatic conditions and vegetation cover

184 The studied rivers develop in a variety of tectonic settings: foreland (Fig. 4A), 185 intracratonic (Fig. 4B), pull-apart, and rift basins. They also develop in both cold (Fig. 4C) and 186 hot (Fig. 4D) deserts. No significant differences between rivers developed in hot and cold desert 187 climates is observable in terms of planform development and sinuosity (Table 1). The studied examples are stable at the scale of decades, as observed through time-lapse analysis using the 188 Google Earth Engine (e.g., the Helmand River in Afghanistan: see multi-temporal links in 189 190 Supplementary files). The meandering rivers we describe occupy large areas in the basin, tend to 191 occur downstream of the point where the river enters a subsiding basin, and in an axial position 192 in the basin, where surrounding sediment is largely distal alluvium or aeolian. In contrast to this, 193 our observations show that, in most modern desert basins, braided systems form around the 194 basin margins and have short-headed drainage catchments that supply fan-shaped bodies of sediment that are largely restricted in most cases to the basin flanks. 195

The presence of vegetation surface cover (Table 1) in the studied rivers varies from 0 to 39% in meander belts, from 0 to 7% in the laterally adjacent areas, and from 0 to 18% in the total studied area. Although potential time-lag effects may be present, there is no correlation in these rivers between channel sinuosity and vegetation cover (Fig. 7) in: (i) meander belt; (ii) surrounding areas of the meander belt; and (iii) total studied area (i + ii). Pearson's R ranges
from -0.006 to 0.289.

202	The Inner Niger Delta (Mali) illustrates this lack of correlation: of the rivers considered
203	in this study it has the second highest vegetation density on its meander belt (32%), the highest
204	vegetation value for the total alluvial plain area (18%) and the adjacent area (7%), but it has the
205	lowest sinuosity values of just 1.5. In contrast, the Zhanadarya River (Fig. 3A) has the second
206	highest sinuosity value (1.8) and yet has extremely sparse vegetation cover on its meander belt
207	(2%). The only system with a greater sinuosity is the Yobe river (Nigeria and Chad) with a
208	sinuosity of 2.4; this has a far more densely vegetated meander belt (39%).
209	Importantly, many systems with no vegetation cover can develop meandering channels,
210	and with different agents and mechanisms acting to provide cohesion other than vegetation. The
211	studied example from the Bolivian Altiplano (Fig. 8A), is devoid of appreciable vegetation cover
212	and yet develops features typical of meandering rivers, including oxbow lakes and preserved
213	scrolls. The Amargosa River in the Death Valley (Fig. 8B) similarly is devoid of appreciable
214	vegetation cover and develops highly sinuous single channels. These two systems are both
215	characterized by evaporitic floodplain sediments, which give rise to cohesive properties that
216	encourage channel-bank stabilization (e.g. Li et al., 2015; Ielpi, 2019). In addition, an ephemeral
217	contributory of the Tarim River (Fig. 8C) is characterized by sandy and silty material (Li et al.,
218	2017) and yet has been able to develop a similar channel sinuosity (1.7) to the aforementioned
219	rivers developed in evaporitic settings. Additionally, no significant relationship between sinuosity
220	and gradient (Fig. 7D) was identified (Pearson's $R = -0.2201$).

221 **4. Discussion**

4.1. Distribution of meandering rivers in modern sedimentary basins

223 Meandering channel systems are widespread features in modern desert basins, despite the 224 absence or restriction of bank stabilization and runoff control by vegetation. Our data show no 225 correlation between sinuosity and vegetation cover (Fig. 7). Furthermore, many such rivers flow 226 through areas with varying vegetation-cover density, including vegetated areas and areas with no 227 vegetation, with no observable changes on the overall appearance of channel organization (e.g., 228 Senegal River). The studied meandering rivers show that the presence of vegetation is not 229 mandatory for development of a meandering planform, in contrast to traditional models for pre-230 vegetation river deposits which assumed that meandering river channels were rarely able to 231 develop prior to the Silurian (Schumm, 1968; Davies and Gibling, 2010; Long, 2011; McMahon 232 and Davies, 2017, 2018; Went and McMahon, 2018), and which favour the ubiquitous presence 233 of shallow and wide braided channels, i.e., the sheet-braided fluvial style (Cotter, 1978). 234 However, our results are in accordance with more recent models for prevegetation fluvial 235 deposits which propose that not only were meandering channels able to develop before land-236 plant colonization (Santos and Owen, 2016) but they were also able to develop more variable river dynamics (e.g. Santos et al., 2014; Ielpi and Rainbird, 2016; Ielpi et al., 2017; Ghinassi and 237 238 Ielpi, 2018).

Our results are not intended to exhaustively document all existing examples of meandering rivers developed in modern desert sedimentary basins, but rather to demonstrate that they are common features in environments where vegetation cover is limited. Whilst we acknowledge that rivers are dynamic systems that are subject to local climate and geomorphology, this study is solely dedicated to understanding planform development within the realm of desert sedimentary basins.

245 4.2. Stabilization mechanisms in modern desert-basin rivers

Stabilization mechanisms for meander-belt development in the absence of vegetation
include: (i) low-gradient alluvial plains, (ii) lateral confinement by aeolian dune-fields and dune

248 forms, and (iii) cohesion provided by salt and fine-grained sediments. According to our results 249 (Table 1), 87% of meandering channels studied develop in endorheic basin settings in non- and poorly vegetated environments. Endorheic basins preserve all sedimentary material supplied to 250 251 the basin (Nichols, 2007), particularly fine-grained sediments, which would otherwise bypass the 252 fluvial system and be transported downstream into a shoreline realm, chiefly as suspended load 253 (e.g., Walsh and Nittrouer, 2009). Additionally, endorheic desert basins are prone to evaporite 254 precipitation and accumulation (Schütt, 1998), which can provide a surface and channel banks 255 that are highly stabilized, as illustrated by the examples from the Bolivian Altiplano and the 256 Amargosa River in Death Valley (Ielpi, 2019). Here we also note that one of the most spectacular examples of an endorheic basin meandering systems is the currently inactive Uzboy Channel 257 258 (Karakum Desert, Turkmenistan), which preserves channels formed under an arid palaeoclimate 259 from the Upper Pliocene to Preglacial Quaternary (Fet and Atamuradov, 1994; Létolle et al., 260 2007). However, the Uzboy channel is excluded from analysis herein since it is not possible to estimate the vegetation content for when this system was active. 261

262 The only studied examples of desert meandering rivers developed in exorheic basins (i.e., 263 Senegal River and the Inner Niger Delta; see discussions below) are characterized by fluvial-264 aeolian interactions. Wind-blown dust from the dune fields surrounding these meander-belts may also provide fine-grained sediments (e.g. Qiang et al., 2014) that serve to provide cohesion 265 and stability to river channel banks in desert environments. Additionally, the Inner Niger Delta 266 and Senegal River are two of the three lowest gradient systems in our studied examples. 267 268 Importantly, the rivers in the present analysis are characterized by geomorphic features that are 269 markedly different from most models of prevegetation rivers (e.g., the wide and shallow braided channels predicted by Cotter (1978). These examples are important in the construction of new 270 271 models for prevegetation fluvial deposits.

272 The Senegal River meander belt (Fig. 2A) is restricted laterally by aeolian dune fields. 273 Dune crests are oriented perpendicular to the trend of the meander belt, the transition being 274 delineated by a sharp boundary typical of such fluvial-aeolian interaction (cf. Al-Masrahy and 275 Mountney, 2015). This geomorphic style can commonly lead to mudstone and/or evaporitic 276 sediment accumulation through floodwaters ponding against the edges of the adjoining aeolian 277 dune fields (e.g. Stanistreet and Stollhofen, 2002). The reworking of such mudstone and 278 evaporitic sediment could assist in promoting a cohesive lining to channel banks in desert 279 meandering rivers. This is likely to be the case in the Senegal River; although fieldwork is needed 280 to assess this hypothesis. The lateral relationship of the Senegal River to the non-vegetated dune 281 fields to the north and south may promote meandering channel development through: (i) lateral 282 confinement of the meander belt, and (ii) constant supply of sediment through dune-field erosion (Fig. 3D), both acting to restrict channel widening, and thus the change to a braided 283 284 planform (e.g., Peakall et al., 2007).

285 The Senegal River also demonstrates that discharge variations, and related presence of 286 vegetation, in desert environments do not necessarily impact river characteristics such as bankfull 287 width and development of cutoff channels. Vegetation density increases significantly during the 288 summer months (Fig. 9A); even during this period of relative drought relative to the wetter winter season (Fig. 9B); no changes in fluvial dynamics is observable between those periods. This 289 290 increase in vegetation also hints at the opportunism of vegetation in occupying specific geomorphic niches. The described differences in water input during summer and winter likely 291 292 result from the river being fed by areas external to the basin, providing perennial supply of water 293 to the system.

Both the Senegal River and the Inner Niger Delta are characterized by more than one channel, each of which have individual meandering channel planforms. Whereas the Senegal River meander-belt is single and relatively rectilinear, the Inner Niger Delta is characterized by multiple meander belts (Fig. 3B). These belts are mostly oriented parallel to surrounding aeolian dune forms, a situation which would promote the winnowing of fine-grained sediment (cf. Al-Masrahy and Mountney, 2015). This river not only records the development of an anabranching system in a poorly-vegetated environment, but also shows that such anabranches can individually develop a sinuous channel planform even when laterally restricted by rectilinear dunes and with banks that are therefore likely composed of a substantial proportion of matrix-free cohesionless sand reworked from adjacent aeolian dunes (Fig. 5E).

304 4.3. Distribution of meandering rivers and vegetation in modern sedimentary basins

305 The presence of vegetation in the studied fluvial systems is concentrated in low-lying 306 areas of the alluvial plain such as scroll bars and swales (e.g. Nanson, 1980; Mertes et al., 1995; 307 Tooth et al., 2008), features resulting from point-bar deposition and which are prone to water stagnation and associated fine-grained sediment accumulation (e.g., Page et al., 2003). Muddy 308 309 substrates typically encourage riverine plant growth (Prausová et al., 2015). This demonstrates the opportunism of vegetation in occupying specific geomorphic niches, as opposed to it acting 310 311 as a geoengineer (cf. Corenblit et al., 2015). Vegetation requires sufficient humidity to prosper, 312 but, as seen in the documented examples, the development of meandering channels can be 313 achieved without vegetation.

314 It is likely that the meandering nature of the studied examples is the result of autogenic 315 modulations that have an impact greater than that of vegetation (Erkens et al., 2011), particularly 316 in tectonically active environments where an exogenic variable such as vegetation exerts less 317 influence than a combination of processes related to dynamic equilibrium forms (Nanson and Huang, 2018). Those modulations include river self-organization through erosional and 318 319 depositional processes (Stølum, 1996), which may have been influenced by river-bank cohesion (Peakall et al., 2007), induced by fine-grained deposition through small variations in flow depth 320 321 (Howard, 2009). Such variations are supported by the analysis of multi-temporal imagery, which

show little oscillation in river flow and slow channel lateral migration (see Supplementaryinformation for details), likely to be linked with low water input.

324 4.4. Implications for rivers developed before land plant evolution

325 The majority (14 out of 16) of the examples documented here developed in endorheic 326 basins (Table 1). This is a situation that likely increased the proportion of available fine-grained 327 sediments compared to that in exorheic basins (e.g. Nichols, 2007). This may indicate that 328 prevegetation river systems developed in such basin settings were more likely to develop meandering channel planforms than those developed on exorheic basins. The ability for 329 330 prevegetation rivers to meander has also been credited to increased cohesion due to the presence 331 of fine (Santos and Owen, 2016) and evaporitic sediments (Ielpi, 2019). Regarding the role of 332 fine-grained sediment as an agent that promotes cohesion and strengthening of channel banks, 333 the Helmand River (Afghanistan; this study) is currently incising Neogene deposits composed of, 334 lacustrine silt and clay, and associated fluvial aeolian deposits. A similar situation occurs in the examples from Chad, which flow onto the exposed floor of the shrinking Lake Chad. These 335 336 examples are similar to those described by Matsubara et al. (2015) as analogues to fluvial deposits on Mars. 337

338 Floodplain roughness is an additional variable which can induce sinuous channel 339 development (Lazarus and Constantine, 2013); in desert basins this may result from the presence 340 of aeolian bedforms. Non-vegetated, well-established aeolian dune fields commonly dominate the environments surrounding the studied meander belts (10 out of 16 examples). They are 341 342 commonly topographically higher than the studied meander-belts and laterally constrain the 343 fluvial systems (e.g., Senegal River), potentially countering lateral erosion through the near-344 continuous input of aeolian material, and hindering channel-widening and consequent evolution 345 to a braided pattern (e.g., Schumm et al., 1987; Parker, 1998). Widespread aeolian dunes are also 346 likely to have commonly occurred in barren, prevegetation fluvial systems (Long, 2011). Alluvial

slope and sediment types alone (Peakall et al., 2007; Van Dijk et al., 2013) appear to be
insufficient to induce channel meandering, and our observations show a weak correlation
between alluvial gradient and sinuosity. These results differ from numerical models on the
behaviour of prevegetation low-gradient areas, which predict that such rivers should be braided
(Almeida et al., 2016).

In the majority of examples, meandering rivers form the dominant fluvial planform over much of the central parts of the studied basins. This suggests that prevegetation fluvial systems could develop meandering systems in the central parts of the basin. The sparseness of crevasse splays in our examples is likely an indication that avulsion frequency is lower in these systems, this being mostly the result of water sparseness in deserts; a characteristic not necessarily applicable to the prevegetation rock record.

Schemes that classify river morphology into end-members may be simplistic (Bridge, 358 1993; Ethridge, 2011) but they persist in the literature and are widely applied. Although 359 360 interpretations of braided fluvial systems of all geological ages are dominant and far more 361 abundant than those of meandering systems in the published literature (Gibling, 2006; 362 Colombera et al., 2013), a large proportion (~46%) of distributive fluvial systems developed in modern sedimentary basins, including dryland areas, develop sinuous channel planforms (Hartley 363 364 et al., 2015). Such an observation suggests that many sandy meander-belt deposits may not have 365 been identified correctly in the fluvial rock record (e.g. Swan et al., 2019) and may also imply that 366 amalgamated meandering sandy fluvial systems could be under-represented in pre-Devonian 367 fluvial deposits. Our observations suggest that prevegetation meandering rivers may have been more common than previously envisaged, and the examples described here are potential 368 analogues for prevegetation fluvial deposits (Santos and Owen, 2016). 369

5. Conclusions

371 Remotely sensed imagery shows that terrestrial meandering rivers can form where 372 vegetation is restricted or absent. Crevasse splays are rare in non- and poorly-vegetated settings, and floodplain settings are commonly dominated by aeolian processes. Most examples of 373 374 meandering rivers in desert basins are related to major drainage systems of their respective 375 basins. By contrast, braided channels tend to be related to smaller-scale drainages and 376 catchments. Stabilization mechanisms in the absence of vegetation include cohesion provided by fine-grained sediments and salt, and constant sediment input from adjacent aeolian dune fields. 377 378 Endorheic basin settings are more likely to preserve meandering channel deposits in non- and 379 poorly vegetated environments. These systems may make excellent analogues for prevegetation 380 systems, yet are characterized by geomorphic features that are markedly different (i.e., narrow 381 and single, meandering channels) from current models of prevegetation rivers.

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588 FIGURE AND TABLE CAPTIONS

589

590	Fig. 1. Global map featuring poorly to non-vegetated meandering rivers (circles) developed in
591	modern desert basins (adapted from Nyberg and Howell, 2015): 1 – Algeria; 2 – Southern
592	Altiplano Plateau, Bolivia; 3 – Amargosa River, Death Valley, USA; 4 – Batha River, Chad; 5 –
593	Bermejo River, Argentina; 6 – Ephemeral river in Chad; 7 – Helmand River, Afghanistan; 8 –
594	Inner Niger Delta, Mali; 9 – ephemeral river in Niger; 10 – Senegal River, Senegal/Mauritania; 11
595	– Taklamakan Desert river 1, China; 12 – Taklamakan Desert river 2, China; 13 – river in Ak-
596	Altyn, Turkmenistan; 14 – Warburton River, Australia; 15 – Yobe River, Nigeria; 16 –
597	Zhanadarya River, Kazakhstan.
598	
599	Fig. 2. Examples of vegetation cover classification, highlighting (left), in yellow, the limits of
600	selected meander belt areas and (right) resulting vegetation aerial identification. (A) Senegal
601	River. (B) Zhanadarya River. (C) Unnamed ephemeral river in Chad. See supplementary data for
602	all the classified examples. Black arrows at upper right of each image indicate river-flow
603	direction.
604	
605	Fig. 3. Selected examples of poorly and non-vegetated meandering rivers. (A) Oxbow lakes in
606	the Zhanadarya River, Kazakhstan. (B) Aeolian linear dunes and scrolls in the Inner Niger
607	Delta, Mali. (C) Crevasse-splay and channel cutoff in the Warburton River, Australia. (D)
608	Laterally-eroding channels, scrolls and aeolian dunes in the Senegal River, Senegal/Mauritania.
609	Black arrows at upper right of each image indicate river-flow direction.

610

611 Fig. 4. Detailed view of selected poorly- to non-vegetated meandering rivers. (A) Scrolls and

612 abandoned channel form preserved of an ephemeral river in the Tarim Basin, China. (B) Scrolls

613	and abandoned channel form of an unnamed ephemeral river in the Sahara Desert in Chad. (C)
614	Channel cutoff and valley limits of the Helmand River, Afghanistan. (D) Bermejo River,
615	Argentina. Black arrows at upper right of each image indicates river-flow direction.
616	
617	Fig. 5. Inner Niger Delta, Mali. (A) General view of the Inner Niger Delta as it crosses the
618	southern Sahara Desert. (B) Detail of (A) showing the trunk system (arrow) and two
619	anabranches with meandering planform. (C) Detail showing anabranches splitting into smaller
620	channels (arrow). (D) Detail of much smaller channel (see location on C). (E) Small channel
621	(arrow) flowing between linear aeolian dunes. Black bar (upper right) is 50 km.
622	
623	Fig. 6. Warburton River in Simpson Desert (Lake Eyre, Australia). (A) General view of the
624	Warburton River. (B) Crevasse development into floodplain lake. (C) Detail of the Warburton
625	River channel entrenched into surrounding areas. (D) Development of scroll features. (E)
626	Channel cut-off development. Black bar is 20 km long.
627	
628	Fig. 7. Graph of sinuosity against (A) percentage of meander belt vegetation cover, (B)
629	vegetation cover of areas surrounding studied meander belts, (C) total area of alluvial plain
630	vegetation cover and (D) alluvial plain gradient for the studied rivers.
631	
632	Fig. 8. Examples of agents and mechanisms acting to provide cohesion other than vegetation.
633	Evaporitic floodplain sediments providing channel-bank cohesion (A) Uyuni Desert, Bolivia, and
634	(B) Amargosa River, Death Valley. Fine-grained sandy and silty material: (C) ephemeral tributary
635	of the Tarim River, China.
636	

- **Fig. 9.** Wet and dry seasons at the Senegal River (Senegal/Mauritania). One-month mosaic of
- 638 Planet Images showing vegetation cover differences between (A) dry season and (B) wet season
- 639 can be observed. Insert (lower right): CHIRPS climogram depicting temperature and rainfall at
- 640 the region (average of last 30 years for rainfall and last 20 years for temperature).

Table 1 Morphometric data of the studied rivers.



















	Meander	Thalweg	Meander belt	Meander width			Total area	Meander belt	Lateral area	41:			
River name	belt length	length	width average	average	Sinuosity	Gradient	vegetation cover	vegetation cover	vegetation cover	Aeonan	Climate	Basin settings	Satellite image
	(km)	(km)	(km)	(m)			(%)	(%)	(%)	aunes			
Algeria	44	77	1	37	1.8	0.001493	11.1	4.5	7.0	-	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	LS8 OLI
Altiplano	19	28	0.7	15	1.5	0.000256	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	BWk	endorheic foreland	GeoCover
Amargosa	10	16	-	10	1.6	0.000384	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	BWh	endorheic pull-apart	GeoCover
Batha	230	340	5	126	1.5	0.000362	6.4	7.1	6.1	-	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Bermejo	75	114	1	60	1.5	0.002773	6.0	6.9	5.8	-	BWk	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Chad 1	141	274	15	220	1.9	0.000029	5.0	6.2	0.7	х	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Helmand	333	485	4	105	1.5	0.000694	4.8	23.8	0.1	х	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	LS8 OLI
Dalta	191	277	60	929	1.5	0.000009	18.2	32.2	7.2	х	BWh	exorheic intracratonic	LS8 OLI
Niger	-	-	4	-	-	0.000221	0.0	0.0	0.0	х	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Senegal	366	625	17	267	1.7	0.000030	10.9	14.7	0.1	х	BWh	exorheic intracratonic	LS8 OLI
Taklamakan 1	69	111	4	218	1.7	0.000243	1.3	1.7	1.2	х	BWk	endorheic foreland	LS8 OLI
Taklamakan 2	42	61	3	52	1.5	0.000213	5.9	10.6	3.8	х	BWk	endorheic foreland	GeoCover
Turkmenistan 2	81	140	4	123	1.7	0.000457	9.7	28.7	5.1	-	BWk	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Warburton	142	206	2	30	1.5	0.000106	5.7	1.9	0.2	х	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover
Yobe	295	630	6	31	2.4	0.000078	8.5	38.8	0.6	х	BWh	endorheic intracratonic	LS8 OLI
Zhanadarya	204	375	19	157	1.8	0.000199	6.1	2.3	3.8	х	BWk	endorheic intracratonic	GeoCover

Supplementary

Meandering rivers in modern desert basins: implications for the prevegetation fluvial rock record

Maurício G.M. Santos, Adrian J. Hartley, Nigel P. Mountney, Jeff Peakall, Amanda Owen, Eder R. Merino, and

Mario L. Assine

Corresponding author: Mauricio G.M. Santos Email: santos.mauricio@ufabc.edu.br

This PDF file includes:

- 1. Methodology
- 2. Meandering rivers in desert basins
- 3. Studied rivers locations
- 4. Multi-temporal imagery links

1. Methodology



Senegal river (Senegal/Mauritania)

Fig. S1: Methodology of extracted morphometric data, Senegal River.

2. Meandering Rivers in Desert Basins

The following images show the areas selected for meander-belt vegetation cover classification (where applicable), with meander-belts contour highlighted. Vegetation-cover values refer to presence of vegetation on meander-belts. See Table 1 for further details.



Fig. S2: Sahara Desert (Niger), no vegetation cover.

San San De	-	66°51'W	20°42'S I

Fig. S3: Altiplano (Bolivia), no vegetation cover.



Fig. S4: Amargosa River, Death Valley (USA), no vegetation cover.



Fig. S5: Taklamakan Desert (China), 1.7% vegetation cover.



Fig. S6: Warburton River, Lake Eyre (Australia), 1.9% vegetation cover.



Fig. S7: Zhanadarya River (Kyzylorda, Kazakhstan), 2.3% vegetation cover.



Fig. S8: Sahara Desert, Algeria, 4.5% vegetation cover.



Fig. S9: Sahara Desert (Chad 1), 6.2% vegetation cover.



Fig. S10: Bermejo River (Argentina), 6.9% vegetation cover.



Fig. S11: Sahara Desert, Batha River (Chad 2), 7.1% vegetation cover.



Fig. S12: Taklamakan 2 (China), 10.6% vegetation cover.



Fig. S13: Sahara Desert, Senegal River (Senegal/Mauritania), 14.7% vegetation cover.



Fig. S14: Helmand River, Margo Desert (Afghanistan), 23.8% vegetation cover.



Fig. S15: Sarygamysh Lake Basin (Turkmenistan 2), 28.7% vegetation cover.



Fig. S16: Sahara Desert, Inner Niger Delta (Mali), 32.2% vegetation cover.



Fig. S18: Sahara Desert, Yobe River (Nigeria), 38.8% vegetation cover.

3. STUDIED RIVERS LOCATIONS

<u>Latitude</u>	<u>Longitude</u>
15°06'52"N	012°20'50"E
20°41'23"S	066°50'32"W
36° 08'16"N	116°48'34"W
40°51'41"N	085°51'05"E
30°35'50"N	064°00'47"E
13°54'55"N	016 °22'18" E
27°47'02"S	137°29'40"E
40°29'16"N	087°57'51"E
29°36'24"S	068°28'12"W
44°19'02''N	063°12'47"E
13°12'02"N	018 °22'16" E
42°11'52"N	057°58'30"E
16°39'10"N	014°55'19"W
13°07'16"N	012°16'55"E
34°36'55"N	006° 32' 01"E
15°47'55"N	003°51'47"W
	Latitude 15°06'52"N 20°41'23"S 36° 08'16"N 40°51'41"N 30°35'50"N 13°54'55"N 27°47'02"S 40°29'16"N 29°36'24"S 44°19'02"N 13°12'02"N 42°11'52"N 16°39'10"N 13°07'16"N 34°36'55"N 15°47'55"N

4. MULTI-TEMPORAL IMAGERY LINKS

01. Niger

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=14.90853,12.50427,11.061,latLng&t=0.51

02. Altiplano (Bolivia)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=-20.67891,-66.83777,11.973,latLng&t=0.37

03. Death Valley (USA)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=36.12278,-116.78864,11.973,latLng&t=1.60

04. Tarim 1 (China)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=40.93444,86.05131,11.973,latLng&t=0.18

05. Helmand River (Afghanistan)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=30.49586,63.58401,10.363,latLng&t=1.88

06. Chad 1

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=14.32081,16.85321,9.249,latLng&t=3.24

07. Warburton River (Australia)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=-27.74545,137.74205,11.106,latLng&t=3.13

08. Tarim 2 (China)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=40.47666,87.91626,10.17,latLng&t=1.65

09. Bermejo River (Argentina)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=-29.70231,-68.41044,11.973,latLng&t=2.06

10. Kyzylorda (Kazakhstan)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=44.35814,63.75796,9.87,latLng&t=3.20

11. Chad 2

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=13.26351,19.7962,9.362,latLng&t=3.24

12. Turkmenistan 2

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=42.18849,58.12493,10.404,latLng&t=1.83

13. Senegal River (Senegal/Mauritania)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=16.63686,-15.00031,9.874,latLng&t=2.79

14. Yobe River (Nigeria)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=13.02792,12.14021,9.51,latLng&t=1.18

15. Algeria

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=34.59697,6.49548,11.848,latLng&t=1.02

16. Inner Niger Delta (Mali)

https://earthengine.google.com/timelapse/#v=15.68361,-3.97495,8.982,latLng&t=0.00

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