

1 Rapid seaward expansion of seaport footprints worldwide

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14 15 16 17 **Abstract**

18 As global maritime traffic increases, seaports grow to accommodate and compete for higher
19 volumes of trade throughput. However, growth trajectories of seaport footprints around the
20 world have gone unmeasured, likely because of a lack of readily available spatio-temporal data.
21 Here, we use geospatial analysis of global satellite imagery from 1990–2020 to show that 65
22 seaports among the world's top 100 container ports, as ranked by reported throughput, have
23 been expanding rapidly seaward. Collectively, these seaports have added approximately 978 km²
24 in gross port area in three decades through coastal land reclamation. We also find that the
25 relationship between footprint expansion and throughput volume is highly variable among
26 seaports. Understanding patterns of seaport expansion in space and time informs global
27 assessments of critical infrastructure and supply chain vulnerability to climate-driven hazard.
28 Seaport expansion also sets up complex trade-offs in the context of environmental impacts and
29 climate adaptation.

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32 Introduction

33 Seaports are essential to flow of global trade¹: approximately half of all global trade, by value, is
34 maritime². For such valuable infrastructural assets, seaports are precariously exposed to coastal
35 natural hazards. Recent research has shown that seaport and maritime supply chain exposure to
36 multiple climate-driven natural hazards is geographically heterogeneous, with hotspots of risk
37 concentrated in cyclone corridors^{3,4,5,6}. But even for seaports where the current risk of disruption
38 from natural hazards is relatively low³, functional risk to seaport infrastructure and operations is
39 expected to increase before 2050^{4,7}. In general, this intensification of future risk may be
40 exacerbated by two underlying drivers. One is sea-level rise and changes in climate-related
41 forcings more generally, which, by compounding the potential landward reach of extreme sea
42 levels, will tend to shift coastal flooding regimes toward more frequent, higher-magnitude
43 events^{7,8,9}. The other is global maritime traffic, which is projected to grow by between two and 12
44 times its current volume by mid-century¹⁰. Of these two drivers, the latter likely imparts a more
45 immediate effect on the global distribution of seaport risk¹¹. As greater maritime trade volume
46 demands more seaport infrastructure and accommodation space in existing and new locations,
47 the sector must expand the physical area available for operation^{7,12} – and so seaports get bigger.

48 While regional and global analyses of risk to seaport infrastructure and international trade
49 networks are becoming more powerful, nuanced, and detailed^{2,3,4,13}, current assessments treat the
50 spatial footprints of seaports as static quantities, and do not account for seaport expansion,
51 typically seaward, over time (**Fig. 1**)¹⁴. Spatio-temporal patterns of change in seaport footprints
52 affect routes of global trade as seaports compete for throughput¹², inform the dynamics and
53 implications of climatic risk^{3,4}, physically reshape coastlines where exposure to hazard impacts is
54 already high^{8,15,16}, and are associated with detrimental environmental consequences for coastal
55 ecology^{17,18,19,20,21}. Reports of coastal land reclamation related to port expansion, specifically, tend
56 to be geographically focused^{22,23,24}. Thus far, trajectories of seaport footprint growth around the
57 world have gone unmeasured, likely because of a lack of readily available spatio-temporal data on
58 seaport areas^{4,7}.

59 Here, we measured annually over three decades (1990–2020) patterns of seaward expansion in 65
60 of the world's top 100 container ports as ranked by throughput²⁵ (**Fig. 2**), using a recently
61 published method for quantifying spatial footprints of coastal land reclamation from satellite
62 imagery in Google Earth Engine¹⁴ (**Fig. 1**; see Methods). Coastal land reclamation involves the
63 engineered conversion of a nearshore subaqueous or intertidal environment to subaerial dry land
64 or an enclosed water body^{14,26}. A seaport complex may expand seaward to accommodate
65 changing requirements for a host of operational reasons (e.g., new or larger vessel berths,
66 terminal accessibility and logistics, storage area, onsite production), but also because there may
67 be no option or availability to expand inland, given terrain or conflicts with existing land
68 uses^{22,27,28,29}.

69 Our remote-sensing method uses as its baseline a 1990 composite coastline from an annual
70 dataset of global surface water³⁰. Coastal land-reclamation activities after 1990 emerge as
71 seaward-directed relocations of the global surface-water coastline over time. To differentiate
72 "seaports" from ports in riverine and inshore settings, we mapped the Lloyd's List²⁵ of the 100
73 largest container ports by reported container throughput in 2020, and identified 89 container
74 ports located on an open-water coastline. From those 89 sites, we excluded 24 seaports where
75 total seaward-directed changes were smaller than 1 km² (see Methods). A list of the container
76 ports excluded from our analysis is provided along with the data for the results presented here
77 (see Data Availability).

78 Seaward expansion greater than 1 km² since 1990 does not reflect the full spatial footprint of any
79 given seaport complex. Determining from remotely sensed data landward expansion and
80 patterns of change in the total footprints of seaport area across coastal and terrestrial spaces

81 requires a different analytical approach. Nor does our method differentiate among specific uses
82 of seaport-related space, such as terminal facilities, storage, industry, or other integrated
83 layouts^{4,13,14}: the seaward footprints that we measure must be interpreted as a partial gauge of
84 gross port area. Imagery from Google Earth and Planet Basemap, and targeted queries in
85 OpenStreetMap, corroborate that the seaward growth we measure at these 65 sites is associated
86 with expansion of seaport complexes.

87

88 **Results**

89 We find that since 1990, 65 seaports among the world's top 100 container ports by reported
90 throughput in 2020²⁵ have expanded their spatial footprints seaward through coastal land
91 reclamation by a total of 978 km² (**Fig. 2**). This sum is large (~22%) relative to the current
92 estimated area of port terminals worldwide (~4,500 km²)⁴. These 65 seaports also represent a
93 significant segment of the global port sector. According to UNCTAD, 798.9 million TEUs
94 (industry-standard "twenty-foot equivalent units") of containers were handled worldwide in
95 2020³¹, of which the top 100 container ports processed 632.2 million TEUs (79%)²⁵. The 65
96 container seaports in our analysis moved 500 million TEUs in 2020: 79% of the total volume
97 among the top 100 container ports, and 63% of the overall volume of maritime container trade
98 worldwide.

99 Two thirds (43) of the 65 seaports in our analysis are in Asia, and collectively reclaimed 871 km²
100 (89%) of the total seaward expansion we measured (**Fig. 2**). Twenty-one of those seaports are in
101 China, and account for 627 km² (63%) of seaward expansion. The port of Tianjin alone has
102 reclaimed more than 183 km² (18%), more than triple the area reclaimed by the port of
103 Singapore, which has expanded by the second-largest extent. These outliers make the majority of
104 seaport expansions seaward appear modest: approximately half (32) of the 65 seaports identified
105 have reclaimed less than 5 km². But in relative terms, even this growth is meaningful. All but
106 seven of the 65 have at least doubled their seaward area since 1990; 39 have quadrupled it; 12
107 have expanded it by an order of magnitude.

108 Beyond ranked totals, time series of spatial growth in individual seaports reveal a variety of
109 patterns and pulses of seaward expansion (**Fig. 3**). Although spatial scales of expansion among
110 these seaports span three orders of magnitude, the time series exhibit some qualitatively similar
111 characteristics. For example, the time series are punctuated by one or more step-changes in area,
112 indicative of major expansions. Marked seaward reclamation early in the time series produces an
113 asymptotic curve (concave down: e.g., ports of Algeciras, Taicang); rapid expansion late in the
114 time series produces a more exponential curve (concave up: e.g., ports of Colombo, Yingkou).
115 Pronounced growth through the middle of the time series produces a sigmoidal curve (e.g., ports
116 of Barcelona, Jinzhou); punctuated growth at the beginning and end of the time series produces
117 a more cubic curve (e.g., ports of King Abdullah, Laem Chabang). Most of the time series
118 express variations on these curve shapes, including some seaports with sustained periods of
119 effectively linear growth (e.g., ports of Busan, Incheon). While seaports in China and greater Asia
120 constitute the majority of our sample, no particular time-series shape appears specific to a given
121 region. The majority of these 65 seaports show trends of substantial seaward growth within the
122 past 10 to 15 years.

123 The regional distribution of seaward expansion among container seaports in our results (**Fig. 2**)
124 aligns broadly with the regional distribution of trade dominance globally. According to the
125 Lloyd's List²⁵, in 2020, 25 ports in China absorbed almost 40% of the container volume among
126 the top 100 container ports, and 25 ports across the rest of Asia routed an additional 28%. The
127 21 seaports in China in our analysis handled 237 million TEU, or 38% of volume among the top
128 100 container ports in 2020; 22 other major seaports across Asia handled an additional 160
129 million TEU (25%). But our analysis also shows other regional patterns relevant to trade

130 dominance. For example, 10 seaports in Northern Europe and eight in the Middle East had
131 8.6% and 5.6% shares, respectively, of reported volume among the top 100 container ports in
132 2020. While three of those seaports in Northern Europe (3% volume share) have expanded
133 seaward a total of $\sim 29 \text{ km}^2$ (3%) since 1990 – and most of that in Rotterdam alone – all eight of
134 those seaports in the Middle East have collectively reclaimed $\sim 49 \text{ km}^2$ (5%).

135 While the handful of seaports responsible for the most seaward reclamation since 1990 are also
136 the largest by container throughput in 2020, a more inclusive roster of seaports yields a scattered
137 relationship between seaward reclamation and container throughput (**Fig. 4a**). Past work
138 relating port area to handled tonnage in 1990 for 27 ports around the world fit a linear
139 relationship^{7,32}, but our results indicate a more complicated dynamic. First, comparing rank by
140 total reclaimed area versus rank by container throughput in 2020 suggests that a number of
141 seaports among the top 100 container ports are pushing to grow relative to their counterparts
142 (**Fig. 4b**): we find 29 seaports (45% of those in our analysis) with an outsized reclamation
143 signature (above the 1:1 reference line) relative to their container throughput. Second, a partial
144 phase space described by seaward expansion and container throughput demonstrates a variety of
145 trajectories among individual seaports over time (**Fig. 5**). For 43 of the 65 seaports in our
146 sample (a subset determined by data availability), we show reported container throughput as a
147 function of seaward reclamation area annually between 2011 and 2020 (**Fig. 5**). This reversal of
148 the axes in **Fig. 4** and previous work^{7,32} is deliberate, to explore seaward expansion as a potential
149 driver of trade volume. In many cases, container throughput increases with seaward expansion,
150 suggesting that reclamation can serve a key means by which seaports may capture volume share
151 and thereby climb up the global rankings. But these data also show plenty of exceptions to that
152 correlation. For example, newly reclaimed land is not immediately ready for use¹⁴: there is a lag
153 between reclamation and the infrastructure installation necessary to handle higher trade volumes,
154 which some of these trajectories may reflect. Moreover, expansion does not guarantee *ipso facto*
155 greater trade capture, nor does a larger seaport footprint itself ensure that a given throughput
156 volume is sustained. Seaport expansion and container throughput are steered by political, policy,
157 and market forces illegible to this analysis. Given the variety we see in these reclamation and
158 trade volume trajectories, we echo recent cautions against invoking "simple scaling relationships
159 [between seaport area and trade volume] across countries"⁴. Indeed, even a scaling relationship
160 for one seaport may be a poor predictor for another.

161

162 Discussion and Implications

163 Our analysis is intended to synthesise and quantify a collective pattern of seaward expansion
164 among a majority of the largest container seaports in the world (**Fig. 3**). Port expansion is
165 typically discussed in broad terms or at the scale of case studies^{22,23,24}, but the globally distributed
166 pattern in our results is notable for its apparent ubiquity, transcending national-scale differences
167 in policy and regulatory contexts. We also show that while a positive relationship between
168 expansion and container throughput volume is generally evident (**Fig. 4a**), as others have
169 found^{7,32}, that relationship may be less straightforward at the scale of an individual seaport (**Fig.**
170 **5**). Trade volume through a given seaport depends on market dynamics, which can go up or
171 down, but seaport expansion is a ratchet that can only advance. For any given seaport, expansion
172 thus enables and assumes a precarious model in which its market share – or the volume of the
173 market itself – will continue to grow. Moreover, although growth in global maritime traffic is a
174 fundamental driver of seaward expansion among container seaports^{7,10,12}, it is not necessarily the
175 only driver, especially in coastal urban centres straining at the edges of their available real
176 estate^{14,22,28,29}.

177 Partial phase spaces like the one we explore (**Fig. 5**) are useful windows into dynamical systems,
178 but our study is unlikely to help a given seaport authority profile the dimensions of its

179 infrastructural vulnerability. The logistical, policy, ecological, environmental, hazard-exposure,
180 and climate-adaptation ramifications of seaward seaport expansion are inevitably case-specific.
181 Our work does, however, contribute to a wider discourse regarding emergent patterns of coastal
182 risk around the world, of which the infrastructure of maritime trade is an intrinsic component.
183 For example, the spatio-temporal footprints of seaward seaport expansion that we measure are a
184 further documentation of ocean sprawl: "the rapid proliferation of hard artificial structures...in
185 the marine environment"¹⁹, with deleterious consequences for marine sedimentary habitats,
186 biodiversity, and ecological connectivity^{18,19,20,21}. The spatial extent of ocean sprawl and
187 anthropogenic coastal hardening is still being assessed³³ and its proliferation forecast³⁴. Our
188 findings, and related efforts to quantify coastal land reclamation globally^{14,26}, reflect only a
189 component of ocean sprawl, but are indicative of its unprecedented pace and coevolution with
190 socio-ecological and socio-economic risk^{34,35,36}.

191 How seaports and maritime supply chains will adapt to future climate change is an open
192 question^{5,6,7,12,37,38,39} with material implications^{40,41}. A recent conceptual experiment considered the
193 volume of material needed to raise 100 US seaports by two metres, and found that such
194 retrofitting would require 704 million m³ of fill – a quantity equivalent to the total estimated
195 volume of sand delivered by all beach nourishment projects in the US since 1972⁴². Not all fill
196 material used in land reclamation is sand, but sand (with particular granular characteristics) is the
197 essential ingredient in concrete, and surging demand for construction-grade sand has triggered a
198 deepening environmental crisis related to sand mining^{43,44,45}. Because the geography of suitable
199 fill material is heterogeneous, the projected scale of construction required for seaport adaptation
200 and expansion globally could result in an unprecedented "worldwide race for adaptation
201 resources"^{40,41}. Coastal reclamation itself is an ancient engineering technology, yet the current
202 scale, rate, and global extent of coastal reclamation is a novel phenomenon¹⁴. Furthermore, new
203 regional hotspots of seaward seaport expansion may develop, if, for example, China's national
204 Belt and Road Initiative increases and converts on its investments in seaports around the African
205 continent^{46,47,48}, where signatures of coastal land reclamation are already visible¹⁴.

206 The analysis we employ here is not limited to container seaports, and could be directed toward
207 other seaport types⁴. To unpack patterns and consequences of seaport expansion seaward, future
208 research might examine the layered and nuanced context of market movements, investment
209 policies, climate adaptation, and operational sustainability at the case-study scale. Another avenue
210 of inquiry might take advantage of increasingly powerful tools for Earth observation to gain a
211 comprehensive perspective of seaports as dynamic sites of intensive anthropogenic coastal
212 modification, bellwethers of coastal risk, and, potentially, of infrastructural climate-proofing.

213

214 **Methods**

215 To select seaports for our analysis we used the Lloyd's List²⁵ report of the 100 largest container
216 ports globally, based on reported container throughput in 2020. We differentiated seaports from
217 riverine and inshore ports by mapping them and confirming their industrial land use in
218 OpenStreetMap⁴⁹. We identified 89 container ports located on an open coastline.

219 We then applied a recently published open-source method for quantifying spatial footprints of
220 coastal land reclamation from satellite imagery in Google Earth Engine, described in detail in
221 ref.¹⁴ (see also Code Availability). We measured annual patterns of seaport reclamation using the
222 30 m resolution Global Surface Water (JRC-GSW) dataset from 1990 through 2020³⁰ and its
223 Yearly Water Classification History (v1.4), including "no water" and "seasonal" bands, in Google
224 Earth Engine¹⁴. Seaport expansion by reclamation (**Fig. 1**) registers as lateral changes in water
225 surface at the coastline, or "lost permanent water surfaces"³⁸. We recorded the area of these
226 seaward-shifting footprints at annual intervals, relative to a 1990 benchmark coastline: in 1990,
227 seaward expansion is assumed to be zero; we thus measure non-zero seaward expansion from

228 1991. Because the image-processing technique underpinning the JRC-GSW dataset uses pixel-
229 scale annual composites, and because coastal reclamation processes are designed to reduce tidal
230 effects on construction⁵⁰, we did not apply a tidal correction. Nor did we treat the resulting
231 expansion data with any manual post-processing (e.g., pixel correction, interpolation,
232 smoothing). The time series for some seaports include excursive, uncorrected data points that
233 are likely artefacts of the automated analysis. To explore their effects we also undertook a
234 parallel, intensively manual post-processing method of pixel correction, interpolation, and
235 smoothing, and found that the automatic and manual methods delivered only a ~1% difference
236 in global total area of seaward expansion in 2020. Manual post-processing might therefore affect
237 the time series for a given seaport in detail but not in absolute shape. Here we present the
238 automated measurements because we find them to be a sufficiently accurate representation of
239 seaward expansion, and because they are reproducible.

240 Delineating an approximate analytical region-of-interest for each seaport was a manual process.
241 We began by querying land-use polygons in OpenStreetMap (e.g., industrial area, industrial land
242 use, terminal islands, etc.) in the vicinity of each seaport. However, such polygons in
243 OpenStreetMap are themselves composites, and do not necessarily reflect the current footprint
244 of a given seaport. We therefore iteratively checked the OpenStreetMap footprint of each
245 seaport against output from the Google Earth Engine analysis for visualising coastal land
246 reclamation¹⁴ to draw a bounding polygon large enough to accommodate the apparent extent of
247 the seaport in 2020. The landward edges of each polygon get clipped to the 1990 composite
248 shoreline by the Google Earth Engine analysis. The bounding polygons for the 65 seaports that
249 we examine in this work are provided with the analytical code (see Code Availability).

250 Of the 89 container seaports we investigated, 24 seaports returned total areas of seaward
251 expansion smaller than 1 km² (equivalent to ~1100 30 x 30 m pixels of lost permanent water
252 surface). In the interest of a conservative survey, we excluded these 24 seaports from
253 consideration. The remaining 65 seaport are associated with seaward expansion greater than 1
254 km² since 1990. Seaward expansion greater than 1 km² since 1990 does not reflect the full spatial
255 footprint of a given seaport complex, which may include land reclaimed prior to 1990, and/or
256 extend landward. To corroborate that the seaward growth we measured at these 65 sites is
257 associated with expansion of seaport complexes, we used compilations of recent images (2018–
258 2020) in Google Earth and Planet Basemap to make visual assessments of seaport space relative
259 to the areas returned by our automated process in Google Earth Engine. Our method does not
260 differentiate among specific uses of seaport-related space (e.g., terminal facilities, storage,
261 industry, or other integrated layouts^{4,14}), which makes the seaward extents that we observe a
262 partial measure of gross port area.

263 Given that: (1) the time series for some seaports include artifactual data points, (2) most of the
264 time series are nonlinear, (3) major reclamation projects can register as abrupt jumps in seaward
265 seaport area, and (4) the scale of seaward expansion among these seaports collectively spans
266 three orders of magnitude, we estimated series variability in the following way. Missing data
267 points within a given time series were filled by linear interpolation. Using a three-year sliding
268 window, we detrended each three-point sub-series and calculated its standard deviation (in km²).
269 For each seaport, we report the mean of these sliding standard deviations, and also report that
270 mean as a percentage of the total seaward reclamation in 2020 (Fig. 3). We find 53 of the 65
271 seaports have a mean sliding standard deviation less than 1 km², and 61 seaports less than 2 km².
272 For 47 seaports, the mean sliding standard deviation represents less than 5% of their total
273 reclaimed area in 2020, and does not exceed 10% for any seaport in our sample. All 65 mean
274 sliding standard deviations in our analysis sum to ~42 km², or approximately 4% of the total
275 seaward expansion we calculate for 2020. Again, standard deviation here is not strictly a measure
276 of excursive artifacts from the automated data-extraction process, since large reclamation
277 initiatives register in the time series as abrupt jumps in seaward area; cleaning erroneous returns

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278 (whether high or low) for a given year at a given seaport would need to be done manually, from
279 the relevant imagery. Note also that variability we estimate pertains to the time series in our
280 analysis, which is separate from considerations of pixel-scale uncertainty in the underlying Global
281 Surface Water (JRC-GSW) dataset³⁰. Our calculations of time series variability are included in the
282 analytical code that accompanies this work (see Data Availability).

283 Records of TEU throughput between 2011–2020 for 43 of these 65 seaports were compiled
284 from archived Lloyd's List reports.

285

286 **Data Availability**

287 Study data are available at ref.⁵¹.

288

289 **Code Availability**

290 Code for calculating seaport area using Google Earth Engine is available at
291 https://github.com/dhritirajsen/Seaport_reclamation. Code for generating the analyses
292 presented in this article are available at ref.⁵¹ and <https://github.com/envidynxlab/Seaports>.

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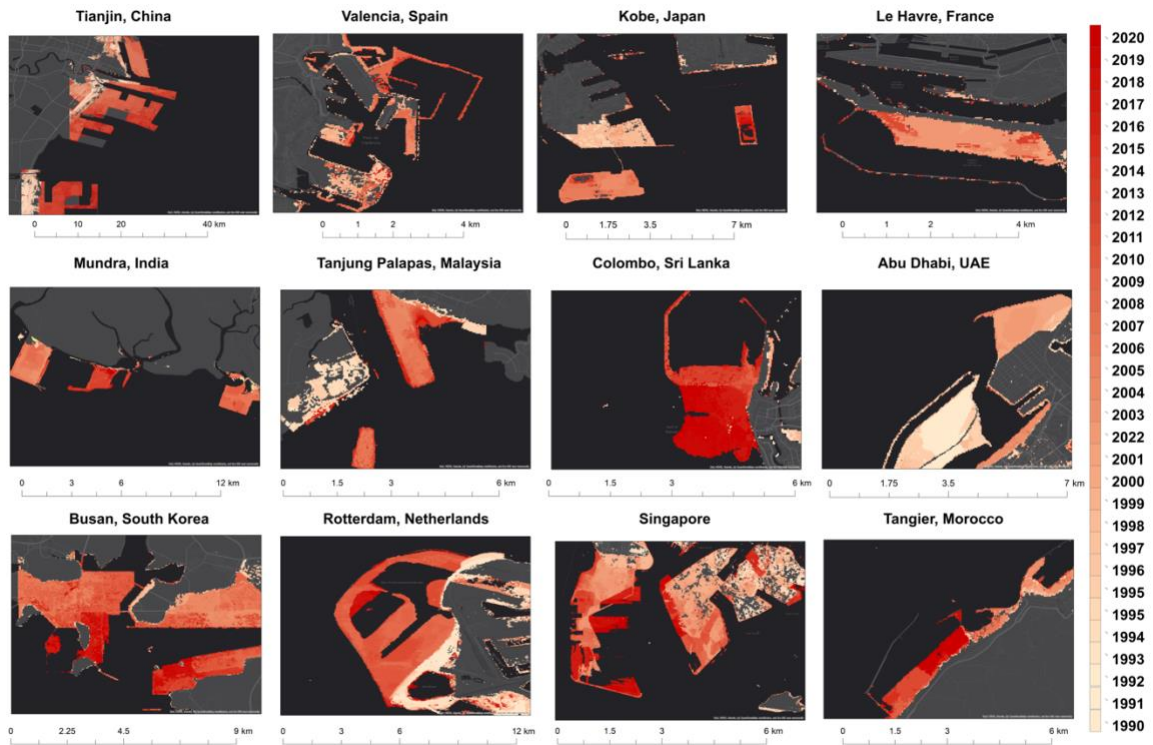
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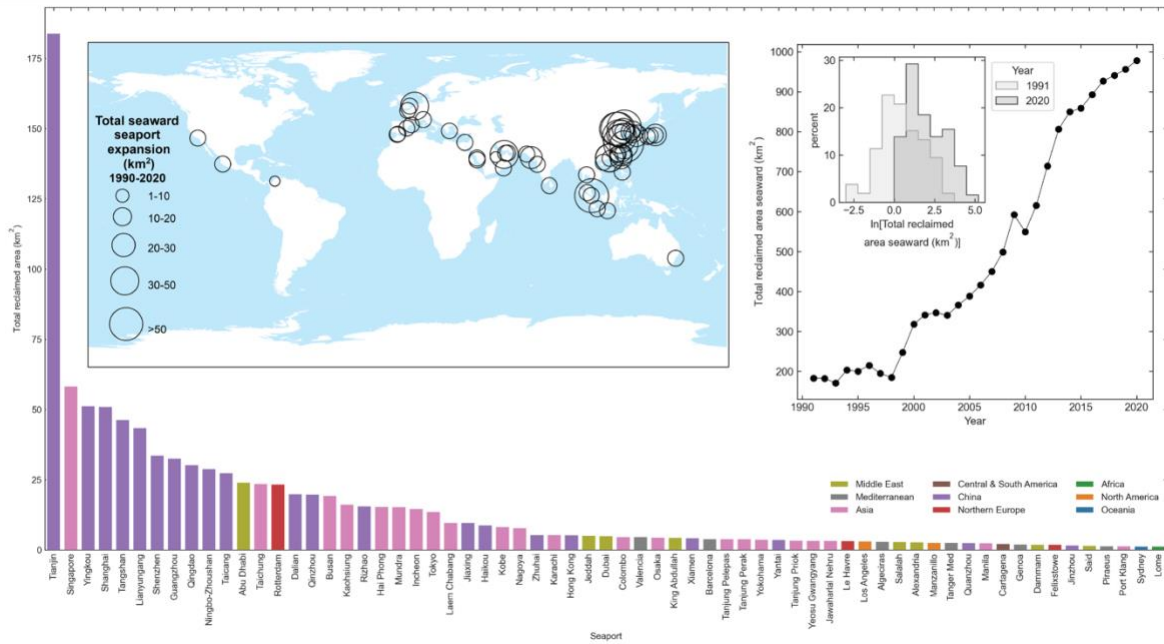
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Figure 1: Examples of seaport expansion seaward with coastal land reclamation. Spatio-temporal patterns of expansion in selected container seaport footprints around the world, 1990–2020. Light shades delineate earlier reclamation, dark shades more recent works.

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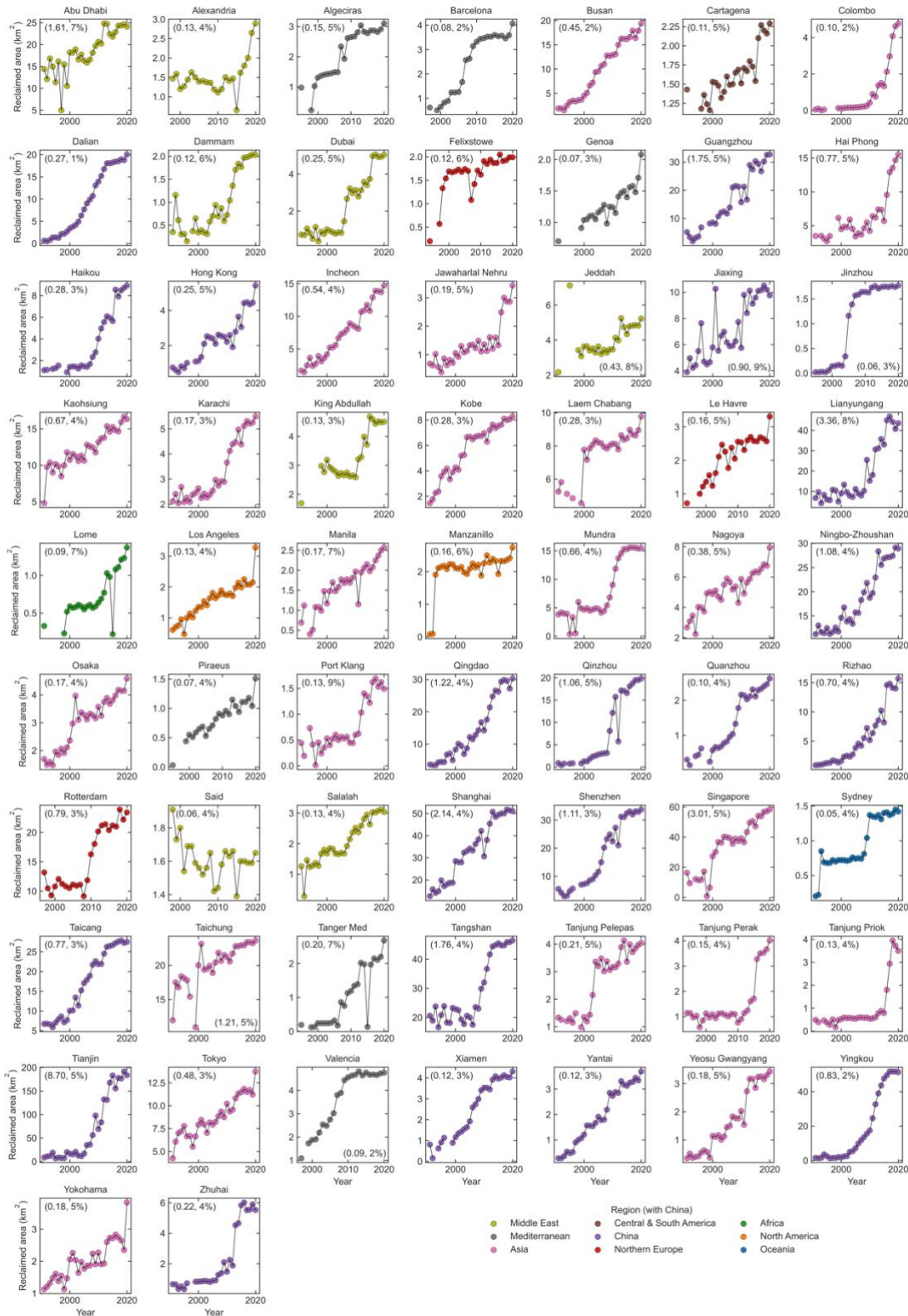
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Figure 2: Geographic distribution and magnitudes of seaport expansion seaward among major container seaports. Bar plot shows total area (km²) of seaward expansion between 1990 and 2020 for 65 of the world's top 100 container seaports by reported trade volume in 2020²⁵. Regions are those defined by Lloyd's List²⁵. Inset map shows their geographic distribution; circle size indicates the relative magnitude of total seaward expansion. Inset plots shows an annual time series of the total seaward-directed change in area for these 65 seaports between 1990 and 2020, and their comparative distributions of seaward area (in log scale) in 1991 versus 2020.



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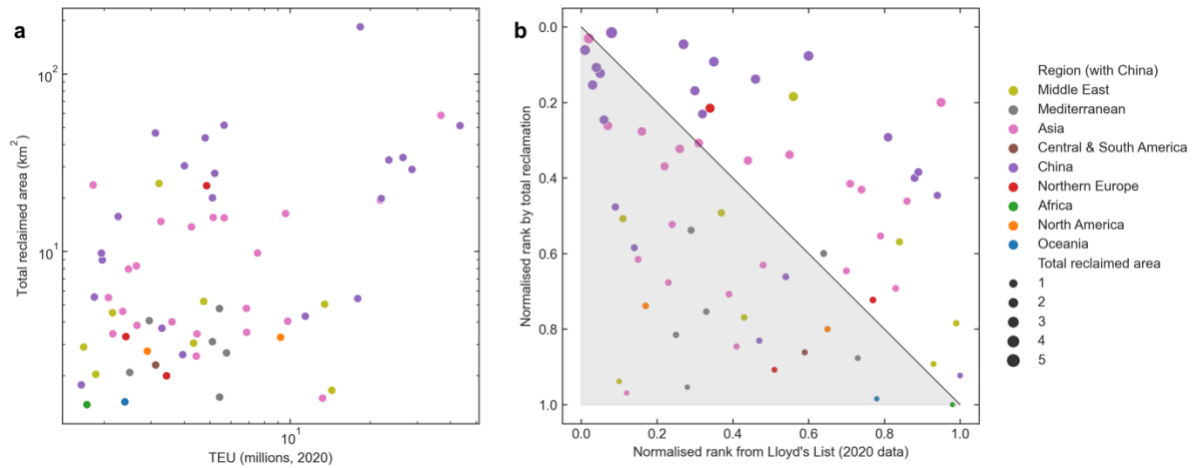
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Figure 3. Annual time series of seaport expansion seaward. Subplots document expansion seaward, in km^2 (left axis) between 1990 and 2020 for 65 of the world's top 100 container seaports by reported trade volume in 2020²⁵. Subplots are arranged in alphabetical order. Colour indicates region, with China denoted independently. Gaps indicate missing data. Parenthetical values in each subplot report the mean running standard deviation (in km^2) for the series (see Methods), and that value as a percentage of the total reclaimed area for that seaport in 2020, respectively. Note that the scale of the vertical axis differs among subplots.

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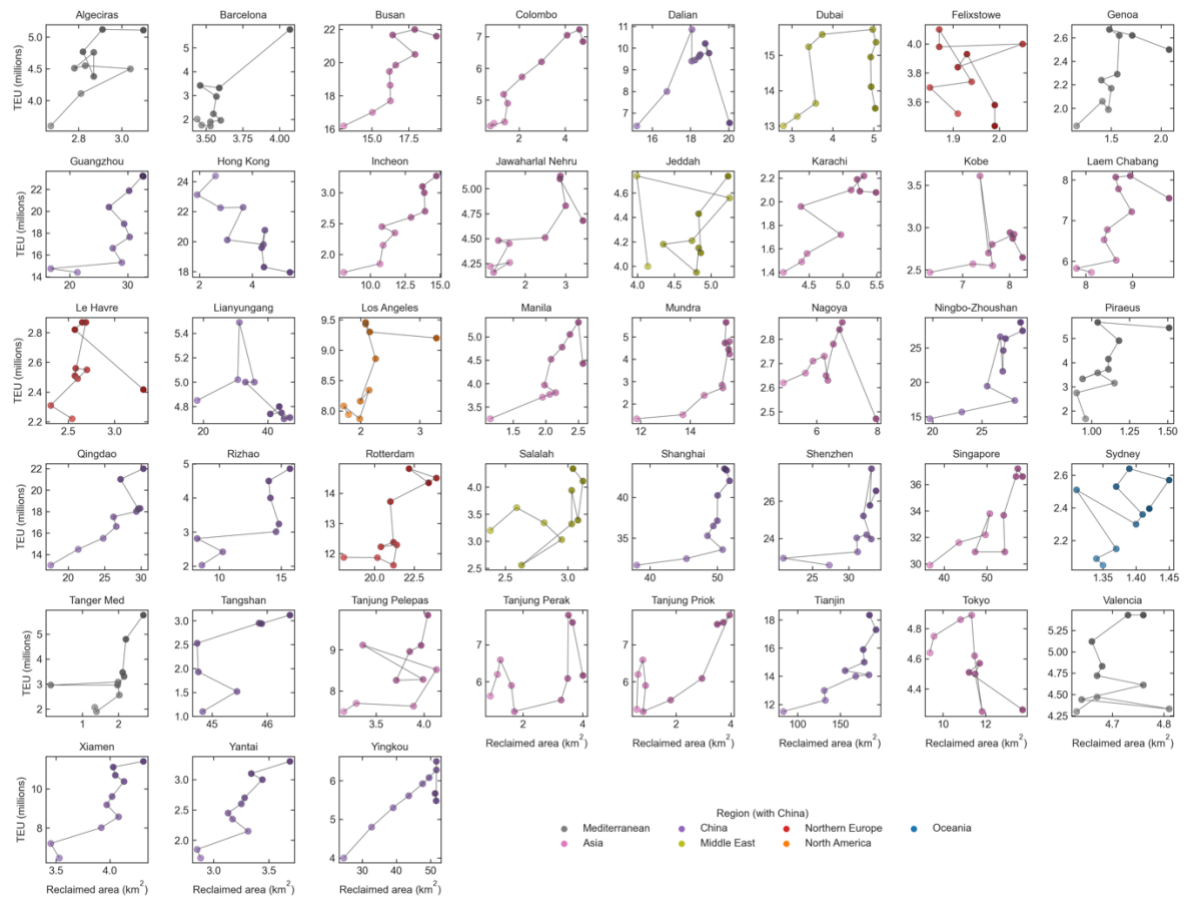
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Figure 4. Relationship between total seaward expansion and reported container throughput in 2020. (a) Scatterplot, in log-log scale, of total reclaimed area seaward (km²) between 1990–2020 and reported container throughput (millions TEU) in 2020 for 65 of the world's top 100 container seaports²⁵. Colour indicates region, with China denoted independently; marker size is uniform. Convention of axes is consistent with ref.¹⁶. **(b)** Scatterplot of normalised seaport rank by total seaward expansion (as in Fig. 2) versus normalised rank by reported container throughput in 2020²⁵. Axes convention is such that top-ranked seaports by both metrics (largest expansion, greatest throughput) cluster at upper left. Marker size represents relative magnitude of total seaward expansion. Reference line indicates hypothetical 1:1 correlative relationship, in relative terms, between seaward expansion and container throughput.

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491 **Figure 5. Trajectories of container trade volume relative to seaport expansion seaward.**
 492 Subplots show partial phase space defined by container trade volume (TEU millions) and seaport
 493 expansion seaward (km^2) between 2011 and 2020 for 43 of the world's top 100 container
 494 seaports by reported trade volume in 2020²⁵. Subplots are arranged in alphabetical order. Marker
 495 colour indicates region, with China denoted independently; marker value indicates year,
 496 advancing from light (2011) to dark (2020).