

# A Landscape-Scale Assessment of Above- and Belowground Primary Production in Coastal Wetlands: Implications for Climate Change-Induced Community Shifts

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Abstract Above- and belowground production in coastal wetlands are important contributors to carbon accumulation and ecosystem sustainability. As sea level rises, we can expect shifts to more salt-tolerant communities, which may alter these ecosystem functions and services. Although the direct influence of salinity on species-level primary production has been documented, we lack an understanding of the landscapelevel response of coastal wetlands to increasing salinity. What are the indirect effects of sea-level rise, i.e., how does primary production vary across a landscape gradient of increasing salinity that incorporates changes in wetland type? This is the first study to measure both above- and belowground production in four wetland types that span an entire coastal gradient from fresh to saline wetlands. We hypothesized that increasing salinity would limit rates of primary production, and saline marshes would have lower rates of above- and belowground production than fresher marshes. However, along the Northern Gulf of Mexico Coast in Louisiana, USA, we found that aboveground production was highest in brackish marshes, compared with fresh, intermediate, and saline marshes, and belowground production was similar among all wetland types along the salinity gradient. Multiple regression analysis indicated that salinity was the only significant predictor of

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production, and its influence was dependent upon wetland type. We concluded that (1) salinity had a negative effect on production within wetland type, and this relationship was strongest in the fresh marsh (0–2 PSU) and (2) along the overall landscape gradient, production was maintained by mechanisms at the scale of wetland type, which were likely related to plant energetics. Regardless of wetland type, we found that belowground production was significantly greater than aboveground production. Additionally, inter-annual variation, associated with severe drought conditions, was observed exclusively for belowground production, which may be a more sensitive indicator of ecosystem health than aboveground production.

Keywords Aboveground production . Belowground production . Climate change . Coastal wetlands . Landscape scale . Salinity gradient . Sea-level rise . Wetland type

# Introduction

The effects of climate change are pervasive and have been documented in every continent, ocean, and major taxonomic group (IPCC [2013](#page-20-0)). Impacts from recent anthropogenic climate change have been expressed through changes in phenology, trophic-level interactions, range, community structure, and ultimately extinction (Parmesan [2006\)](#page-22-0). Geographically restricted species can be especially sensitive to climate change, because they are vulnerable to reductions in range size, putting them at greater risk of extinction (Telwala et al. [2013\)](#page-23-0). For example, montane species have experienced significant declines in population abundances along their lower elevation range boundaries (Franzen and Molander [2012\)](#page-20-0). In Europe, warming has reduced the habitat of mountainrestricted butterfly species (Wilson et al. [2005\)](#page-23-0) and resulted

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Similarly, coastal wetlands, ecotones that occupy the land-sea interface, are restricted along the landward boundary and are also vulnerable to climate change-induced reductions in range size as sea level rises (Doyle [1998](#page-19-0)). Coastal wetland community composition is regulated by salinity and flooding regimes that create clear zonation patterns along landscape-scale salinity gradients (Snow and Vince [1984;](#page-22-0) Pennings et al. [2005;](#page-22-0) Silvestri et al. [2005](#page-22-0)). Therefore, as sea level rises, changes to salinity and flooding regimes will result in community restructuring (Warren and Niering [1993;](#page-23-0) Visser et al. [2002\)](#page-23-0), and anthropogenic and geologic limits on transgression (Cahoon et al. [1999](#page-18-0)) will likely result in significant range contraction with an overall shift to more saline wetlands (Williams et al. [1999](#page-23-0); Visser et al. [2013\)](#page-23-0).

These community-level effects ultimately drive emergent ecological responses that include alterations in ecosystem function, such as productivity (Harley et al. [2006](#page-20-0)). For example, warming in the arctic has led to a shift from tundra to shrub-dominated communities and was linked to increased microbial activity and nutrient mineralization rates (Sturm et al. [2005\)](#page-22-0). In coastal wetlands, a sea-level rise-induced shift from tree-dominated to herbaceous-dominated wetlands altered primary production (Cormier et al. [2013](#page-19-0); Ensign et al. [2014\)](#page-19-0) and nutrient mineralization rates (Noe et al. [2013\)](#page-22-0). As sea-level rise causes shifts in community structure, variation in ecological function across wetland community types will have important implications for greenhouse gas flux and carbon storage potential (Krauss and Whitbeck [2012](#page-21-0)), which may eventually impact climate (Chapin et al. [2008](#page-19-0)).

Primary production in coastal wetlands plays an important role in complex feedback mechanisms that ultimately influence wetland sustainability (Morris et al. [2002;](#page-21-0) Kirwan and Guntenspergen [2012\)](#page-21-0) and carbon cycling (Whiting and Chanton [1993](#page-23-0); Mudd et al. [2009;](#page-21-0) Kirwan and Mudd [2012\)](#page-21-0). Coastal wetlands maintain elevation relative to sea level through both surface and subsurface processes (Cahoon et al. [2006](#page-19-0); McKee [2011](#page-21-0)). On the surface, accumulation of mineral sediments and organic matter are key processes that contribute to accretion (Neubauer [2008](#page-21-0)). Aboveground macrophyte production enhances mineral sedimentation (Ensign et al. [2014](#page-19-0); Leonard [1997\)](#page-21-0) and also contributes to autochthonous organic matter accumulation (Nyman et al. [1993\)](#page-22-0). Belowground, biological processes, such as root and rhizome production, contribute to subsurface expansion and elevation gain (Kirwan and Guntenspergen [2012\)](#page-21-0). Subsequently, elevation gain promotes favorable hydrologic conditions that feedback to increased primary production (McKee et al. [2007;](#page-21-0) Cherry et al. [2009\)](#page-19-0).

It is critical to quantify primary production in multiple wetland types if we hope to predict the fate of wetlands and their ecosystem services as communities shift with sea-level rise. Despite the important role primary production plays in wetland ecosystem-level processes, relatively few studies have

examined how this ecological function varies across multiple wetland types. An extensive literature review (Appendix [1](#page-13-0)) revealed that the majority of studies reporting aboveground production were conducted in saline marshes, and to a lesser extent in fresh marshes. We found 50–80 % fewer studies that reported belowground production, and the majority of these studies were constrained to saline marshes. Even fewer researchers measured both above- and belowground production, and we found only four studies that reported both above- and belowground production across multiple wetland types, none of which spanned the entire coastal landscape gradient from fresh to saline marsh.

Furthermore, although individual species-level responses to elevated salinity have been well-documented in greenhouse and manipulative field experiments, it remains untested whether landscape-scale responses will reflect these same patterns. Reduced primary production is one of the most evident species-level responses to elevated salinity (McKee and Mendelssohn [1989](#page-21-0); Gough and Grace [1998;](#page-20-0) Willis and Hester [2004\)](#page-23-0). At the landscape scale, salinization causes shifts to more salt-tolerant species (Herbert et al. [2015\)](#page-20-0), and this tolerance comes at some cost, presumably growth and production (Grime [1988](#page-20-0)). To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive study to quantify above- and belowground primary production rates in wetland types that span the entire coastal landscape gradient from freshwater to saline marsh. We hypothesized that increasing salinity would limit rates of primary production, and saline marshes would have lower rates of above- and belowground production than fresher marshes.

We address the following questions: (1) How do aboveand belowground production vary across the landscape salinity gradient? (2) Does the relative contribution of above- and belowground production to total net primary production vary across the landscape gradient and over time? (3) How do environmental conditions change along the landscape gradient? and (4) Does the influence of environmental drivers on primary production vary across the landscape gradient?

# Methods

#### Study Site and Experimental Design

To characterize primary production dynamics at the landscape scale, we estimated above- and belowground primary production along a salinity gradient that incorporated changes in wetland type. The landscape gradient included four wetland types defined by salinity range and dominant macrophyte species (Visser et al. [2002](#page-23-0)). Fresh marshes (0–0.5 PSU) were dominated by Panicum hemitomon and Typha latifolia, intermediate marshes (0.5–5 PSU) were dominated by Sagittaria lancifolia and Schoenoplectus americanus, brackish marshes (5–12 PSU) were dominated by Spartina patens and <span id="page-2-0"></span>S. americanus, and saline marshes (12–20 PSU) were dominated by Spartina alterniflora and Juncus roemerianus.

We selected 24 sites that encompassed the four wetland types across two hydrologic basins in coastal Louisiana (Fig. 1). All sites were co-located with monitoring sites maintained by the Coastwide Reference Monitoring System (CRMS) (Steyer et al. [2003](#page-22-0)). Within each wetland type, six sites were selected, three in each basin, and within each site, we established five replicate plots. Replicated plots within each site were randomly established along a transect that was situated perpendicular to the waterbody and extended up to 50 m inland. The experimental design was a randomized complete block design with sampling, where the hydrologic basin represented random block-level effects  $(r = 2)$  and wetland type represented fixed treatment-level effects  $(t = 4)$ . Sites were replicated in each block-by-treatment combination  $(n = 3)$  and included subsampling within each site  $(s = 5, \text{ total})$  $N =$  trns, experimental error = tr(n−1), total error = trn (s−1)).

## Above- and Belowground Production

Within each replicate plot, we established one subplot for each sampling event at the beginning of the study to ensure that the same plot was not clipped or cored more than once over the duration of the 2-year study. Nine subplots were established 2 m apart in parallel with the water body. In each replicate plot, above- and belowground biomass was harvested seasonally (approximately every three months) from June 2012 to July 2014. Aboveground biomass was clipped at the soil surface from  $0.25 \text{ m}^2$ -quadrats, separated into total live and total dead components, and weighed after drying to a constant mass at 60 °C (Mendelssohn [1979](#page-21-0)). We used a serial coring technique to estimate belowground production (Neill [1992](#page-21-0)). After aboveground biomass was removed from the plot, we used a sharpened 10-cm PVC corer to collect belowground biomass from the center of the quadrat. The cores were taken to a maximum depth of 30 cm or the entire mat thickness. Cores were divided into three depth intervals (0–7.5 cm, 7.5–15 cm and 15–30 cm) and washed in a 0.5-mm sieve to remove soil particles. Live roots and rhizomes were separated from dead roots and rhizomes and the remaining matrix of dead organic material. Live roots and rhizomes were identified according to turgor, buoyancy, and white color. All material was dried at 60 °C to a constant mass and weighed. Only live and dead roots and rhizomes were included in production calculations, whereas the remaining matrix of dead organic material was not considered in these estimations (Neill [1992\)](#page-21-0). Above- and belowground biomass samples were not sorted by species.



Fig. 1 Site locations of above- and belowground production measurements within four wetland types along the northern Gulf of Mexico coast in Louisiana. Study sites were located within two hydrologic basins, Terrebonne and Barataria, whose boundaries are identified by solid black

lines. Wetland-type boundaries for 2013 were defined using publically available vegetation classification data provided by the Coastwide Reference Monitoring System (CRMS; [http://lacoast.gov/crms2/Home.](http://lacoast.gov/crms2/Home.aspx) [aspx](http://lacoast.gov/crms2/Home.aspx))

Above- and belowground production rates for year 1 (June 2012–June 2013) and year 2 (July 2013–July 2014) were estimated using the Smalley ([1959](#page-22-0)) method with an adjustment for missing samples. The average change in live and dead biomass over time was used to generate a rate of net annual primary production (NAPP; g biomass  $m^{-2}$  year<sup>-1</sup>) for each plot  $(N = 120)$ . Traditionally, when using the Smalley ([1959\)](#page-22-0) method, an interval  $(\Delta)$  is defined as the sum of the change in live ( $B_{\text{live}, t}$ ) and dead ( $B_{\text{dead}, t}$ ) material between two sampling events  $(t_i)$  (Eq. 1), and production rate  $(P)$  is calculated as the sum of all intervals in one annual cycle (Eq. 2),

$$
\Delta B_{t_i} = (B_{\text{live},t_{i+1}} - B_{\text{live},t_i}) + (B_{\text{dead},t_{i+1}} - B_{\text{dead},t_i})
$$
(1)

$$
P = \sum_{i=1}^{T-1} \Delta B_{t_i} \tag{2}
$$

where  $T$  is the total number of sampling events in a complete annual cycle. However, using this method potentially results in large errors associated with missing data. For example, if data is missing from one sampling period, it can potentially affect two interval calculations. Therefore, we adjusted for missing samples by using the average of observed intervals, or those intervals that contained observed, not missing, data, multiplied by the total number of intervals to calculate production (Eq. 3),

$$
P = \frac{T-1}{T_o-1} \sum_{i=1}^{T_o-1} \Delta B_{t_i}
$$
\n(3)

where  $T<sub>o</sub>$  is the number of observed sampling events.

Root-to-shoot ratios  $(R/S)$  were calculated using average annual live belowground and aboveground biomass values. Belowground biomass values are the sum of all depth intervals (0–30 cm).

#### Environmental Parameters

All 24 sites were co-located with CRMS stations [\(http://lacoast.](http://lacoast.gov/crms2/Home.aspx) [gov/crms2/Home.aspx\)](http://lacoast.gov/crms2/Home.aspx), where continuous in-situ surface water salinity and water-level data were collected hourly using a YSI 600LS or equivalent continuous recorder with a vented cable (Folse et al. [2008](#page-19-0)). Elevations of all plots were surveyed with real-time kinematic (RTK) surveying instrumentation and rectified to the North American Vertical Datum of 1988 (NAVD88), which we used to calculate hydroperiod for each plot in each site.

Additional discrete soil and porewater samples were taken to measure a suite of environmental parameters in October 2012 and 2013. At each site, two soil cores were collected near each of the five sample plots. One soil core ( $5 \times 30$  cm) was used to measure soil bulk density, % organic matter, % moisture, electrical conductivity (EC), and pH. A second soil core ( $5 \times 30$  cm) was used to measure soil total C, N, and P. soil extractable nutrients ( $NH_4-N$ ,  $PO_4-P$ ), and other elements of interest (including Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Na, P, and S). All soil cores were immediately placed on ice in the field and transported back to the laboratory for analysis. After homogenization, the soil was dried to a constant weight at 60 °C, ground in a Wiley Mill (Model no. 4, 20 mesh (850 μm)) and separated into several scintillation vials for multiple analyses. Soil total N and total C were measured using a Costech ® 4010 Elemental Combustion analyzer (Nelson and Sommers [1982;](#page-21-0) EPA Method 440). Extractions were performed for the following analyses: soil total P (HCl, Aspila et al. [1976\)](#page-18-0),  $PO<sub>4</sub>$ P (Bray-2, Olsen and Sommers [1982\)](#page-22-0), NH<sub>4</sub>–N (KCl, Keeney and Nelson [1982\)](#page-20-0), and other elements of interest  $(H_2NO_3,$ American Public Health Association [2005a\)](#page-18-0). Soil total P,  $PO<sub>4</sub>-P$  samples and NH<sub>4</sub>–N were measured on a segmented flow AutoAnalyzer (Flow Solution IV AutoAnalyzer, O-I Analytical, USA; EPA Method 365.5; EPA Method 350.1). The remaining extracts were analyzed with an inductively coupled argon plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) (Varian-MPX, Agilant, USA; American Public Health Association [2005b\)](#page-18-0).

At the time of soil sampling, three separate aliquots of porewater were also collected from each sample plot at a depth of 15 cm using a sipper-tube method (Vasilas et al. [2013](#page-23-0)). The first aliquot of water was used to measure porewater pH and electrical conductivity (EPA Methods 150.1 and 120.1, respectively) and porewater total N and total P following persulfate oxidation (D'Elia et al. [1977](#page-19-0); Ebina et al. [1983](#page-19-0)) on a segmented flow AutoAnalyzer (Flow Solution IV AutoAnalyzer, O-I Analytical, USA). The third aliquot was filtered through a 0.45-μm filter to measure NH<sub>4</sub>–N and PO<sub>4</sub>–P using a segmented flow AutoAnalyzer (Flow Solution IV AutoAnalyzer, O-I Analytical, USA; EPA Method 365.5; EPA Method 350.1), and the third aliquot was filtered and acidified to  $pH < 2$  to measure other elements of interest using ICP as described above. Filtration and acidification procedures were performed in the field, and all porewater samples were immediately placed on ice and transported back to the laboratory for analysis.

#### Statistical Analyses

A mixed-model ANOVA was used to estimate variance in production across wetland type, time, and depth (belowground only) using PROC MIXED in SAS 9.3 (SAS Institute [2011](#page-22-0)). Statistical analysis of root-to-shoot ratios followed the framework described in Robinson et al. [\(2010\)](#page-22-0). Root biomass is described as a power function of shoot biomass (Eq. 4),

$$
R = \beta S^{\alpha} \tag{4}
$$

where R is root biomass, S is shoot biomass,  $\beta$  is the allometric

<span id="page-4-0"></span>coefficient, and  $\alpha$  is a scaling exponent that describes the shape of the relationship between root and shoot biomass and in this case represents the ratio of relative growth rates (Hunt and Nicholls [1986\)](#page-20-0). To test the hypothesis that allocation between roots and shoots differed across wetland type and between years, we fit the linear model (Eq. 5)

$$
log(R) = log(\beta) + \alpha log(S)
$$
 (5)

where  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  were allowed to vary by wetland type and year (i.e., wetland type by year interaction).

Principle component analysis (PCA) incorporating all measured environmental parameters was conducted to characterize general trends of primary environmental drivers across wetland type (Table 1). Environmental data from both years 1 and 2 were included in PCAs. A subsequent PCAwas also performed to generate principle components (PCs) for use in the multiple regression analysis. Because parameters associated with salinity and nutrients were loaded onto the same PC in the initial PCA, we removed all salinity parameters from the second PCA so that we could include salinity and nutrients as separate predictive variables in the multiple regression analysis. The data from the subsequent PCA, which did not include salinity, can be found in Appendix [2.](#page-16-0) We conducted an analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) for each PC, to determine whether the compositional dissimilarities of factor scores among wetland type were significantly greater than those within wetland type. We conducted multiple linear regression analysis using the glm function, with a gamma distribution and a log link function. The regression modeled the log of aboveground NAPP as a function of annual surface water salinity (salinity), wetland type, and the three PCs used to quantify soil and porewater quality. Goodness of fit was estimated using McFadden's pseudo- $R^2$  (McFadden [1974](#page-21-0)). All statistical analyses were conducted using R software (R Core Team [2013](#page-22-0)), unless otherwise stated.

# **Results**

#### Spatial Variation in Production Rate

Aboveground production rates varied significantly across wetland type ( $p = 0.0004$ ,  $F = 6.4$ ,  $df = 3$ ), and the brackish marsh had the greatest rate of aboveground production compared with all other wetland types (Fig. [2](#page-5-0)a). Similarly, there was a significant difference in belowground production rates across wetland type  $(p = 0.0135, F = 3.64, df = 3)$ . The greatest difference in belowground production occurred between the fresh marsh, which had the lowest production rate, and the brackish marsh, which had the highest production rate (Fig. [2b](#page-5-0)).



Data presented are correlation coefficients for the soil and porewater (PW) parameters (rows) and PCs (%variance, columns). Correlation coefficients greater than 0.45 (set in italics) were used to define the PCs

Table 1 Principal component

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Fig. 2 Net annual primary production rate of a aboveground and b belowground plant components. Box plot boundaries closest to zero represent the 25th percentile, the line within the boxes indicates the median, and boundaries farthest from zero represent the 75th percentile. The whiskers indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles. Black dots represent outlying points. Letters denote statistical significance of post hoc multiple comparisons of means (Fisher's protected LSD,  $\alpha = 0.05$ )

Belowground production rate did not vary significantly with depth below the soil surface ( $p = 0.0884$ ,  $F = 5.05$ ,  $df = 2$ ; data not shown), but there were clear differences between live and dead biomass stock trends across the depth profile that were dependent upon wetland type ( $p = 0.0012$ ,  $F = 3.71$ ,  $df = 6$ ). Live biomass stocks were greatest in the top 7.5 cm and declined significantly with depth. Dead biomass stocks were greater, overall, compared with live biomass stocks and increased significantly with depth. Although the interaction of depth, condition and wetland type was significant, the trends in live and dead biomass with depth were similar across all wetland types (Fig. 3).

#### Relative Contributions

Belowground primary production rates were significantly greater than aboveground primary production rates regardless



Fig. 3 Annual live and dead belowground biomass, with respect to depth, in each wetland type. Error bars represent standard errors

of wetland type. Additionally, the ratio of relative growth rates between roots and shoots did not significantly vary across wetland type ( $p = 0.846330$ ,  $F = 0.2709$ ,  $df = 3$ ).

Trends in above- and belowground production over time were consistent across all wetland types (three-way interaction  $p = 0.1863$ ,  $F = 1.61$ ,  $df = 3$ ). Even though belowground production declined considerably from years 1 to 2, and aboveground production remained constant, belowground production was still significantly greater than aboveground production  $(p < 0.0001, F = 23.3, df = 1$ ; Fig. 4). Total (aboveground + belowground) production rates reflected belowground trends and also declined in year 2 (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0). Accordingly, the ratio of relative growth rates between roots and shoots significantly declined in year 2 ( $p < 0.0001$ ,  $F = 96.5354$ ,  $df = 1$ ), but root-toshoot ratios remained greater than one (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0).



Fig. 4 Above- and belowground production rates in year 1 (2012–2013) and year 2 (2013–2014), averaged over wetland type. Error bars represent standard errors. Letters denote statistical significance of post hoc multiple comparisons of means (Fisher's protected LSD,  $\alpha = 0.05$ )

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Fig. 5 Total NAPP (aboveground + belowground production) and rootto-shoot ratios in year 1 (2012–2013) and year 2 (2013–2014). Box plot boundaries closest to zero represent the 25th percentile, the line within the boxes indicates the median, and boundaries farthest from zero represent the 75th percentile. The whiskers indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles. Black dots represent outlying points. Letters denote statistical significance of post hoc multiple comparisons of means (Fisher's protected LSD,  $\alpha = 0.05$ 

## Hydro-edaphic Parameters

The first principal component (PC1-salinity/nutrients) was highly correlated with salinity variables such as porewater electrical conductivity (EC), soil EC and annual surface water salinity, and nutrient variables, such as soil total nutrients, soil extractable nutrients, porewater nutrients, and soil total carbon and organic matter. The second PC (PC2-metals) was highly correlated with soil total metals such as iron, copper, and zinc and soil pH. The third PC (PC3-flooding) was defined by wetland surface elevation and flood duration (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). There was a clear separation of the factor scores among wetland type along the PC1 (salinity/nutrients,  $R = 0.1004$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) and PC3 (flooding,  $R = 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) axes. Fresh and intermediate marshes were associated with lower pore- and surface water salinity and higher concentrations of organic nutrients (total N, total P), brackish and saline marshes were associated with higher salinity and inorganic nutrients  $(NH_4, PO_4)$  (Fig. 6a, b). There was no significant partitioning of factor scores among wetland type along the PC2 (metals) axis ( $R = -0.012$ ,  $p = 0.97$ ; Fig. 6b, c).

# Multiple Regression

McFadden's pseudo- $R^2$ , used to estimate the goodness of fit of the multiple regression model, was 0.16, which is relatively good based on the suggestion that values between 0.2 and 0.4 represent very good fit of the model (Louviere et al. [2000\)](#page-21-0).



Fig. 6 Principal component analysis biplots of hydro-edaphic observation projections, or factor scores, in component space for all comparisons between principal components (PCs) 1, 2, and 3. In each plot, factor scores are grouped by wetland type. A subset of highly correlated vectors from each PC overlay the factor scores

The multiple regression illustrated that there was no significant effect of the PCs that represented nutrients, metals, or flooding on aboveground NAPP (Tables [2](#page-7-0) and [3\)](#page-7-0). However, there was a significant effect of salinity on production, which was dependent upon wetland type (Table [2;](#page-7-0) Fig. [7](#page-8-0)). The model predicted a negative relationship between salinity and production, with the strongest response observed in the fresh marshes (Table [3](#page-7-0); Fig. [7\)](#page-8-0).

<span id="page-7-0"></span>Table 2 Analysis of deviance estimating effects of wetland type and environmental drivers on aboveground production rates



# **Discussion**

To predict how wetland ecosystem services, such as carbon storage, will be affected by climate changeinduced changes in wetland type, it is imperative that we quantify the differences in critical ecological functions, such as primary production, at a landscape scale (Odum [1988](#page-22-0); Crain [2007](#page-19-0)). Although above- and belowground macrophyte production have been thoroughly described in saline marshes (Valiela et al. [1976](#page-23-0); Schubauer and Hopkinson [1984\)](#page-22-0), we still lack a comprehensive understanding of total macrophyte production across multiple wetland types that are common along coastal landscape gradients.

Our estimates of aboveground production were similar to literature reports from fresh, intermediate, brackish, and saline wetlands (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). Estimates of belowground production using the Smalley ([1959\)](#page-22-0) method were similar to relevant studies in brackish and saline marshes. It was more difficult to find equivalent belowground estimates in fresh and intermediate marshes, because most studies using the Smalley [\(1959\)](#page-22-0) method were conducted at higher latitudes, and comparatively our estimates were much higher. Our estimates of belowground production in fresh and intermediate marshes were more similar, albeit still higher, compared with estimates from studies in the same geographic region, and differences in methodology likely account for the remaining disparity (Ket et al. [2011;](#page-20-0) Graham and Mendelssohn [2014](#page-20-0)).

We found that the brackish marsh had the highest aboveground production rates compared with all other wetland types, which were all similar to each other. Other studies have found higher biomass in brackish marshes compared with both fresh (White and Simmons [1988\)](#page-23-0) and saline (Valiela et al. [1976;](#page-23-0) Linthurst and Reimold [1978a](#page-21-0); Elsey-Quirk et al. [2011](#page-19-0)) marshes. Different photosynthetic pathways may have contributed to observed variation in production (Cheng et al. [2006](#page-19-0); Cherry et al. [2009](#page-19-0); Drake [2014](#page-19-0)). Brackish marshes, dominated by the  $C_4$  plant S. patens, had higher production rates than the fresh and intermediate marshes, which were dominated by  $C_3$  plants. Our results are consistent with the findings of others that  $C_4$  plants have greater photosynthetic efficiency (Long [1999;](#page-21-0) Still et al. [2003\)](#page-22-0) and water use effi-ciency (D'Antonio and Vitousek [1992\)](#page-19-0), than  $C_3$  plants, which can lead to greater rates of production in  $C_4$  plants (Lopez Rosas et al. [2005](#page-21-0)). However, this relationship does not explain the difference between the brackish and saline marshes, both of which were dominated by  $C_4$  plants.

While the variation in production among wetland types was statistically significant (aboveground  $p = 0.0004$ ,  $F = 6.4$ ,  $df = 3$ ; belowground  $p = 0.0135$ ,  $F = 3.64$ ,  $df = 3$ ), post hoc pairwise comparisons did not show clear separation in belowground production among brackish, intermediate, and saline marshes (Fig. [2b](#page-5-0)). Furthermore, it is possible that higher above- and





<span id="page-8-0"></span>

Fig. 7 Results of the multiple linear regression illustrating the significant interactive effect of salinity and wetland type on aboveground production rates

belowground production rates in brackish marshes, specifically those dominated by S. patens, may be a function of high variability associated with the marsh structure. The heterogeneous microtopography of S. patens marshes is characterized by a hummock/hollow structure that is maintained through a hydrogeomorphic feedback loop (DeLaune et al. [1994](#page-19-0); Windham [1999](#page-23-0)), resulting in a landscape where S. patens growth is highly concentrated on hummocks, and very little vegetation is found in the hollows (Windham [2001\)](#page-23-0). We used a randomized sampling design that captured production in both hummocks and hollows, resulting in high variation in our estimates of NAPP, with elevated production rates in the hummocks and low production rates in the hollows. High rates of production in the hummocks, when extrapolated over a larger spatial scale, may have contributed to the overall differences observed between the brackish marsh and other wetland types that had a more even spatial distribution of growth (Roman and Daiber [1984\)](#page-22-0). In support of this, we observed in a post hoc analysis that production in brackish marshes with hummock/hollow microtopography was best described by a log-normal distribution with the same location parameter (7.11) as the brackish marshes without hummock/hollow topography. However, the scale parameter, which describes variation in the model, was significantly larger in the hummock/hollow model (2.56 vs. 1.63, Likelihood ratio test:  $X^2 = 9.023$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), indicating that the source of greater variation was associated with hummock/hollow topography.

Nevertheless, decades of species-level research has illustrated the importance of environmental drivers on wetland primary production, and based on our understanding of salinity and flooding impacts to individual species, we expected to observe a significant decline in production with increasing salinity across this landscape-scale gradient. Direct negative impacts of elevated salinity and prolonged flooding on production have been demonstrated for the fresh, intermediate and brackish species studied here (McKee and Mendelssohn [1989;](#page-21-0) Broome et al. [1995;](#page-18-0) Webb and Mendelssohn [1996;](#page-23-0) Baldwin and Mendelssohn [1998](#page-18-0); Gough and Grace [1998;](#page-20-0) Willis and Hester [2004](#page-23-0); Spalding and Hester [2007\)](#page-22-0). Furthermore, salinity and flooding have been shown to limit production even in the most salttolerant species (Naidoo et al. [1992](#page-21-0)). For example, elevated salinity in flooded, anaerobic, conditions promotes the production of sulfides (Postgate [1959\)](#page-22-0), which can inhibit ammonium uptake (Bradley and Morris [1990,](#page-18-0) [1991](#page-18-0); Koch et al. [1990](#page-21-0)) and limit wetland plant production, including S. alterniflora (Koch and Mendelssohn [1989](#page-21-0)). Although the gradient studied here represents the shift to more salt-tolerant communities (Osmond et al. [1987\)](#page-22-0), the energy required to survive in stressful conditions should eventually come at the cost of growth and reproduction (Grime [1988](#page-20-0)). Therefore, our findings, which demonstrated statistically similar rates of production between fresh, intermediate, and saline marshes, were unexpected.

We performed regression analysis to ascertain which environmental parameters were influencing production rates along this landscape-scale gradient. We found that the best-fit model was an interaction model, where salinity was the only significant predictor of production, and its influence was dependent upon wetland type. Our results indicate that the relative influence of salinity changed along the landscape gradient, was strongest in the fresh marsh (0–2 PSU), and other environmental parameters (nutrient availability, metals, flooding) were not significant predictors of production. Given the interaction with wetland type, there are two conclusions to be drawn from these results: (1) salinity has a negative effect on production within wetland type, but along the overall landscape gradient, production is maintained with shifts to more salt-tolerant wetland types, and (2) mechanisms at the scale of wetland type are responsible for the maintenance of production along the gradient of increasing stress. For example, we found that, although nutrient availability did change across the landscape gradient, production did not vary greatly, indicating that plant energetics may differ between wetland types (Elsey-Quirk et al. [2011](#page-19-0)). Nitrogen resorption efficiency, which is an important mechanism for supplying nitrogen to marsh

Wetland type	Dominant species	Above/ below	Production $(g m^{-2} year^{-1})$	Location	Study
Fresh	Panicum hemitomon, Typha latifolia	Above	1047	Louisiana, USA	Current study
Fresh	Cladium jamaicense	Above	2361	Florida, USA	Daoust and Childers (1998)
Fresh	Eleocharis spp.	Above	296	Florida, USA	Daoust and Childers (1998)
Fresh	P. hemitomon	Above	1641	Louisiana, USA	Pezeshki and DeLaune (1991)
Fresh	Sagittaria lancifolia	Above	1241	Louisiana, USA	White and Simmons (1988)
Fresh	Scirpus maritimus	Above	452	Rhone Delta, France	Ibanez et al. (1999)
Fresh	Typha angustifolia	Above	2989	Rhone Delta, France	Ibanez et al. $(1999)$
Fresh	T. latifolia	Above	1284-1604	Michigan, USA	Dickerman et al. (1986)
	Intermediate S. lancifolia, Schoenoplectus americanus	Above	1056	Louisiana, USA	Current study
	Intermediate Eleocharis spp.	Above	4.5	Quebec, Canada	Giroux and Bedard (1988)
Intermediate S. lancifolia		Above	23.8	Quebec, Canada	Giroux and Bedard (1988)
Intermediate S. lancifolia		Above	1243	Louisiana, USA	Graham and Mendelssohn (2010)
Intermediate S. lancifolia		Above	1745	Louisiana, USA	Graham and Mendelssohn (2010)
	Intermediate Scirpus americanus	Above	73.2	Quebec, Canada	Giroux and Bedard (1988)
	Intermediate Zizania aquatica	Above	35.6	Quebec, Canada	Giroux and Bedard (1988)
<b>Brackish</b>	Phragmites australis, Scirpus spp.	Above	824	Rhone Delta, France	Ibanez et al. (1999)
<b>Brackish</b>	Spartina patens, Schoecnoplectus americanus	Above	1487	Louisiana, USA	Current study
<b>Brackish</b>	Carex lyngbyei	Above	687	British Columbia, Canada	Kistritz et al. (1983)
<b>Brackish</b>	P. australis	Above	2215-3664	Delaware, USA	Roman and Daiber (1984)
<b>Brackish</b>	P. australis	Above	876	Po Delta, Italy	Scarton et al. (2002)
<b>Brackish</b>	S. patens	Above	4411	Louisiana, USA	Cramer et al. (1981a, b)
<b>Brackish</b>	S. patens	Above	3677	Louisiana, USA	Pezeshki and DeLaune (1991)
<b>Brackish</b>	S. patens	Above	705-1473	Delaware, USA	Roman and Daiber (1984)
<b>Brackish</b>	S. patens dominant	Above	2259	Louisiana, USA	White and Simmons (1988)
Saline	Spartina alterniflora, Juncus roemerianus	Above	1034	Louisiana, USA	Current study
Saline	Distichlis spicata	Above	648-922	Delaware, USA	Roman and Daiber (1984)
Saline	D. spicata	Above	1291	Louisiana, USA	White et al. (1978)
Saline	D. spicata	Above	1274	Delaware, USA	Linthurst and Reimold (1978b)
Saline	D. spicata	Above	1258	Georgia, USA	Linthurst and Reimold (1978b)
Saline	Halimione portulacoides	Above	952	Cantabrian Sea, Spain	Benito and Onaindia (1991)
Saline	Juncus gerardii	Above	562-1940	Maine, USA	Linthurst and Reimold (1978b)
Saline	J. gerardii	Above	884	Delaware, USA	Linthurst and Reimold (1978b)
Saline	J. roemerianus	Above	2500	Georgia, USA	Gallagher et al. (1980)
Saline	J. roemerianus	Above	1740	Louisiana, USA	White et al. (1978)
Saline	Phragmites communis	Above	1501	Delaware, USA	Linthurst and Reimold (1978b)
Saline	Salicornia ramosissima	Above	486	Cantabrian Sea, Spain	Benito and Onaindia (1991)
Saline	Sarcocornia fruticosa	Above	683	Venice Lagoon, Italy	Scarton et al. (2002)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Above	1160	Cantabrian Sea, Spain	Benito and Onaindia (1991)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Above	449-466	Maryland, USA	Cahoon $(1975)^a$

<span id="page-9-0"></span>Table 4 Summary of studies that measured above- and/or belowground production in fresh (0–0.5 ppt), intermediate (0.5–5 ppt), brackish (5–12 ppt), and saline (12–20 ppt) wetlands using the Smalley ([1959](#page-22-0)) method

# Table 4 (continued)



Table 4 (continued)

Wetland type	Dominant species	Above/ below	Production $(g m^{-2} year^{-1})$	Location	Study
	S. alterniflora, J. roemerianus				
Saline	S. fruticosa	Below	1260	Venice Lagoon, Italy	Scarton et al. (2002)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Below	2363-5445	South Carolina, USA	Dame and Kenny (1986)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Below	11,676	Louisiana, USA	Darby and Turner (2008)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Below	4473	Georgia, USA	Hopkinson and Schubauer (1984)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Below	4400-7700	Delaware, USA	Roman and Daiber (1984)
Saline	S. alterniflora	Below	4780	Georgia, USA	Schubauer and Hopkinson (1984)
Saline	S. cynosuroides	Below	4628	Georgia, USA	Schubauer and Hopkinson (1984)
Saline	S. patens	Below	2500-4100	Delaware, USA	Roman and Daiber (1984)

<sup>a</sup> Citation within Turner ([1976](#page-23-0)) review

species, has been shown to differ between species and growth forms (Aerts [1996](#page-18-0)). Additionally, Linthurst and Seneca ([1981](#page-21-0)) found that as salinity increased, nutrient tissue concentrations declined as production increased, indicating greater nutrient use efficiency with increased stress. More research is needed to elucidate the wetland type-level mechanisms that are contributing to the maintenance of production rates across this gradient. Furthermore, we might expect significantly different landscape patterns of production in regions where these wetland types are dominated by other species.

Regardless of wetland type, belowground production was significantly greater than aboveground production, and root-to-shoot ratios were greater than or equal to one (Good et al. [1982](#page-20-0)), illustrating that belowground biomass is clearly an important contributor to total net primary production (de la Cruz and Hackney [1977](#page-19-0); Smith et al. [1979](#page-22-0)). Greater allocation to belowground biomass has been reported for all wetland types studied here (Smith et al. [1979;](#page-22-0) Bellis and Gaither [1985](#page-18-0); Giroux and Bedard [1988](#page-20-0); Karagatzides and Hutchinson [1991](#page-20-0)). Profuse belowground production is an adaptive strategy for plants living in stressful environments (Barko and Smart [1978\)](#page-18-0), where water and nutrient uptake are limited in low nutrient and low soil oxygen environments (Shaver and Billings [1975](#page-22-0); Wielgolaski [1975](#page-23-0); William and Black [1994;](#page-23-0) Clevering [1998\)](#page-19-0). Additionally, wetland halophytes adapt to the further stress of elevated salinity and low water potential by increasing belowground biomass (Waisel [1972](#page-23-0)).

However, when stressful conditions extend beyond a plant's zone of tolerance, or adaptive ability, belowground biomass production will eventually decline (Mendelssohn and Seneca [1980](#page-21-0); Bandyopadhyay et al. [1993](#page-18-0); Howard and Mendelssohn [1995;](#page-20-0) Brown et al. [2006](#page-18-0)). In the current study, belowground production declined from year 1 (2012–2013) to year 2 (2013–2014). The consistent decline across all wetland types suggests a response to a large-scale stressor, such as drought. National Climatic Data Center (NCDC) climate data for the Southeast Louisiana climate region document severe to extreme drought in the winter of 2012 according to the Palmer Severity Drought Index, and severe drought continuing through the spring of 2012 according to the Palmer Modified Drought Index (NCDC [2016](#page-21-0); Appendix [3](#page-17-0)). Furthermore, climate data from the year preceding the study, 2011, illustrate sustained incipient to severe drought conditions in this climate division. We hypothesize that the temporal variation in production was due to variation in climatic controls (Mendelssohn and Morris [2000\)](#page-21-0), and the decline in belowground production observed across all wetland types in 2013–2014 was a response to severe drought conditions experienced in the years leading up to the study.

Severe drought has the potential to impact coastal wetlands at the individual plant and ecosystem scale. Previous research has shown that severe drought diminishes photosynthesis and growth of coastal marsh species (Brown and Pezeshki [2007](#page-18-0)). Moreover, severe drought has been linked to large-scale disturbances, such as Sudden Vegetation Dieback (McKee et al. [2004](#page-21-0)), which can significantly impair ecosystem function (Stagg and Mendelssohn [2010](#page-22-0)). Recent studies have shown that changes in macro-climate drivers, such as precipitation and temperature, have the potential to impact coverage of foundation species in coastal

wetlands (Osland et al. [2016\)](#page-22-0). Drier conditions are predicted to cause declines in foundation species coverage (Osland et al. [2014](#page-22-0)), and our findings underscore the need for a better understanding of how ecological function at the landscape scale will be impacted by changes in macroclimate drivers.

Other studies have also shown that the ratio of belowground to aboveground biomass declines under stressful conditions (Grace and Wetzel [1982](#page-20-0); Grace [1989](#page-20-0); Turner et al. [2004](#page-23-0); Martin and Shaffer [2005](#page-21-0); Shi et al. [2015](#page-22-0)), suggesting that translocation of energy from belowground reserves to the photosynthesizing parts of the plant is a critical mechanism for maintaining resilience (Gallagher [1983](#page-20-0)). In this study, trends in belowground production reflected trends in total production, which declined from years 1 to 2; however, aboveground production remained constant over time. The observed inter-annual variation of belowground production may be an example of translocation in response to changing resource limitations (Bloom et al. [1985](#page-18-0); Chapin et al. [1993](#page-19-0); Shipley and Meziane [2002\)](#page-22-0) resulting in consistent aboveground production rates over time (Howard and Mendelssohn [1995](#page-20-0)). This implies that ecosystem-level responses to changes in environmental parameters will be more apparent in belowground biomass dynamics compared with aboveground biomass dynamics, and that belowground production is a better indicator of ecosystem health than aboveground production (Turner et al. [2004\)](#page-23-0).

Furthermore, the potential for long-term storage of carbon in wetlands is greater in the belowground biomass pool (Howes et al. [1985;](#page-20-0) Connor and Chmura [2000](#page-19-0)), where saturated soils limit decomposition of organic matter (Blum [1993](#page-18-0)). Across all wetland types studied here, live root and rhizome biomass declined with increasing depth (de la Cruz and Hackney [1977](#page-19-0); Smith et al. [1979](#page-22-0)), whereas dead biomass increased with increasing depth (Windham [2001;](#page-23-0) Graham and Mendelssohn [2014](#page-20-0)). It is likely that greater soil aeration and nutrient availability in the top 7.5 cm of the soil profile contributed to more favorable conditions for the production of live roots (Valiela et al. [1976](#page-23-0); Mendelssohn et al. [1981](#page-21-0)) and simultaneously enhanced decomposition of dead biomass (Hackney and de la Cruz [1980](#page-20-0)), which demonstrates the importance of how complementary forces, such as production and decomposition, can interact to influence net carbon production.

Although we found that above- and belowground production rates were generally constant across the landscape gradient (with the exception of the brackish marsh), other studies have shown that soil carbon accumulation does vary across different wetland types (Neubauer [2008;](#page-21-0) Turner et al. [2000](#page-23-0); Nyman et al. [1993,](#page-22-0) [2006](#page-22-0)). The accumulation of soil organic matter is the net result of "inputs," e.g., primary production, and "outputs," e.g., decomposition. Therefore, given that there is no change in the inputs across these communities, it is clear that the output processes are contributing to differential accumulation rates, indicating that decomposition processes are important in these systems (Kirwan and Mudd [2012\)](#page-21-0). Ecological function at the landscape scale will have important implications for carbon storage (Chmura et al. [2003](#page-19-0), Cheng et al. [2006](#page-19-0)) and emissions (Turetsky et al. [2014](#page-23-0)) given predicted changes in wetland habitat distribution with increasing sea level. For example, model simulations of vegetation type distribution in coastal Louisiana under multiple SLR scenarios predicted stability in fresh and intermediate wetland habitats and expansion of saline wetlands at the expense of brackish wetlands (Visser et al. [2013](#page-23-0)). Therefore, if the higher rates of brackish aboveground production identified in this current study are not an artifact of sampling variation, declines in brackish wetland coverage could translate to a decrease in aboveground primary production and potentially carbon storage. If we hope to manage ecosystems services in dynamic wetland communities that are responding to climate change, it is critical that we understand and quantify all of the processes that contribute to these emergent ecosystem properties. Furthermore, our conclusion that species-level responses to environmental drivers are not analogous to landscape-level responses emphasizes the need for further research to quantify the mechanisms controlling landscape-scale ecological function.

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#### Estuaries and Coasts

# <span id="page-13-0"></span>Appendix 1





# Table 5 (continued)



# Table 5 (continued)



#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>Table 5 (continued)



Allen Curve estimates cohort production using a relationship between plant density and biomass. Allometry estimates production using established relationships between plant biomass and structural characteristics such as height. End of season (EOS) live estimates production as the value of live biomass collected at the end of the growing season. End of season (EOS) total estimates production as the value of total live and dead biomass collected at the end of the growing season and is analogous to end of season standing crop. Max-min total estimates production as the difference between the maximum total biomass and the minimum total biomass collected during an annual cycle. Max-min live estimates production as the difference between the maximum live biomass and the minimum live biomass collected during an annual cycle. Peak live estimates production as the maximum live biomass collected during an annual cycle. Peak total estimates production as the maximum total live and dead biomass collected during an annual cycle and is analogous to peak standing crop. Summed shoot maximum estimates production as the sum of maximum shoot biomass and includes a correction for mean leaf turnover.

<sup>a</sup> Citation within Turner ([1976](#page-23-0)) review

# Appendix 2

Table 6 Results from second principal component analysis subsequently used in the multiple regression analysis



This analysis did not include salinity parameters. Data presented are correlation coefficients for the hydro-edaphic parameters (rows) and PCs (columns). Correlation coefficients greater than 0.5 (set in italics) were used to define the PCs. Primary attribute(s) and % variance explained are identified for each PC

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>Appendix 3

Table 7 National Climatic Data Center, climate indices data for Climate Division: Louisiana (16), Southeast (9) during water years (October–October) from 2010 to  $2014$ 



<span id="page-18-0"></span>Table 7 (continued)



The climate indices data for this region were collected from 62 stations within the geographical division. (Source: [http://www7.ncdc.noaa.gov/CDO/CDODivisionalSelect.jsp#](http://www7.ncdc.noaa.gov/CDO/CDODivisionalSelect.jsp), accessed September 2016)

PCP mean monthly precipitation (mm), TAVG mean monthly temperature (°C), PDSI Palmer Drought Severity Index, PHDI Palmer Hydrological Drought Index, ZNDX Palmer Z Index, PMDI Modified Palmer Drought Severity Index, TMIN monthly minimum temperature (°C), TMAX monthly maximum temperature (°C)

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