- 1 Factors controlling spatiotemporal variability of soil carbon accumulation and stock estimates in a tidal
- 2 salt marsh
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## 18 Abstract

19	Tidal salt marshes are important contributors to soil carbon (C) stocks despite their relatively small land
20	surface area. Although it is well understood that salt marshes have soil C burial rates orders of magnitude
21	greater than those of terrestrial ecosystems, there is a wide range in storageaccrual rates among spatially
22	distributed marshes. In addition, wide ranges in C storageaccrual rates also exist within a single marsh
23	ecosystem. Tidal marshes often contain multiple species of cordgrass due to variations in hydrology and
24	soil biogeochemistry caused by microtopography and distance from tidal creeks, creating distinct subsites.
25	Our overarching objective was to observe how soil C concentration changes and dissolved organic carbon
26	(DOC) vary across four plant phenophases and across three subsites categorized by unique vegetation,
27	and hydrology, and biogeochemistry, while. We also investigating investigated the dominant
28	biogeochemical controls on the spatiotemporal variability of soil C concentration and DOC
29	concentrations. We hypothesized that subsite biogeochemistry drives spatial heterogeneity in soil C
30	concentration, and this causes variability in total soil C and DOC concentration at the marsh scale. In
31	addition, we hypothesized that soil C concentration and porewater biogeochemistry vary temporally
32	across the four plant phenophases (i.e., senescence, dormancy, green-up, maturity), causing further
33	variation in marsh soil C that could lead to uncertainty in soil C estimates.). To test these interrelated
34	hypotheses, we quantified soil Cand DOC concentrations in 12 cm sections of soil cores (0-48 cm depth)
35	across time (i.e., phenophase) and space (i.e., subsite), alongside several porewater biogeochemical
36	variables including dissolved organic carbon (DOC), EEMs/ UV VIS, redox potential, pH, salinity,
37	reduced iron (Fe <sup>2+</sup> ), reduced sulfur (S <sup>2-</sup> ), and total porewater element (Fe, Ca) concentrations in three
38	distinct subsites. other porewater biogeochemical variables. Soil C concentration varied significantly
39	(p<0.05) among the three subsites and was significantly greater during plant dormancy. Soil S, porewater
40	sulfide, redox potential, and depth predicted 44% of the variability in soil C concentration. There were
41	also significant spatial differences in the optical characterization properties of DOC across subsites. Our
42	results show that soil C varied spatially across a marsh ecosystem up to 63% and across plant phenophase
43	by 26%, causing variability in soil C storageaccrual rates and stocks depending on where and when

44	samples are taken. This shows that hydrology, biogeochemistry, and ecological functionplant phenology
45	are major controls on <del>saltmarsh<u>salt marsh</u> C content. It is<del>, therefore,</del> critical to consider <del>spatial and</del></del>
46	temporalspatiotemporal heterogeneity in soil C concentration and porwewater biogeochemistry to account
47	for these sources of uncertainty in C stock estimates. We recommend that multiple locations and sampling
48	timepoints are sampled when conducting blue C assessments to account for soil carbonecosystem-scale
49	variability and uncertainty in C stock estimates.
50	

#### 1 Introduction

52	Coastal blue carbon (C) cycled in tidal salt marshes is critically important for global soil C
53	sequestration despite the small relative land area (Mcowen et al. 2017). High primary productivity
54	coupled with high sedimentation rates and slowed organic C decomposition due to flooded anoxic soils
55	allow salt marshes to rapidly accrete and preserve soil C (Arias-Ortiz et al. 2018). Soils in such
56	ecosystems retain approximately 15% of their yearly primary productivity in soils compared to just 1%
57	for tropical rainforests (Duarte 2017). Restoring, protecting, and artificially creating salt marshes can
58	facilitate removal of $\mathrm{CO}_2$ from the atmosphere and storage in soils on timescales conducive to climate
59	change mitigation goals. These ecosystems should therefore be included in climate mitigation policy
60	(Ewers Lewis et al. 2019; Serrano et al. 2019). However, a wide range of global salt marsh soil C
61	sequestration rates of $\sim 1$ to >1100 g C $m^{\text{-2}}$ year^{\text{-1}} has been reported (Wang et al. 2021). The inclusion of
62	salt marshes in improved climate mitigation policy is, in part, contingent upon improving our
63	understanding of the environmental variables causing wide ranges in marsh soil C concentration and thus
64	soil sequestration rates (Saintilan et al. 2013; Macreadie et al. 2019). Understanding key controls on salt
65	marsh soil C variability will also decrease uncertainty in Earth System Models and inform new policy
66	aimed at protecting these valuable ecosystems.
67	Soil C concentrations in salt marsh ecosystems vary spatially across the globe. Part of this

variation is explained by regional environmental controls such as average annual air temperature (Chmura 

69	et al. 2003), geomorphic setting (van Ardenne et al. 2018), salinity gradients, inundation frequency (van
70	de Broek et al. 2016; Baustian et al. 2017; Luo et al. 2019), rainfall patterns (Sanders et al. 2016;
71	Negandhi et al. 2019), soil controls such as pH, soil moisture, and soil type, as well as plant controls such
72	as the dominant plant species and soils (Bai et al. 2016; Ford et al. 2019). Soil C accumulation rates also
73	vary based on the age of the marsh and tend to be highest in newly expanding marsh edges (Miller et al.
74	2022). Other logistical factors contributing to variability and heterogeneity in salt marsh blue C estimates
75	include the type of corer used (Smeaton et al. 2020) and the depth of soil that is integrated into storagesoil
76	C accrual rates (Bai et al. 2016; Van De Broek et al. 2016; Mueller et al. 2019). While understanding
77	global and regional controls on soil C is important for reducing uncertainty in C estimates, understanding
78	site-level factors is also critical because ecosystem-level variability can be just as high as regional- to
79	global-level variability (Ewers Lewis et al. 2018). Belowground biogeochemical heterogeneity is often
80	noticeable in can be attributed to the aboveground vegetation and plant controls due to striking zonation
81	of marsh grass species across the marsh platform. This is often attributable to associated with small
82	spatial-scale changes in hydrologic patterns (Guimond et al. 2020b, a) based on proximity to the tidal
83	channel that drives unique subsite biogeochemistry (Seyfferth et al. 2020) which subsequently determines
84	the type of vegetation that can survive within a given tidal zone (Davy et al. 2011). While tidal zonation
85	alters vegetation and belowground biogeochemistry, it remains unclear if soil C concentrations are
86	directly or indirectly altered by these dynamics.coupled plant and soil biogeochemical controls.
87	Primary production rates may partially control soil C concentration and may vary among
88	vegetative zones. For example, the short form of Spartina alterniflora has a lower primary production rate
89	than the tall form (Roman and Daiber 1984) and Phragmites australis has above and below ground
90	production rates two times that of the shorter Spartina patens (Windham 2001). Belowground
91	productivity includes root exudates (Luo et al. 2018) in the formproduction of dissolved organic carbon
92	(DOC), which could) can arise from root exudation (Luo et al. 2018) and influence soil C concentration
93	because belowground productivity often exceeds above-ground productivity in these ecosystems (Frasco
94	and Good 1982). Even though DOC exudates are considered to be labile (Yousefi Lalimi et al. 2018),

95	they may contribute to soil C accumulation over time due to microbial transformation (Valle et al. 2018)
96	and association with soil minerals such as Fe oxides (Chen et al. 2014; Chen and Sparks 2015; Sowers et
97	al. 2018a, b, 2019). The optical characterization of DOC-quantified by optical properties of chromophoric
98	dissolved organic carbon (CDOM) can also affect degradability (Clark et al. 2014) and may differ across
99	the marsh platform <u>as a result of differing plant species</u> .
100	Subsites Vegetation zones or subsites can have unique biogeochemical signatures based on soil
101	redox conditions and inundation extent and frequency. For example, high marsh areas and areas near tidal
102	channels have soils which are at least periodically oxic to sub-oxic and are dominated by iron (III)
103	reduction, whereas low marsh areas have continuously inundated soils and are dominated by sulfate
104	(SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ) reduction (Seyfferth et al. 2020). While these biogeochemical characteristics can directly
105	influence vegetation (Moffett and Gorelick 2016) and thus indirectly influence soil C concentrations,
106	they these heterogeneous biogeochemical characteristics may also directly affect soil C through the
107	interactions of soil C cycling with soil minerals. Fe oxides have an intimate role in the C cycle and C
108	stabilization in soils experiencing dynamic redox fluctuation (Sodano et al. 2017), as previous work has
109	shown that 99% of the dissolved Fe in the ocean is complexed with organic ligands (Whitby et al. 2020)
110	and ~21% of all organic C in marine sediments is bound to reactive Fe species (Lalonde et al. 2012). Fe
111	oxides may play an important role in C stabilization in soils experiencing dynamic redox fluctuation. Fe
112	oxides can protect DOC against microbial degradation through physiochemical protection (Blair and Aller
113	2012; Chen and Sparks 2015; Sodano et al. 2017; Sowers et al. 2018a; Dorau et al. 2019; Wordofa et al.
114	2019), but these organo-mineral assemblages can be dissociated under reducing conditions (Riedel et al.
115	2013; Wordofa et al. 2019; Lacroix et al. 2022; Fettrow et al. 2023a). Therefore, examining the spatial
116	variability in soil biogeochemistry and relating those variables to soil C concentration may elucidate
117	important mechanisms that cause the wide range in salt marsh soil C concentrations.
118	While it is critical to assess spatial heterogeneity in soil C concentration, it is also important to
119	assess temporal variability. The temporal assessment of soil C in salt marshes often considers long-term

- 120 trends of historic C burial rates (Cusack et al. 2018; McTigue et al. 2019; Breithaupt et al. 2020; Cuellar-
  - 5

121	Martinez et al. 2020), but variability of salt marsh soil C concentrations may also occur on shorter time	
122	scales such as across a single year. Several studies suggest salt marsh soil C does not significantly change	
123	across seasons throughout the year (Yu et al. 2014; Zhao et al. 2016), even though major changes in soil	
124	biogeochemical variables occur on this timescale (Koretsky et al. 2005; Negrin et al. 2011; Seyfferth et al.	
125	2020; Trifunovic et al. 2020; Zhu et al. 2021). While soil C concentration may be stable across seasons, it	
126	is unclear if soil C concentration changes based on site-specific plant phenology. The phenophase of a	
127	marsh is associated with the greenness index of vegetation (Trifunovic et al. 2020) and is strongly	
128	associated with C dynamics in wetland systems (Desai 2010; Kang et al. 2016). Soil C concentration	
129	should be measured across plant phenophase to determine if temporal changes in phenology alter soil C	
130	concentration-and cause another source of, adding to variability in ecosystem scale <u>blue</u> C estimates.	
131	To address these knowledge gaps, we conducted a year-long study of a temperate tidal salt marsh	
132	to assess how soil C concentration and porewater biogeochemistry change in space (subsite) and time	
133	(phenophase). Our overarching research objectives were to understand how soil C and porewater DOC	
134	concentration and soil biogeochemistryproperties change across spatial and temporal scales, and to	
135	investigate key biogeochemical mechanisms influencing soildrivers of these C	
136	concentrationconcentrations at the ecosystem level. We hypothesized that subsites would contain	
137	significantly different concentrations of soil C due to differences in soil biogeochemistry across the marsh	
138	platform. We further hypothesized that soil C concentration and associated porewater DOC and	
139	biogeochemistry would significantly differ across plant phenophase. Our results improve understanding	
140	of mechanistic controls on salt marsh soil C with implications for characterizing and reducing uncertainty	
141	in C sequestration estimates, while also adding to the body of literature that shows tidal salt marshes are	
142	critical reservoirs of sequestered C.	
143	2.0 Methods and Materials	
144	2.1 Field Site	
145	This study was conducted at the St. Jones National Estuarine Research Reserve located in Dover,	
146	Delaware (Figure 1). The ecosystem is classified as a temperate mesohaline tidal salt marsh with a tidal	

creek salinity ranging from 5 to 18 ppt (Capooci et al. 2019). Three separate subsites were previously 147 148 identified at this site, each with a different vegetation type and hydrology (Guimond et al. 2020a; Seyfferth 149 et al. 2020). The subsite nearest the channel is primarily colonized by the tall form of Spartina alterniflora and has semidiurnal tidal oscillation. This subsite is hereafter referred to as Tall Spartina (TS). Farther from 150 the tidal channel, the elevation is slightly higher due to a natural levee and flooding of the upper 25 cm of 151 152 soil occurs only during spring tides; this location has the larger cordgrass S. cynosuroides and is hereafter 153 referred to as Tall Cordgrass (TC). The third subsite is farthest from the tidal channel, lowest in elevation, 154 and is primarily colonized by the short form of S. alterniflora due to near continuous inundation; this subsite is hereafter referred to as Short Spartina (SS). These subsites have distinct hydro-biogeochemistry and 155 156 vegetation that varies across small spatial scales and thus provides an ideal setting to understand site-level 157 variability in soil C concentration, porewater biogeochemistry and their relationships.



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Figure 1. Map of the field site located at the St Jones Reserve near Dover, DE. Three unique subsites (TS, TC and SS) have been characterized based on previous studies at this field site showing subsite specific hydrology, vegetation, and biogeochemistry based on distance from the tidal creek (Guimond et al-, 2020a; Seyfferth et al-, 2020). The coring locations were sampled in triplicate (Core A, B and C), with core A

167	2.2 Soil Sampling and Analysis	
168	Soil cores were obtained from each of the three subsites (TS, TC, SS) in triplicate during each sampling	
169	event. Replicates were taken approximately 30em30 cm from one another and are labeled cores A, B, and	
170	C based on distance to the tidal channel with A being closest to the channel and C the farthest (Figure 1).	
171	Sampling events occurred at four separate times of the year to coincide with each of the phenophases (i.e.,	
172	senescence on 10/3/2019, dormancy on 12/3/2019, green-up on 4/29/2020, maturity on 8/13/2020), which	
173	were previously determined using the Greenness Index (Trifunovic et al. 2020). Cores were obtained at	
174	the same tidal inundation cycle each season to ensure consistent saturation during each campaign. Each	
175	sampling campaign resulted in 36 total cores (or 144 core sections, see below) that we used to understand	
176	spatiotemporal variability; unfortunately, we could not obtain more cores due to conditions of the strict	
177	soil coring permit at the estuarine preserve. Soil cores (6 cm x 48 cm) were extracted using a gouge auger	
178	that has been shown to be an effective coring technique for reducing compaction in soft marsh soils	
179	(Smeaton et al. 2020). Soil cores were quickly sectioned in the field into 12 cm increments (0-12em, 12-	
180	<del>24cm, <u>cm</u>, 12-</del> 24-36cm <u>cm</u> , 24-36 cm and 36-48cm48 cm relative to the soil surface) and preserved	
181	under anoxic conditions following previous methods (Seyfferth et al. 2020). For reference, the rooting	
182	zone of Spartina grasses is between 8-20em20 cm (Muench and Elsey-Quirk 2019), so the upper two	
183	sections likely include C from fresh root exudates. The 12cm12 cm increments were chosen because	
184	many soil C stock papers use increments between 10-15 cm and there tends to be little variation across the	
185	~10 cm increment in a variety of wetland soils (Baustian et al. 2017). Briefly, the soil sections were	
186	placed into 250 ml HDPE bottles which were left uncapped in gas-impermeable bags that contained	
187	oxygen scrubbers (AneroPack-Anero, Mitsubishi), and the bags were vacuum-sealed in the field. The soil	
188	samples were placed on ice during transport back to the lab. Once back in the lab, the soil sections in the	
189	gas-impermeable bags were immediately placed inside an anoxic glove bag containing $\sim 5\%$ hydrogen and	

starting closest to the creek and each subsequent core in each subsite being  $\sim 30 \text{cm} 30 \text{ cm}$  from one another.

The base layer for the map was obtained from public base layers in QGIS ( © Google Maps).

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190	~95% nitrogen. A subsample of soil was dried, ground, sieved (2mm2 mm), and powdered for analysis of
191	total C and S (Vario EL Cube, Elementar). We clarify that we did not separate inorganic versus organic soil C
192	and report only total soil C and S are reported as % C (= 100% * g C/g soil dry wt.) and % S (=
193	100% * g S/g soil dry wt.). The remaining field moist soil was left inside the HDPE vial, capped inside
194	the glove bag, and centrifuged for extraction of porewater using methods in the following section. We used
195	soil C % to calculate soil C stocks using previously obtained bulk density measurements at our field site (Wilson
196	and Smith 2015), and we calculated soil C accrual rates using previously obtained sedimentation rate
197	values (Tucker 2016). The remaining field-moist soil was left inside the HDPE vial, capped inside the
198	glove bag and centrifuged for extraction of residual porewater. The amount of porewater we obtained was a
199	function of soil saturation that was consistent during each campaign because we sampled at the same tidal
200	cycle each season. After centrifugation, the remaining soil sample was further dried inside of the glove bag.
201	While this drying procedure could have introduced artificial H2-fueled metabolism, this should be negligible
202	because the soils were rapidly dried within the glove bag with freshly replaced desiccant and because the
203	saturated sample was only minimally in contact with the H <sub>2</sub> atmosphere.
204	<u>.</u>
205	2.3 Porewater Extraction and Analysis
206	Porewater was extracted from each 12-cm soil section by centrifugation for 2 minutes under an
207	anoxic atmosphere at 2,500 rpm. A portion of the porewater was filtered with 0.45µm PTFE syringe
208	filters while the rest was vacuum filtered using glass fiber filters (0.7 $\mu$ m). The 0.45 $\mu$ m PTFE filtered
209	porewater was immediately analyzed for Fe <sup>2+</sup> using the ferrozine colorimetric method (Stookey 1970),
210	$S^{2-}$ using the methylene blue method (Cline 1969), redox potential with a $\frac{220mV}{220}$ mV offset, pH, and
211	conductivity using calibrated probes (Orion Ross Ultra pH/ATC Triode, Orion 9179E Triode, Orion

conductivity using calibrated probes (Orion Ross Ultra pH/ATC Triode, Orion 9179E Triode, Orion DuraProbe Conductivity Cell), and the remaining sample was acidified to 2% HNO<sub>3</sub> for elemental

samples from the plant maturity sampling event were analyzed via ultraviolet-visible (UV-VIS)/

analysis using an ICP-OES. The porewater filtered with glass fiber  $(0.7\mu m_1^2 \mu m)$  was acidified with HCl and analyzed for DOC (Vario TOC Analayzer, Elementar). To characterize the DOC, unacidified DOC

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216	excitation-emission matrix spectroscopy (EEMs) (Aqualog Spectrophotometer, Horiba). The Aqualog	
217	was zeroed with double deionized water blanks, checked using the manufacturer's excitation check,	
218	corrected for inner filter effects, applied first and second order Rayleigh masking and data were	
219	normalized using the average Raman area (Gao et al. 2011; Clark et al. 2014). Measurements were taken	
220	over the wavelengths of 200-730nm with 2nm steps. Fluorescence and absorbance peaks and indices were	
221	calculated using previously established equations (Table S1).	
222	2.4 Statistical Analysis	
223	StatisticalA three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to understand significant	
224	interactions between factors of subsite, depth, and phenophase on soil and porewater variables.	
225	Subsequently, statistical differences between subsites and phenophase were analyzed using repeated	
226	measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) ( $\alpha$ =0.05), with a post-hoc Tukey-HSD analysis to determine	
227	differences between individual subsites and phenophase.phenophases. Assumptions of ANOVA were met by	
228	assessing for normality with OO plots prior to analysis and transforming when necessary. Equal variance was tested to	
229	ensure homogeneity of variance between subgroups using Levene's test, Correlations with depth were analyzed	
230	using linear regression and only the significant (p<0.05) relationships are reported. Relationships among	
231	all measured variables were assessed using principal components analysis. In addition, a stepwise	
232	regression model was built to determine variables that significantly predict soil C concentration. This was	
233	done by maximizing the R <sup>2</sup> -value of the model while using the least amount of variables to explain the variance. All	
234	statistical analyses were conducted in JMP (Version 16.2).	
235	3.0 Results	
236	3.1 Soil Carbon and Sulfur	
237	To explore the spatiotemporal heterogeneity of soil carbon (C) and sulfur (S) at each subsite,	
238	subsamples of each collected soil increment were combusted for soil C and S concentration.	
239	Concentrations of soil C were highly variable among subsites, phenophase, depth, and replicate cores	
240	(Figure 2), indicating several possiblespatiotemporal sources of variability in marsh soil C stock	
241	estimates. SS showed the highestappeared to have higher soil C concentrations, as illustrated by darker	
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242	colors in the heat map, compared to both TS and TC. Soil C was also appeared higher at TS than TC,
243	illustrated by relatively darker colors in the heat map. For all subsites, soil C concentrations changed
244	throughout the year with the highest values, appearing higher during plant dormancy and the lowest lower
245	during green-up. However, variability across individual replicates A, B, and C and with depth
246	complicated generalities across time and space. For example, at subsite SS from 24-36 cm during
247	senescence, core A is ~5% soil C while core C is ~10% soil C, a factor of 2 difference withinbetween
248	replicates. Large ranges among replicates were also observed during green-up at TS from 12-24 cm and
249	during maturity at TC from 36-48 cm. This exemplifies the high spatial and temporal heterogeneity
250	inherent in marsh soils, and a source indicates several sources of variation uncertainty in marsh soil C
251	estimates





Figure 2. Heat maps of soil C concentration with depth at the three subsites (SS, TC, and TS), four
phenophases, and for each replicate core (A (closest to channel), B, and C (farthest from channel)). No
measurement was able to be obtained for some 12-cm sections as shown by white rectangles.
There was also variability in soil C concentration with depth (Figure 3). Subsite SS had the
highest mean soil C concentration at all four depths, as well as the largest range in values. TS had the
second highest mean soil C values at all four depths as well as the second largest range in values. TC had
the lowest mean soil C at all four depths as well as the smallest range in values at each depth. It is clear

261 from this graph that SS contains higher overall concentrations of soil C, followed by TS and then TC.

# 262 Soil When observing linear trends with depth, soil C at TS during dormancy significantly decreased with

## 263 depth ( $R^2=0.44$ , p=0.02) and soil C at SS during maturity significantly increased with depth ( $R^2=0.41$ ,



p=0.02). No other <u>linear</u> correlations in soil C existed with depth.



268 soil S, only the first and second depths were significantly different from one another at site SS and at TC,

269 the deepest cores had significantly more soil S than all other depths.

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Figure 3. Box and whisker plot of soil C and S concentrations across the three subsites and separated by the four sampling depths. This indicates the difference in soil C and S variability among subsites and with depth. Whiskers indicate the minimum and maximum values, and the box indicates the upper and lower quartiles. The line in the box indicates the median. Letters with significant differences (p<0.05) with depth for each subsite are shown by different letters; subsites and depths with no letters are statistically similar.

277 278	Soil S also varied aeross 12 cm sampling increment depths (Figure 3). SS had the highest mean	
279	soil S concentration at each depth, and the range of values initially increased with depth. TS has a higher	
280	mean concentration than TC at all depths except at the bottom core section. The range of soil S values	
281	increased with depth at TC while the range was more consistent with depth at TS, except for the wide	
282	range of values measured at the 18em18 cm depth interval. Soil S at SS during maturity significantly	
283	increased with depth (R <sup>2</sup> =0.50, p=0.01), as did TC during dormancy (R <sup>2</sup> =0.88, p<0.0001), green-up	
284	(R <sup>2</sup> =0.51, p=0.01), and senescence (R <sup>2</sup> =0.42, p=0.02). No other correlations between soil S existed with	
285	depth.	
286	3.2 Porewater Data	
287	3.2.1 Porewater DOC and Characterization	
288	Porewater DOC was highly variable across subsites, phenophase, depth, and replicate cores (Figure 4).	<b>Formatted:</b> Font: 11 pt
289	Note that the data in Figure 4 have been log transformed (natural log) due to large ranges in values across	
290	the one-year sampling campaign. Unlike soil C, which was relatively consistent with depth, DOC	
291	concentrations were highly variable with depth and even more so among replicate cores. Some of the	
292	highest individual concentrations of DOC were detected nearest the surface and rooting zone, which can	
293	extend to 20 cm below the surface (Muench and Elsey-Quirk 2019), but also at depth at SS during	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
294	senescence. DOC concentrations decreased with depth at SS during green-up ( $R^2$ =0.44, p=0.02) and	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
295	maturity ( $R^2=0.37$ , $p=0.03$ ) and increased with depth at TC during dormancy ( $R^2=0.76$ , $p=0.0002$ ). These	
296	results indicate the highly variable nature of porewater DOC concentrations, possibly leading to	
297	additional and complexity in marsh soil C estimates. In addition, we summarized DOC concentrations	
298	across depths and subsite (Figure 5) to better understand variability with depth. The top depth increment	
299	at 6 cm appeared to contain the greatest variability, particularly at subsite TC. Variability at TC decreased	
300	with depth, as did variability at SS. This is apparent because the range tends to decrease with depth at	
301	both TC and SS. Overall, TC seems to contain the most variability followed by TS and SS appears to	
302	contain the least amount of variability at each depth increment.	
I.		



Figure 4. Heat maps of porewater DOC (natural log) concentration with depth at the three subsites (SS,
TC, and TS), four phenophases, and for each replicate core (A (closest to channel), B, and C (farthest
from channel)). No measurement was able to be obtained for some 12-\_cm sections as shown by white
rectangles.



## 329 aromaticity with depth. No significant trends with depth were present at TC or TS. Differences in DOC

330 molecular properties among subsites are apparent for many of the calculated indices and peaks.



### 331

Figure 56. Depth profiles of porewater EEMs/ UV-VIS peaks and indices down to 48cm taken during the maturity sampling event. Each point represents the mean between replicates (n=3) with error lines indicating the standard deviation (± 1 SD).

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#### 336 3.2.2 Porewater Chemistry

- 337 Measured porewater biogeochemistry was variable across subsites, phenophase, and depth
- 338 (Figure 6). Porewater redox potentials showed minimal trends with depth, except for a significant
- decrease with depth at SS during maturity ( $R^2=0.58$ , p=0.004), though redox showed variability between
- 340 replicates (Figure S2). The pH was relatively consistent with depth, except for a significant increase with
  - 17

- 341 depth at TC during dormancy ( $R^2$ =0.42, p=0.02), and a significant decrease with depth at TS during
- dormancy (R<sup>2</sup>=0.56, p=0.005). Redox potential and pH formed a significant but weak negative correlation
- $(R^2=0.12, p<0.0001)$  across the entire 1-year dataset.



345 346 347	Figure 67. Depth profiles of porewater chemistry variables down to $48\text{cm}48 \text{ cm}$ for sampling events that occurred during plant (a) senescence, (b) dormancy, (c) green-up and (d) maturity. Each point represents the mean between replicates (n=3) with error lines indicating the standard deviation (± 1 SD).
348 349	Porewater S <sup>2-</sup> varied significantly with depth. S <sup>2-</sup> increased significantly with depth across the
350	entire 1-year dataset ( $R^2$ =0.04, p=0.03). $S^{2-}$ increased significantly with depth at SS during green-up
351	$(R^2=0.51, p=0.01)$ and maturity $(R^2=0.86, p<0.0001)$ . TS S <sup>2-</sup> increased significantly during green-up
352	$(R^2=0.46, p=0.02)$ while TC S <sup>2-</sup> increased significantly during maturity (R <sup>2</sup> =0.36, p=0.04). Porewater Fe <sup>2+</sup>
353	trended negatively with $S^{2-}$ (R <sup>2</sup> =0.06, p=0.004) and decreased with depth (p=0.01, R <sup>2</sup> =0.05) across the
354	entire 1-year dataset. Significant decreases were observed at TS during green-up (R <sup>2</sup> =0.68, p=0.001), and
355	at SS during maturity ( $R^2$ =0.41, p=0.02). Total Fe concentration followed similar depth trends to Fe <sup>2+</sup> ,
356	with a significant decrease with depth across the entire 1-year experiment ( $R^2$ =0.06, p=0.01). Total Fe
357	decreased with depth at TS during senescence (R <sup>2</sup> =0.41, p=0.03) and green-up (R <sup>2</sup> =0.58, p=0.004), and at
358	SS during maturity (R <sup>2</sup> =0.57, p=0.01).
359	Porewater salinity formed varying relationships with depth. Salinity significantly decreased with
360	depth at TC during senescence (R <sup>2</sup> =0.52, p=0.01), and at SS during maturity (R <sup>2</sup> =0.62, p=0.002) while
361	salinity significantly increased with depth at TC during green-up (R <sup>2</sup> =0.69, p=0.001) and at TS during
362	maturity (R <sup>2</sup> =0.87, p<0.0001). Salinity and total Ca generally increased together (p>0.0001, R <sup>2</sup> =0.42)
363	across the entire 1-year experiment. Total Ca increased significantly with depth at TC during green-up
364	$(R^2=0.86, p<0.0001)$ and at TS $(R^2=0.80, p<0.0001)$ and TC $(R^2=0.47, p=0.01)$ during maturity. SS total
365	Ca significantly decreased with depth during maturity ( $R^2=0.60$ , $p=0.005$ ).
366	3.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Among Subsite, <u>Depth</u> , and Phenophase
367	A three-way ANOVA was run to assess the interaction between the three factors of phenology,
368	subsite, and depth and to understand which factors are the most predictive for each variable (Table 1). Of
369	the measured variables, only porewater DOC, sulfide, and salinity had significant interactions between all
370	three factors; for these, one-way ANOVAs were run on subsite and phenophase mean values-performed.
371	These analyses showed that were obtained by averaging samples from all DOC was significantly higher
372	during senescence at TS and TC in the surface than the other depths-across all four, subsites, and
1	

373	phenophases-	(for subsite co	omparisons) a	nd all depths across	, and that salinity	was highest in	the surface at
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- all three subsites during senescence. In contrast, sulfide was highest during maturity at SS in the deepest
- 375 core section compared to the other depths, subsites, and phenophases. For the variables without
- 376 significant interaction, the three-way ANOVA showed that subsite was highly significant for soil C while
- 377 phenology and depth were not significant. In contrast, phenology was only significant for porewater pH
- and Fe(II) while depth and subsite were not significant, and depth was only significant for soil S and
- 379 <u>sulfide (Table 1).</u>
- 380

Table 1 Three-way ANOVA results for all variables, with interaction results of subsite, phenology
 and depth. Bolded p-values indicate significance (p≤0.05).

383 <u>296</u>

Variable	<b>Phenology</b>	<u>Subsite</u>	<u>Depth</u>	Phenology*Subsite*Depth
<u>Soil C (%)</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	<u>0.95</u>	<u>0.96</u>
<u>Soil S (%)</u>	<u>0.99</u>	<u>0.89</u>	<u>0.01</u>	<u>0.99</u>
DOC (mM)	<u>.17</u>	<u>.91</u>	<u>.02</u>	<u>.004</u>
<u>Redox (mV)</u>	<u>.07</u>	<u>.31</u>	<u>.36</u>	.77
<u>pH</u>	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	<u>0.43</u>	<u>0.77</u>	0.92
<u>Fe<sup>2+</sup> (mM)</u>	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.91</u>
<u>Sulfide (mM)</u>	<u>0.80</u>	<u>0.91</u>	<u>0.01</u>	0.05
Salinity (ppt)	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	<u>0.99</u>	0.003
<u>Total Fe (mM)</u>	<u>0.98</u>	<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.75</u>
<u>Total Ca (mM)</u>	<u>0.0001</u>	<u>0.003</u>	<u>0.41</u>	0.37

384			
385	In addition to the three-way ANOVA, we also averaged variables by phenophase, subsite, or		Formatte
386	depth and performed one-way ANOVAs with post-hoc Tukey tests (Tables 2, 3, and Supplementary Table 2).		pt, No wi between between
387	When averaged by subsite, all three subsites (for phenophase comparisons). These results show	(	Formatte
388	significant spatial and temporal variability in many of our measured variables. All three subsites contain		
389	significantly subsites contained significantly different average concentrations of soil C, with SS having the	{	Formatte
390	highest average (7.5_% C), followed by TS (5.8_% C) and TC (4.6_% C) (Table 2). This indicates that on	- {	Formatte
391	average, subsite SS contains ~29_% more soil C than TS and 63_% more soil C than TC. In additionSite		
392	SS also had higher soil S, sulfide, and salinity and lower redox potential and Fe(II) than the other subsites.		
393	When grouped by phenophase, plant dormancy contained significantly more soil C than plant green-up-		
394	While soil S did not significantly vary across phenophase, soil S at SS was significantly higher in		
395	concentration by a factor of two than both TS and TC. (Table 3). In addition, plant dormancy had		
396	significantly higher redox potential and the lowest Fe(II) and DOC than the other plant phenophases (Table 3).		
397	When averaged by depth, soil S was nearly 2x higher at the deepest depth (36-48 cm) than the surface (0-12 cm)		
398	(Supplementary Table 2)	{	Formatte
399 400 401 402 403	<b>Table 1.</b> One-way2. ANOVA and Post-hoc Tukey results for all assessed soil and porewater biogeochemical variables. Mean values represent average values for each subsite for subsamples from all depths and phenophasephenophases. The mean is reported ( $\pm$ SD) along with a connecting letter report. Means with letters that do not connectdiffer are significantly (p<0.05) different.	1	Formatte

Variable	Tall Spartina (TS)	Tall Cordgrass (TC)	Short Spartina (SS)
Soil C (%)	$5.8 \pm (1.2)^{B}$	$4.6 \pm (1.3)^{c}$	$7.5 \pm (1.4)^{A}$
Soil S (%)	$1.1 \pm (0.5)^{B}$	$1.0\pm(0.6)^{B}$	2.0±(0.7) <sup>A</sup>
DOC (mM)	11.9±(27) <sup>A</sup>	13.6±(27) <sup>A</sup>	$7\pm(9)^{A}$
Redox (mV)	179±(176) <sup>AB</sup>	211±(185) <sup>A</sup>	93±(235) <sup>B</sup>
рН	8.12±(0.8) <sup>A</sup>	$7.99 \pm (0.7)^{A}$	8.13±(0.6) <sup>A</sup>
Fe <sup>2+</sup> (mM)	$0.15 \pm (0.1)^{A}$	$0.22 \pm (0.3)^{A}$	$0.04 \pm (0.1)^{B}$

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Sulfide (mM)	$0.02 \pm (0.01)^{\mathrm{B}}$	$0.02 \pm (0.01)^{B}$	0.6±(0.6) <sup>A</sup>
Salinity (ppt)	8.8±(3.1) <sup>B</sup>	9.7±(3) <sup>AB</sup>	11±(2) <sup>A</sup>
Total Fe (mM)	$0.21 \pm (0.2)^{A}$	0.26±(0.3) <sup>A</sup>	$0.08 \pm (0.1)^{B}$
Total Ca (mM)	4.7±(1.3) <sup>B</sup>	5.4±(1.2) <sup>A</sup>	5.8±(0.8) <sup>A</sup>

	Variabla	Sanasaanaa	Downonau	Crean un	Maturity	
410	with letters that do not conn	<del>ect<u>differ</u> are signif</del>	icantly (p<0.05) d	ifferent.		
409	from all depths and subsites	. The mean is report	rted (± SD) along	with a connecting	g letter report. Mean	s
408	biogeochemical variables. N	Aean values represe	ent average values	for each phenop	hase for subsamples	
407	Table 2. One-way3. ANOV	A and post-hoc Tu	<u>ikey</u> results for all	assessed soil and	porewater	

Variable	Senescence	Dormancy	Green-up	Maturity
Soil C (%)	5.7±(1.5) <sup>AB</sup>	$6.7 \pm (1.1)^{A}$	5.3±(1.5) <sup>B</sup>	6.1±(1.8) <sup>AB</sup>
Soil S (%)	1.4±(0.7) <sup>A</sup>	1.4±(0.9) <sup>A</sup>	1.4±(0.7) <sup>A</sup>	1.3±(0.7) <sup>A</sup>
DOC (mM)	22.2±(42) <sup>A</sup>	1.6±(1) <sup>B</sup>	12.3±(14) <sup>AB</sup>	7.9±(10) <sup>B</sup>
Redox (mV)	193±(60) <sup>B</sup>	453±(58) <sup>A</sup>	-42±(98) <sup>D</sup>	83±(111) <sup>C</sup>
рН	7.89±(0.4) <sup>B</sup>	7.45±(0.2) <sup>C</sup>	7.96±(0.6) <sup>B</sup>	8.94±(0.5) <sup>A</sup>
Fe <sup>2+</sup> (mM)	0.1±(0.2) <sup>BC</sup>	$0.03 \pm (0.1)^{C}$	0.2±(0.2) <sup>AB</sup>	0.2±(0.2) <sup>A</sup>
Sulfide (mM)	$0.2\pm(0.4)^{AB}$	$0.04 \pm (0.04)^{B}$	$0.2 \pm (0.4)^{AB}$	$0.3\pm(0.6)^{A}$
Salinity (ppt)	12.9±(2.4) <sup>A</sup>	9.0±(1.8) <sup>BC</sup>	8.0±(2.1) <sup>C</sup>	9.6±(2.4) <sup>B</sup>
Total Fe (mM)	$0.1 \pm (0.1)^{B}$	$0.1 \pm (0.2)^{B}$	$0.3\pm(0.2)^{A}$	0.3±(0.2) <sup>A</sup>
Total Ca (mM)	5.8±(1.0) <sup>A</sup>	$5.5 \pm (0.7)^{A}$	4.5±(0.9) <sup>B</sup>	5.3±(1.6) <sup>A</sup>

412	DOC concentration also varied among subsites (Table $\frac{12}{2}$ ) and phenology (Table $\frac{23}{2}$ ). The average
413	DOC concentration at SS was approximately half of that found at TS and TC, but these results are not
414	statistically significant due to large variability and ranges in concentration observed across the 1-year
415	experiment. This large variability is exemplified by standard deviations that are larger than the means. In
416	addition, DOC also varied across phenophases. Dormancy had the lowest mean DOC concentration and
417	was significantly lower than senescence by an order of magnitude. Maturity and green-up did not have
418	statistically different DOC concentrations. The EEMs/ UV-VIS dataset from plant maturity was analyzed
419	based on subsites (Table 34). There were significant differences in peaks and indices between subsites.
420	Coble peaks T, A, M, C and Abs <sub>254</sub> were significantly lower at TS than at both TC and SS by at least a
421	factor of two which is in line with the lower DOC concentrations observed for TS at maturity (Fig. 4).
422	Subsite SS had a significantly lower HIX and $E_2:E_3$ than both TS and TC suggesting it to have DOM with
	23

423 less relative humic content and higher average molecule weight. These results indicate significantly

424 different DOC molecular characteristics across subsites. EEMs/ UV-VIS data could not be assessed

425 across phenology since these data were collected only during plant maturity.

426 **Table 34**. One-way ANOVA results for UV-VIS EEMs during the plant maturity phenophase. Mean

427 values represent average values for each subsite for subsamples from all depths. The mean is reported ( $\pm$ 428 SD) along with a connecting letter report. Means with letters that <u>do not connect\_differ</u> are significantly 429 (p<0.05) different.

Parameter	Tall Spartina (TS)	Tall Cordgrass (TC)	Short Spartina (SS)
Abs <sub>254</sub>	$0.7 \pm (0.2)^{B}$	$1.7\pm(0.9)^{A}$	$1.7\pm(1.3)^{A}$
SUVA <sub>254</sub>	$0.2 \pm (0.1)^{A}$	$0.2\pm(0.1)^{A}$	$0.2\pm(0.1)^{A}$
s <sub>r</sub>	1.39±(0.95) <sup>A</sup>	1.27±(0.33) <sup>A</sup>	1.46±(0.28) <sup>A</sup>
E <sub>2</sub> :E <sub>3</sub>	5.5(0.4) <sup>A</sup>	5.4±(1.1) <sup>A</sup>	$4.7\pm(0.7)^{B}$
Coble T	4.1±(3.8) <sup>B</sup>	14.7±(10.3) <sup>A</sup>	22.6±(16.2) <sup>A</sup>
Coble A	6.6±(2.1) <sup>B</sup>	16.9±(7.02) <sup>A</sup>	13.5±(4.2) <sup>A</sup>
Coble M	4.0±(1.4) <sup>B</sup>	10.2±(4.4) <sup>A</sup>	8.6±(3.1) <sup>A</sup>
Coble C	3.7±(1.2) <sup>B</sup>	9.2±(4.0) <sup>A</sup>	$7.8\pm(2.3)^{A}$
FI	1.3±(0.6) <sup>A</sup>	1.3±(0.02) <sup>A</sup>	1.3±(0.03) <sup>A</sup>
HIX	5.1±(3.0) <sup>A</sup>	4.4±(3.1) <sup>A</sup>	1.9±(0.6) <sup>B</sup>
BIX	$0.7 \pm (0.7)^{A}$	$0.7 \pm (0.03)^{A}$	$0.7 \pm (0.02)^{A}$

430

Differences in porewater chemistry among subsites (Table  $\frac{12}{2}$ ) and phenophase (Table  $\frac{23}{2}$ ) were also significant. SS had the lowest average redox potential and was significantly different from TC which had the highest, while TS was not significantly different from either SS or TC. Redox potentials were even more variable between phenophase where all four phases had significantly different means. The highest mean was measured during dormancy and decreased significantly in the order senescence,

436 maturity and green-up. The pH was not significantly different across any of the subsites but did change

437	significantly with phenology. Dormancy had the lowest pH which was significantly different from all
438	other phenophases. Senescence and green-up had a statistically similar mean pH values that were higher
439	than dormancy, and the porewater pH during maturity was statistically higher than all other phenophases.
440	$S^{2\text{-}}$ also varied significantly among subsites. SS contained on average more than an order of
441	magnitude greater $S^{2-}$ than both TS and TC. $S^{2-}$ is lowest during dormancy but is only significantly
442	different than maturity which has the highest $S^{2-}$ mean. Variability in $Fe^{2+}$ between subsites was opposite
443	of $S^{2-}$ . While TS and TC had low concentrations of $S^{2-}$ , they had high concentrations of $Fe^{2+}$ , which were
444	more than double and significantly higher than $Fe^{2+}$ at SS. $Fe^{2+}$ concentrations varied with phenology
445	similar to S <sup>2-</sup> where dormancy had the lowest mean which was significantly different only from maturity
446	when the highest levels of $Fe^{2+}$ were detected. Differences between subsite total Fe followed the same
447	trend as Fe <sup>2+</sup> , where SS was significantly lower than both TS and TC. Total Fe was lowest during
448	dormancy and senescence, which were both statistically similar, but different from green-up and maturity.
449	SS had the highest mean salinity and was significantly different only from TS which had the
450	lowest mean salinity. Green-up had a significantly lower mean salinity than all other phenophases except
451	dormancy. Dormancy was only significantly different from senescence, which had the highest mean
452	salinity. Subsite differences in Ca were similar to salinity where SS had a significantly higher mean Ca
453	concentration than TS, but not TC. Green-up had the lowest mean Ca concentration which was
454	significantly different from all other phenophases.
455	3.4 Stepwise Regression Model Results
456	A stepwise regression model was run across the entire 1-year experiment to determine the most
457	important biogeochemical predictors of soil C concentration in our dataset (Table 45). The model results
458	indicate that depth, redox potential, soil S, and sulfide are the best predictors of soil C concentration. The
459	model $R^2$ value of 0.44 indicates that these variables explain 44% of the variability in our soil C
460	concentration data and the model is highly significant (p <0.0001). Sulfide, redox potential, and soil S
461	each have positive estimates, meaning that these variables increase as soil C increases while depth had a

462 negative estimate, meaning that soil C tends to decrease with depth across the entire dataset. Each

463 individual predictor variable is also significant (p < 0.05).

## 464

## **Table 45**. Stepwise regression results for predicting soil carbon.

	Parameter	Estimate	P-Value	Model R <sup>2</sup>	Model P-Value	
	Depth	-0.03	0.003	0.44	<0.0001	Г
	Sulfide	0.96	0.04		-	-
	Redox	0.002	0.002			
	Soil S%	1.3	< 0.0001	-		
466 467 468	4.0 Discussion 4.1 Subsite Diff	erences in Soil (	C and Biogeo	chemistry		
469	We hype	othesized that so	il C concentra	tion and soil bi	ogeochemistry would	l differ across our
470	subsite locations	s. Our results sup	port this hypo	thesis and sugg	est significant differe	ences in both soil C
471	concentration an	d porewater bio	geochemistry	among subsites	, which is consistent	with prior work at this
472	field site (Seyffe	erth et al. 2020; 0	Guimond et al.	2020a). This fi	inding illustrates the i	importance of
473	considering mul	tiple sampling lo	ocations when	conducting blue	e C assessments to ac	count for ecosystem-
474	scale variability.	At SS, average	soil C concent	trations were 63	3% higher than at TC	and 29% higher than
475	at TS. Even thou	igh these subsite	s are several to	o tens of meters	from one another, th	ney each had
476	statistically diffe	erent mean soil C	concentration	ns. Higher soil (	C at SS is not related	to higher primary

477 productivity because the Spartina alterniflora at SS are stunted. The short form of S. alterinflora is

478 generally less productive than the tall form (Roman and Daiber 1984) and likely exudes less DOC from

479 the smaller root mass. This is supported by a lower average DOC concentration at SS. Also, the

480 chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) properties at SS were different than at the other subsites.

481 SS CDOM had a significantly lower  $E_2:E_2$  than TS and TC, indicative of higher molecular weight DOC at

482	SS. In addition, the humification index (HIX) was significantly lower at SS indicating that the DOC at SS
483	has been reworked by microbes less than it has been at TS and TC. Furthermore, SS consistently had
484	lower porewater redox potentials than the other subsites; while our data represent a snapshot in time for
485	each phenophase and subsite location, they are consistent with prior work of higher resolution porewater
486	over time that shows SS being more strongly reducing than areas closer to the tidal channel (Guimond et
487	al., 2020a; Seyfferth et al. 2020). Redox potentials at SS were low enough to support sulfate reduction.
488	This is confirmed by our elevated $S^{2-}$ porewater concentrations measured at SS. Therefore, the greatest
489	controls on soil C concentration at SS is slower microbial oxidation of C due to strongly reducing
490	conditions caused by nearly constant inundation and limited flushing of oxygenated surface water
491	(Guimond et al. 2020b, a; Seyfferth et al. 2020). These conditions lead to CDOM that is less affected by
492	microbial degradation (i.e., low HIX, low E2:E3) and a less energetically favorable metabolism (i.e.,
493	sulfate reduction) resulting in more soil C storageaccrual. This has important implications for soil C stock
494	uncertainty because a greater amount of the area at St Jones is composed of subsite SS (Seyfferth et al.
495	2020). Sampling only near the tidal creek (TS and TC) could significantly underestimate soil C stocks,
496	while sampling only in the marsh interior could lead to an oversimplification of soil biogeochemistry and
497	DOC molecular properties in salt marsh ecosystems.
498	In contrast to SS, soil redox potentials were significantly higher at TC and soil C was
499	significantly lower. This is likely due to TC having a slightly higher elevation on a natural levee and less
500	reducing surface soils (Seyfferth et al. 2020). The redox potential is not low enough to support sulfate
501	reduction but is low enough to support Fe reduction. This is supported by the abundant amount of $\mathrm{Fe}^{2+}$
502	measured in the porewater at TC. A higher redox potential and more energetically favorable electron
503	acceptor $(Fe^{3+})$ likely leads to higher rates of C mineralization and explains the lower soil C concentration
504	at TC. On the other hand, we found some of the highest concentrations of DOC at TC, particularly closer
505	to the surface near the rooting zone. This can be explained by a greater root mass and correspondingly
506	higher root exudation rate of the taller S. cynosuroides coupled with porewater flushing occurring only on
507	a spring-neap pattern, which allows DOC to build up in porewater over time (Guimond et al. 2020a, b). A
	27

508	higher concentration of freshly produced DOC and a lower concentration of soil C is also consistent with
509	the priming effect which posits that high concentrations of freshly produced and microbially labile DOC
510	can stimulate microbial growth leading to the degradation of older, more stable soil C (Textor et al. 2019;
511	Zhang et al. 2021). In addition, TC CDOM fluorescence peaks (Coble, A, M, C, T), were similar to SS,
512	indicating that SS and TC have strong sources of fluorescent CDOM.
513	Though TS and TC are biogeochemically more similar than SS, TS had significantly higher soil C
514	than TC likely due to different dominant vegetation and hydrology. TS is lower in elevation and
515	experiences diurnal tidal oscillations with slightly lower average porewater redox values than TC (Table
516	1), which experiences tidal oscillations on a spring-neap cycle (Guimond et al. 2020a). These differences
517	in hydrology may cause soil C to accumulate more so under slightly stronger reducing conditions at TS
518	compared to TC. Another unique attribute of subsite TS is the CDOM signature. The coble peaks (A, T,
519	C, and M) and Abs <sub>254</sub> were significantly lower at TS than both TC and SS, which indicates a decreased
520	concentration of terrestrially-derived CDOM. This is likely because TS is nearest the tidal creek and
521	therefore porewater solutes are exported to the tidal channel twice daily during ebb tide (Fettrow et al.,
522	2023b), decreasing the marsh grass derived terrestrial CDOM signature in the near-channel porewater.
523	4.2 Phenophase Differences in Soil C and Biogeochemistry
524	We further hypothesized that soil C concentration and biogeochemistry would vary across plant
525	phenophase, and our data support this hypothesis. Soil C was greatest during plant dormancy and was on
526	average 26% higher than green-up, 18% higher than senescence, and 10% higher than maturity. This
527	highlights the importance of considering the time of year soil samples are taken when conducting a blue C
528	assessment. Likewise, many of the biogeochemical variables also changed with phenophase. The redox
529	potential of all four phenophases were significantly different from one another, with the highest average
530	redox potential occurring during dormancy. Higher redox potentials during dormancy are associated with
531	significantly lower porewater Fe <sup>2+</sup> and S <sup>2-</sup> , indicating that microbial reduction is likely suppressed during
532	the winter months when labile DOC produced from root exudation is less available. Dormancy also had
533	the highest soil C concentration. We suggest this may be related to a suppressed priming affect due to low
	28

- porewater DOC concentrations and to Fe oxide formation during the high redox potential of dormancy, 534 allowing any remaining porewater C to be pulled out of solution and into the solid phase with oxidized Fe 535 minerals (Riedel et al. 2013; Sodano et al. 2017; ThomasArrigo et al. 2019). 536 We found that DOC concentrations are higher during senescence and significantly lower during 537 plant maturity. High porewater DOC during senescence agrees with previous work showing higher 538 belowground allocation of biomass in Spartina before the winter (Crosby et al. 2015). Belowground 539 540 allocation of C in S. alterniflora has been shown to increase late into the growing season (Lytle and Hull 541 1980) while concentrations of soil organics have been shown to decrease during the summer months due 542 to higher temperatures and higher rates of soil respiration (Caçador et al. 2004). Higher rates of 543 belowground C allocation during senescence are further supported by the higher rates of soil respiration 544 during senescence (Vázquez-Lule and Vargas 2021) due to increased labile DOC availability and 545 associated microbial activity previously reported at this field site. 546 4.3 Biogeochemical Controls on Soil C 547 Our data reveal important biogeochemical controls on soil C concentration across space and time. 548 The results of the stepwise regression model suggest that soil C concentrations are predicted by sulfide, soil S, redox potential, and depth. Soil C increased significantly with increasing sulfide and soil S 549 550 concentration, indicated by the positive model estimate (Table 45). This is likely associated with the 551 lower elevation, and redox potential and greater accumulation of sulphate at SS due to less tidal flushing. 552 This may also be a result of sulfurization where inorganic sulfur, namely sulfide, may interact with organic matter via abiotic reactions (Alperin et al. 1994). Evidence suggests that this interaction can help 553 preserve and stabilize soil C (Tegelaar et al. 1989), though spectroscopic evidence would be required to 554 555 determine if this is an important process at this study site. Depth also has an important control on soil C concentration and the estimate was negative, 556 557 indicating that soil C decreases with depth. This is consistent with the literature suggesting higher soil C concentration at the surface and decreasing with depth in coastal salt marshes (Bai et al. 2016). While 558
- depth was an important predictor of soil C from the stepwise regression model, our depth profiles (Figure
  - 29

560 4) indicate only small changes with depth. This may be a result of only sampling to 48 cm and integrating across 12 cm increments, or it may be a result of our method design of extracting porewater from the soils 561 and running porewater DOC as a separate fraction of C from the solid phase soil C. Because our 562 porewater DOC results indicate higher concentrations near the surface, the removal of porewater DOC 563 564 prior to soil C analysis may lead to lower concentrations of soil C at the surface because in most studies, porewater DOC is typically incorporated into the bulk soil C measurements upon soil drying and not 565 extracted as a separate fraction of C (i.e., porewater DOC). We suggest future studies consider porewater 566 567 DOC as a separate component of the overall soil C concentration, particularly because the variability with 568 depth is much higher for porewater DOC than soil C and porewater DOC is presumed to be more labile 569 and mobile than particulate OC. Therefore, when porewater is extracted from the soil, the measured soil C 570 concentration may appear less variable with depth and time leading to more consistent estimates of the 571 more stable solid-phase soil C. 572 Redox potential was the final significant predictor in the stepwise regression model and increased significantly with soil C. We expected to see a negative relationship between soil C and redox potential 573 574 due to higher C preservation under reducing conditions, but an overall positive relationship between 575 redox potential and soil C in the model indicates an additional and possibly more important mechanism

related to shifting biogeochemistry throughout the year. We observed more oxic conditions at all subsites 576 577 during plant dormancy in the winter, probably due to the cold winter conditions that allow for the higher 578 dissolved oxygen concentrations in water and porewaters observed previously (Trifunovic et al. 2020). 579 Despite more oxygenated conditions and higher redox potentials in winter, the microbial activity likely 580 decreased during winter, allowing elevated soil C during the winter months when plants were dormant. In addition, the less reducing and more oxygenated conditions in winter likely promoted the formation of Fe 581 582 oxides that incorporated solution-phase C into the solid phase via coprecipitation. While there is an 583 abundance of evidence showing the importance of Fe oxides in soil C storage in non-wetland ecosytstems (Lalonde et al. 2012; Riedel et al. 2013; Sowers et al. 2018a, b, 2019; Adhikari et al. 2019), recent studies 584

have shown the important role of Fe oxides in C cycling in tidal salt marshes (Seyfferth et al. 2020;

587 oxide complexation with C due to phenological phase should be further investigated. 588 4.4 Variability in Soil Carbon Storage<u>C Accrual</u> Rates and <u>Soil C</u> Stocks 589 -Based on soil accretion rates obtained from a previous study near our core locations (Tucker 2016), bulk density at each of the three subsites previously obtained (Wilson and Smith 2015), 590 591 and our mean soil C concentrations averaged across depth for each subsite within phenophases, we 592 calculated the soil C accumulation rates and soil C stocks at each of the three subsites within each of the 593 four phenophases (Figure 7). These accumulation rates are in range of previously reported values for 594 mesohaline tidal salt marshes (Chmura et al. 2003; Lovelock et al. 2014; Ye et al. 2015; Mcleod et al. 2016; Macreadie et al. 2017, 2020), as are the soil C stock estimates (Zhao et al. 2016; Ewers Lewis et al. 595 596 2018; van Ardenne et al. 2018; Ouyang and Lee 2020; Gorham et al. 2021). These results further illustrate 597 that soil C storageaccrual rates and soil C stocks are highly dynamic and change based on time and space 598 within a single ecosystem. The largest difference between rates and stocks occurred between SS 599 dormancy and TC green-up, in which the average storageaccrual rates varied by 75% and the average 600 stocks varied by 96%. Therefore, within the same ecosystem and between phenophases, soil C 601 storageaccrual rates and stocks can vary substantially, leading to variability and uncertainty. To account 602 for spatial and temporal heterogeneity in soil C storageaccrual rates and stocks, we suggest taking soil 603 cores across multiple vegetation zones (if they exist) and across both the growing and non-growing 604 seasons. Our recommendation follows Howard et al. (2014), who suggest linear plot selection when an 605 obvious feature (i.e., tidal creek) is present and a feature that likely has a strong control on local 606 environmental conditions based on distance from this feature. But we also point out that selecting plot 607 locations based on variation in vegetation is also important, since changing aboveground vegetation is 608 often a sign of changing belowground biogeochemical conditions in tidal systems. This way, more the 609 source of variability can be accounted for, leading to less uncertainty in blue C estimates.

Fettrow et al. 2023a), but few studies track C cycling during the cool winter months. Variations in Fe

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Figure 78. Conceptual diagram illustrating the spatial and temporal variability of soil C storageaccrual
 rates (g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and soil C stocks (kg C m<sup>-2</sup>) based on subsites by phenophase. Soil C stocks are <u>0</u> to
 48em48 cm depth. S= senescence, D= dormancy, G= green-up, M= maturity.

## 615 5.0 Conclusion

616	Our results highlight the variability in soil C in time and space at the site level. We found that
617	some level of uncertainty in estimates of stocks and accumulation rates is likely related to spatial and
618	temporal variability of soil C and biogeochemistry at the marsh scale. Subsites that were only a few
619	meters from one another contained significantly different soil C concentrations, likely usedusing different
620	metabolic pathways for C mineralization, contained significantly different porewater CDOM molecular
621	properties and led to considerable variation in soil C storageaccrual rates and soil C stock estimates. The
622	biogeochemical controls that were best correlated with soil C concentration were redox potential, soil S,
623	sulfide, and depth, indicating that the redox potential and sulfur content of the soils are critical in

624	controlling how much soil C accumulates in coastal marsh ecosystems. We also found that soil C	
625	concentration and thus soil C storageaccrual rates and soil C stock estimates, varies significantly across	
626	the phenophases of the marsh grasses. Plant dormancy contained the highest mean soil C concentration,	
627	possibly a result of high redox potential during winter months that causes remaining porewater DOC to be	
628	incorporated into the solid phase with oxidized minerals such as Fe oxides and lower microbial activity.	
629	These results demonstrate the importance of considering marsh-scale spatial and temporal heterogeneity	
630	when conducting a blue C assessment. Based on these results, we suggest taking soil cores from multiple	
631	locations within a marsh and in replicate, particularly if multiple vegetation types of marsh grass are	
632	present, and at different seasons to account for both spatial and temporal variability. These	
633	recommendations may help lead to less uncertainty in blue C estimates.	
634		
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