- Response to the letter from the Editor and Referee #3 on "Can mud (silt and clay) 1
- concentration be used to predict soil organic carbon content within seagrass ecosystems?" 2
- 3 by O. Serrano et al.
- 4
- 5 O. Serrano et al.

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8 Letter from the Editor:

Dear Authors, 9

I have read the revised version of your revised MS. In the meanwhile, I asked for a third 10 reviewer to evaluate your revised MS, and her/his comments are attached. We both agree that 11 your MS should be published after considering several aspects. Please respond to the comment 12 by the new reviewer and modify your MS accordingly. In particular, the reviewer is asking why 13 it is relevant and interesting to measure grain size rather than OC content. This seems to me quiet 14

important, as all you MS, including the title, is constructed on that postulate, in a blue carbon 15

perspective. Alternatively, predicting OC content from grain size is probably not the only 16

relevant message of your paper. Please clarify this point. 17

In addition, I was a bit disappointed by the criteria you have chosen to separate high/low 18

seagrass samples in the figures: OC content is trivial as this parameter appears on the Y axis of 19 both panels. Please try with d13C.

20

I am looking forward reading a revised version of you MS as well as a detailed response to these 21

- comments 22
- All the best 23
- Gwen Abril 24
- 25
- **Response:** 26
- 27 Dear Dr Gwenaël Abril,

28 We would like to thank you for reviewing and handling our manuscript. We carefully addressed

the points raised by referee #3 and yourself in the new version submitted. Please find below a detailed response to the comments raised during the review process.

31

32 1. The analyses of soil grain size (i.e. %mud) could constitute a relatively cheap method to estimate soil organic carbon content in seagrass ecosystems, particularly dry and wet sieving 33 using standard geological sieves (Erftemeijer and Kach, 2001). These could be used to cheaply 34 35 quantify mud content as a proxy for carbon, particularly in student projects, citizen science and in countries where funding for science is limited and they do not have access to higher 36 technology methods or cannot afford to pay for analysis. Indeed, maps of soil grain size 37 distribution are available for several areas and regions (e.g. Passlow et al. 2005) or could be 38 obtained using remote sensing (Rainey et al. 2003; De Falco et al. 2010), opening new 39 opportunities for scaling exercises. This topic was partially addressed in the last paragraph of the 40 41 introduction:

"A significant relationship between mud and Corg contents would allow mud to be used as a 42 43 proxy for C_{org} content, thereby enabling robust scaling up exercises at a low cost as part of blue carbon stock assessments. Furthermore, since most countries have conducted geological surveys 44 within the coastal zone to determine sediment grain size, a strong, positive relationship between 45 mud and Corg contents would allow the development of geomorphology models to predict blue 46 carbon content within seagrass meadows, dramatically improving global estimates of blue carbon 47 storage. The purpose of this study was therefore to test for relationships between Corg and mud 48 contents within seagrass ecosystems and adjacent bare sediments." 49

and the discussion also referred to the main goals of our study:

⁵¹ "Overall mud content is a poor predictor of soil C_{org} in seagrass meadows and care should be ⁵² taken in its use as a cost-effective proxy or indicator of C_{org} for scaling-up purposes in the ⁵³ emerging field of blue carbon science."

54 "...allow mud to be used as a proxy for C_{org} content in these ecosystems, thereby enabling robust 55 scaling up exercises (i.e. benefiting from existing geological surveys and models) at low cost as 56 part of blue carbon stock assessment programs."

57

58 In order to reinforce the significance and relevance of the findings in our study we included

59 further remarks along the manuscript:

60 <u>Text added in the Abstract (L211-212):</u> "The results obtained could enable robust scaling up

61 exercises at a low cost as part of blue carbon stock assessments."

Text added in the Discussion (L491-503): "Analyses of soil grain size (i.e. %mud) could 62 constitute a relatively cheap method to estimate soil organic carbon content in seagrass 63 ecosystems, particularly dry and wet sieving using standard geological sieves (Erftemeijer and 64 65 Kach, 2001). These could be used to cheaply quantify mud content as a proxy for carbon, particularly in student projects, citizen science and in countries where funding for science is 66 limited and they do not have access to higher technology methods or cannot afford to pay for 67 analysis. In addition, since most countries have conducted geological surveys within the coastal 68 zone to determine sediment grain size (e.g. Passlow et al. 2005), a strong, positive relationship 69 between mud and Corg contents could allow the development of geomorphology models to 70 71 predict blue carbon content within seagrass meadows, dramatically improving global estimates of blue carbon storage. Indeed, maps of soil grain-size could be obtained using remote sensing 72 (Rainey et al. 2003; De Falco et al. 2010), opening new opportunities for scaling exercises." 73

74

75 <u>References:</u>

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81 Passlow, V., Rogis, J., Hancock, A., Hemer, M., Glenn, K. and Habib, A.: Final Report, National

82 Marine Sediments Database and Seafloor Characteristics Project. Geoscience Australia, Record

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- Rainey, M.P., Tyler, A.N., Gilvear, D.J., Bryant, R.G. and McDonald, P.: Mapping intertidal
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- 86 Environment 86, 480-490, 2003.
- 87

2. The y-axis in Figures 1 to 3 correspond to the OC content, while x-axis correspond to %mud 88 content and therefore, one could use the formula (y=ax+b) to estimate OC content based on 89 %mud content. The d13C values were only used to determine whether soils with relatively high 90 91 OC content with respect to their mud content had relatively high seagrass inputs. This was illustrated by shading the range of d13C signatures of seagrass tissues in the Figures, to conclude 92 that allochthonous OC inputs play a major role in soil OC accumulation in opportunistic and 93 early-colonizing seagrasses (Halodule, Halophila and Zostera), but high-biomass and persistent 94 95 meadows (i.e. Posidonia and Amphibolis) accumulate higher seagrass-derived OC compared to ephemeral and low-biomass meadows. We do not consider the use of d13C appropriate to 96 highlight (i.e. empty circles) soils with high seagrass-derived OC in the Figures showing the 97 relationship between OC and mud content, rather highlight soils with high OC content to 98 evaluate their origin (i.e. high autochthonous or allochthonous OC). 99

100

101 **Report from Referee #3:**

Overall, the premise of the paper is good, if mud content may be used as a proxy for Corg 102 sediment contents of seagrass ecosystems and adjacent bare sediments. However I have one 103 104 major concern: Instead of carbon content, have the authors compared the mud fraction carbon density (g cm-3) instead of carbon content? The reason I say this is that while carbon content 105 may decrease downcore, sediment density often increases downcore. As such, carbon density 106 107 may be fairly constant downcore (for instance see Donato et al. (2011)). Furthermore, sediment density is directly related to grain size and showing the carbon densities should reduce the effect 108 of soil depth and aging. The authors should have the dry bulk density since they have the dry 109 weights and volume for each interval. Therefore, I would suggest that the mud fraction would 110 have a greater relation to carbon density. Moreover, carbon density is a better link to blue carbon 111 112 (carbon accumulation) than carbon content.

Donato, D.C., Kauffman, J.B., Murdiyarso, D., Kurnianto, S., Stidham, M., Kanninen, M., 2011.
Mangroves among the most carbon-rich forests in the tropics. Nature Geoscience 4, 293-297.

115

116 **Response:**

117 Dear Referee,

- 118 We would like to thank you for reviewing our manuscript. We consider appropriate to keep our
- initial approach: compare %OC with %mud instead of g OC with %mud as suggested by the reviewer. %OC and %mud are easy to estimate, but estimate density and explore the relationships between g OC and %mud it is complex and out of scope in our study:
- 122 1. Changes in density with depth are not only related to %mud but also related to porosity and 123 sediment grain-size distribution. For example, sands have higher density but high porosity, so if 124 mud is present will fill empty spaces, diminishing porosity and increasing density. There exist 125 multiple combinations related to grain-size distribution that could affect density and were out of
- scope in our study.
- 2. Changes in density with depth are related to soil compaction linked to OC decomposition with
 ageing, and compression during coring and core processing (i.e. extrusion). Compression was not
 measured for several cores used in this study.
- 130

In summary, normalizing %OC by density could entail confusion and misleading conclusions, and it is not possible to explore the hypothesis suggested above because soil compression during coring and extrusion was not measured for several cores, and therefore it is not possible to 'decompress' the density values obtained before estimating g OC cm⁻³. Soil compression of loose soils (i.e seagrass meadows) during coring is an inevitable phenomenon and could entail up to 50% core shortening and large uncertainties/errors when exploring the relationships between g OC and %mud as suggested by the reviewer.

138

139 **Comment from Referee #3:**

Another objective of this work is reduce costs in blue carbon research. Have the authors compared the cost in analyzing carbon content as compared to grainsize analyses? I would suggest that it is easier and cheaper measure of carbon content (and carbon density) than grain size analyses (sand, silt and clay fractions).

144

145 **Response:**

The costs of soil OC content analysis range from \$12 to \$40, while sediment grain size analyses (i.e. %mud) by dry or wet sieving could be done at zero cost in any lab, being particularly useful in student projects, citizen science and in countries where funding for science is limited and they

- 149 do not have access to higher technology methods or cannot afford to pay for analysis. Indeed,
- 150 standard geological sieves are relatively cheap and commonly found in most laboratories.
- 151
- 152 Minor comment; the authors explain that mud content is composed of silt and clay too many time
- throughout the text. This only needs to be stated once in the abstract and once in the main text.

- 154 **Response:**
- 155 Redundancy was deleted as suggested
- 156
- 157
- 158

159 Can mud (silt and clay) concentration be used to predict soil organic carbon

160 content within seagrass ecosystems?

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- 181

184 ABSTRACT

185 The emerging field of blue carbon science is seeking cost-effective ways to estimate the organic carbon content of soils that are bound by coastal vegetated ecosystems. Organic carbon (Corg) 186 content in terrestrial soils and marine sediments has been correlated with mud content (i.e. silt 187 and clay, particle sizes $\leq 63 \mu m$), however, empirical tests of this theory are lacking for coastal 188 189 vegetated ecosystems. Here, we compiled data (n = 1345) on the relationship between Corg and mud contents in seagrass ecosystems (79 cores) and adjacent bare sediments (21 cores) to 190 address whether mud can be used to predict soil Corg content. We also combined these data with 191 the $\delta^{13}C$ signatures of the soil C_{org} to understand the sources of C_{org} stores. The results showed 192 that mud is positively correlated with soil Corg content only when the contribution of seagrass-193 194 derived Corg to the sedimentary Corg pool is relatively low, such as in small and fast-growing meadows of the genera Zostera, Halodule and Halophila, and in bare sediments adjacent to 195 seagrass ecosystems. In large and long-living seagrass meadows of the genera Posidonia and 196 197 Amphibolis there was a lack of, or poor relationship between mud and soil Corg content, related to 198 a higher contribution of seagrass-derived Corg to the sedimentary Corg pool in these meadows. The relative high soil Corg contents with relatively low mud contents (e.g. mud-Corg saturation) in 199 bare sediments and Zostera, Halodule and Halophila meadows was related to significant 200 allochthonous inputs of terrestrial organic matter, while higher contribution of seagrass detritus 201 in Amphibolis and Posidonia meadows disrupted the correlation expected between soil Corg and 202 203 mud contents. This study shows that mud is not a universal proxy for blue carbon content in 204 seagrass ecosystems, and therefore should not be applied generally across all seagrass habitats.

Oscar Serrano 1/8/2016 8:27 PM Deleted: (i.e. silt and clay, particle sizes <63 µm)

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208	Mud content can only be used as a proxy to estimate soil C _{org} content for scaling up purposes
209	when opportunistic and/or low biomass seagrass species (i.e. Zostera, Halodule and Halophila)
210	are present (explaining 34 to 91% of variability), and in bare sediments (explaining 78% of the
211	variability). The results obtained could enable robust scaling up exercises at a low cost as part of
212	blue carbon stock assessments.
213	

214 1. INTRODUCTION

215 The sedimentary organic carbon (C_{org}) stores of seagrass meadows – often referred to as 216 'blue carbon' - can vary among seagrass species and habitats, with reports of up to 18-fold 217 differences (Lavery et al. 2013). Ambiguity remains in the relative importance of the depositional environment and species characteristics contributing to this variability. Seagrasses 218 occur in a variety of coastal habitats, ranging from highly depositional environments to highly 219 220 exposed and erosional habitats (Carruthers et al. 2007). Since seagrass species differ in their 221 biomass and canopy structure, and occur in a variety of habitat types, this raises the question of whether mud content can be used to predict Corg content within coastal sediments, or whether the 222 species composition will significantly influence the soil Corg stores independently of the 223 geomorphological nature of the habitat. 224

Geomorphological settings (i.e. topography and hydrology), soil characteristics (e.g. mineralogy and texture) and biological features (e.g. primary production and remineralization rates) control soil C_{org} storage in terrestrial ecosystems (Amundson, 2001, De Deyn et al. 2008; Jonsson and Wardle, 2009) and in mangrove and tidal salt marshes (Donato et al. 2011; Adame et al. 2013; Ouyang and Lee, 2014). While it is clear that habitat interactions have a large influence on stores of soil C_{org} , our understanding of the factors regulating this influence in seagrass meadows is limited (Nellemann et al. 2009; Duarte et al. 2010; Serrano et al. 2014).

The accumulation of C_{org} in seagrass meadows results from several processes: accretion (autochthonous plant and epiphyte production, and trapping of allochthonous C_{org} ; Kennedy et al. 2010), erosion (e.g. export; Romero and Pergent, 1992; Hyndes et al. 2014) and decomposition (Mateo et al. 1997). Previous studies demonstrate that both autochthonous (e.g. plant detritus and epiphytes) and allochthonous (e.g. macroalgae, seston and terrestrial matter) sources contribute

to the C_{org} pool in seagrass soils (Kennedy et al. 2010; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015). Plant net primary productivity is a key factor controlling the amount of C_{org} potentially available for sequestration in seagrass ecosystems (Serrano et al. 2014), but the depositional environment is an important factor controlling C_{org} storage in coastal habitats (De Falco et al. 2004; Lavery et al. 2013).

Previous studies have shown a large variation in Corg stores among morphologically different 242 seagrass species (Lavery et al. 2013; Rozaimi et al. 2013). Also, that Corg accumulates more in 243 estuaries compared to coastal ocean environments (estimated at 81 Tg C_{org} y⁻¹ and 45 Tg C_{org} y⁻¹, 244 respectively; Nellemann et al. 2009). This is due largely to estuaries being highly depositional 245 environments, receiving fine-grained particles from terrestrial and coastal ecosystems which 246 enhance Corg accumulation (i.e. silt and clay sediments retain more Corg compared to sands; Keil 247 and Hedges, 1993; Burdige 2007) and preservation (i.e. reducing redox potentials and 248 249 remineralization rates; Hedges and Keil, 1995; Dauwe et al. 2001; Burdige, 2007; Pedersen et al. 2011). The inputs of seagrass-derived Corg in the sedimentary pool could break the linear 250 relationship among mud (i.e. silt and clay particles) and Corg contents typically found in 251 252 terrestrial (Nichols, 1984; McGrath and Zhang, 2003) and marine sedimentary environments 253 (Bergamaschi et al. 1997; De Falco et al. 2004). However, the amount of Corg that can be associated with mud particles is limited (Hassink, 1997), which could lead to a poor relationship 254 between mud and soil Corg contents. Also, other factors found to play a key role in controlling 255 soil Corg accumulation in terrestrial and coastal ecosystems, such as chemical stabilization of 256 organic matter (Percival et al. 1999; Burdige, 2007), carbon in microbial biomass (Sparling, 257 258 1992; Danovaro et al. 1995), and soil temperature (Pedersen et al. 2011), could also influence 259 Corg storage in seagrass meadows.

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A significant relationship between mud and Corg contents would allow mud to be used as a 261 262 proxy for Corg content, thereby enabling robust scaling up exercises at a low cost as part of blue 263 carbon stock assessments. Furthermore, since most countries have conducted geological surveys 264 within the coastal zone to determine sediment grain size, a strong, positive relationship between mud and Corg contents would allow the development of geomorphology models to predict blue 265 266 carbon content within seagrass meadows, dramatically improving global estimates of blue carbon storage. The purpose of this study was therefore to test for relationships between Corg and mud 267 contents within seagrass ecosystems and adjacent bare sediments. 268

269

270 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Data was compiled from a number of published and unpublished studies from Australia and 271 272 Spain, in seagrass meadows across diverse habitats (Table 1). The study sites encompass monospecific and/or mixed meadows from a variety of temperate and tropical seagrass species of 273 274 the genera Posidonia, Amphibolis, Zostera, Halophila and Halodule, and adjacent bare sediments, while including a variety of depositional environments (from estuarine to exposed 275 coastal areas encompassing different water depths, from intertidal to the deep limit of seagrass 276 distribution; Table 1). Data from 100 cores (79 from seagrass meadows and 21 from bare 277 sediments) on sediment grain size, organic carbon (Corg) content and stable carbon isotope 278 signatures of the C_{org} (δ^{13} C) was explored in this study (N = 1345). 279

Sediment cores were sampled by means of percusion and rotation, or vibrocoring (ranging from 10 to 475 cm long). The core barrels consisted of PVC or aluminium pipes (50 to 90 mm inside diamater) with sharpenned ends to cut fibrous material and minimize core shortening Oscar Serrano 1/8/2016 8:28 PM **Deleted:** (i.e. silt and clay)

(compression) during coring (Serrano et al. 2012, 2014). All cores were sealed at both ends,
transported vertically to the laboratory and stored at 5°C before processing.

286 The cores were sliced at regular intervals, each slice/sample was weighed before and after 287 oven drying to constant weight at 70°C (DW), and subsequently sub-divided for analysis. The Corg elemental and isotopic composition of the organic matter was measured in milled 288 subsamples from several slices along the cores. The sediment core sub-samples were acidified 289 290 with 1 M HCl, centrifuged (3500 RPM; 5 minutes) and the supernatant with acid residues was 291 removed using a pipette, then washed in deionized water, centrifuged again and the supernatant removed. The residual samples were re-dried (70°C) before carbon elemental and isotopic 292 analyses. The samples were encapsulated and the organic carbon elemental and isotopic 293 294 composition was analyzed using an elemental analyzer interfaced with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Percentage Corg was calculated for the bulk (pre-acidified) samples. Carbon isotope 295 ratios are expressed as δ values in parts per thousand (‰) relative to VPDB (Vienna Pee Dee 296 Belemnite). For sediment grain size analysis, a Coulter LS230 laser-diffraction particle analyzer 297 was used following digestion of the samples with 10% hydrogen peroxide. The mud content in 298 the sediments ($\leq 63 \mu m$) was determined, and expressed as a percentage of the bulk sample. 299

Pearson correlation analysis was used to test for significant relationships among C_{org} and mud contents, and C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures. Correlations between the variables studied were tested among seagrass species (9 categories) and bare sediments, seagrass genera (4 categories), habitat geomorphology (coastal and estuarine habitats) and soil depth (in 1 to 10 cm-thick and 11 to 110 cm-thick deposits).

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306 3. RESULTS

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The soil organic carbon (Corg) and mud contents varied within the seagrass meadows and 308 309 bare sediments studied in Australia and Spain. The soil Corg and mud contents were higher in 310 seagrass meadows (average \pm SE, 1.5 \pm 0.2% and 18 \pm 2.4%, respectively) compared to bare 311 sediments ($0.6 \pm 0.1\%$ and $10.8 \pm 1.2\%$, respectively; Table 2). On average, seagrass meadows of the genera Amphibolis and Posidonia contained higher soil C_{org} (1.6 ± 0.1%) and lower mud 312 (7.2 ± 0.4) than meadows of Halophila, Halodule and Zostera $(1.2 \pm 0.2\%$ and $34.9 \pm 5.4\%$, 313 respectively; Table 2). Overall, carbon isotopic ratios from sedimentary organic matter (δ^{13} C) 314 were similar between seagrass soils and bare sediments (-17.6 \pm 0.3‰ and -17.3 \pm 0.2‰, 315 respectively). The C_{org} in soils from *Posidonia* and *Amphibolis* meadows were ¹³C-enriched (-316 317 $15.5 \pm 0.3\%$) compared with seagrass soils from *Halophila*, *Halodule* and *Zostera* meadows (- $20.7 \pm 0.4\%$; Table 2). The C_{org} content in soils from estuarine and coastal habitats were similar, 318 while mud content in estuarine sediments was higher and δ^{13} C values depleted when compared 319 320 to coastal habitats (Table 2).

The relationships between the variables studied (i.e. C_{org} , %mud, and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures of 321 sedimentary Corg) among different species and habitat geomorphologies, and among different soil 322 depths were explored in Figures 1 to 3, and Table 3. When accounting for the whole dataset (up 323 to 475 cm long cores), the Corg content increased with increasing mud content in bare sediments 324 $(R^2 = 0.78)$ and at species level, except for *Posidonia oceanica* (i.e. C_{org} content decreased with 325 increasing mud content; $R^2 = 0.15$) and Amphibolis griffithii (i.e. no relationship was found, $R^2 =$ 326 327 0.05; Table 3). Although most of the correlations at species level were significant, they only explain 2 to 39% of the variance in trends described, except for Halophila ovalis (91%; Table 3). 328 In particular, Posidonia meadows (P. australis, P. sinuosa and P. oceanica) had the lower 329 correlation values (R² ranged from 0.02 to 0.15). When combining mud and Corg contents in 330

seagrass meadows of the colonizing and opportunistic genera *Halophila*, *Halodule* and *Zostera* (Kilminster et al. 2015), a relatively high correlation was found ($R^2 = 0.56$; Figure 1), while soil C_{org} and mud contents in persistent genera were only slightly positively correlated in combined *Amphibolis* spp and not correlated in *Posidonia* spp meadows (Figure 1).

The relationships between soil Corg and mud contents within different core depths (from 1 to 335 10 cm-thick deposits, and from 11 to up to 110 cm-thick deposits) for bare sediments and each 336 group of seagrass species were explored in Figure 2. The Corg content increased with increasing 337 mud content in bare sediments for both 1 to 10 cm-thick ($R^2 = 0.74$) and 11 to 110 cm-thick (R^2 338 = 0.81) soils. When combining mud and Corg contents in seagrass meadows of the genera 339 Halophila, Halodule and Zostera, a higher correlation was found for deeper core sections (11 to 340 110 cm-thick; $R^2 = 0.74$) compared to top core sections (1 to 10 cm-thick; $R^2 = 0.17$). For 341 combined Amphibolis and Posidonia species, soil Corg and mud contents were only slightly 342 positively correlated in deeper Amphibolis spp sections (11 to 110 cm-thick; $R^2 = 0.23$) and not 343 correlated in Posidonia spp meadows (Figure 2). The classification of habitats based on 344 geomorphology (i.e. coastal and estuarine) showed a lack of correlation between soil Corg and 345 mud contents in coastal ecosystems, and a poor correlation in estuarine ecosystems ($R^2 = 0.14$; 346 347 Figure 3 and Table 3).

The relationships between soil C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures were poor for all individual *Amphibolis* and *Posidonia* species studied (R² ranging from 0.09 to 0.3; Table 3), and for combined *Amphibolis* spp (Figure 1), with a tendency of C_{org}-rich soils being enriched in ¹³C (Figure 1). In contrast, C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures were not correlated in any of the small and fast-growing *Halodule*, *Zostera*, *Halophila* meadows studied (Table 3), neither individually nor when combined (Figure 1 and Table 3). A lack of correlation between soil C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$

354 signatures was also found in bare sediments adjacent to seagrass meadows (Figure 3 and Table

355 3).

356

357 4. DISCUSSION

Overall mud content is a poor predictor of soil Corg in seagrass meadows and care should be 358 taken in its use as a cost-effective proxy or indicator of Corg for scaling-up purposes in the 359 emerging field of blue carbon science. Although we describe some promise for opportunistic and 360 361 early colonizing Halophila, Halodule and Zostera meadows (i.e. mud content explained 34 to 91% of variability in Corg content) and in bare sediments adjacent to seagrass meadows 362 (explaining 78% of the variability), mud is not a universal proxy for blue carbon content and 363 364 therefore should not be applied generally across all seagrass habitats. In particular, mud content only explained 5 to 32% of soil Corg content in Amphibolis spp meadows and 2 to 15% of soil 365 366 Corg content in Posidonia spp meadows, and therefore, mud content is not a good proxy for blue carbon content in these meadows. 367

368 A tenet of carbon cycling within the coastal ocean is that fine-grained sediments (i.e. mud) have higher Corg contents. The positive relationship found between mud and Corg contents in 369 370 coastal bare sediments (explaining 78% of the variability) is in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Bergamaschi et al. 1997; De Falco et al. 2004), and is related to their larger surface areas 371 compared to coarse-grained sediments, providing more binding sites for Corg on the surface of 372 minerals (Keil and Hedges, 1993; Mayer, 1994a, 1994b; Galy et al. 2007; Burdige 2007). In 373 addition, the predominance of fine sediments reduces oxygen exchange and results in low 374 375 sediment redox potentials and remineralization rates, contributing to the preservation of 376 sedimentary Corg after burial (Hedges and Keil, 1995; Bergamaschi et al. 1997; Dauwe et al.

2001; Burdige 2007; Pedersen et al. 2011). However, the maximum capacity of a given soil to preserve C_{org} by their association with clay and silt particles is limited (i.e. mud- C_{org} saturation; Hassink, 1997). The results obtained showed that bare sediment samples with relative high C_{org} contents (i.e. >4% C_{org}) and relatively low mud contents were also ¹³C-depleted (Figure 1), suggesting significant contributions of soil C_{org} from allochthonous sources (e.g. terrestrial and sestonic; Kennedy et al. 2010). This could have disrupted the correlation found between soil C_{org} and mud contents in the bare sediments studied.

384 Mud is not a universal proxy for soil Corg content in seagrass meadows, which could be mainly explained by additional inputs of seagrass-derived Corg and/or allocthonous Corg to the 385 sedimentary Corg pool, obviating the linear relationship between mud and Corg contents found in 386 the absence of vegetation. The $\delta^{13}C$ values indicated that both seagrass- C_{org} and non-seagrass-387 derived Corg (i.e. epiphytes, algae, seston or terrestrial matter) were buried in the soils of all 388 389 studied meadows, but are consistent with a model of increasing capture of seagrass-derived Corg at meadows formed by persistent, high-biomass seagrasses (i.e. genera Posidonia and 390 Amphibolis) relative to opportunistic, low-biomass seagrasses (i.e. genera Halophila, Halodule 391 and Zostera). 392

On one hand, the soil δ^{13} C signatures measured in these long-living and large seagrass meadows (averaging -15 ± 0.2‰ in both cases) were closer to the δ^{13} C signatures of *Posidonia* and *Amphibolis* tissues (ranging from -8 to -14‰; Hyndes and Lavery 2005; Hindell et al. 2004; Cardona et al. 2007; Fourqurean et al. 2007; Collier et al. 2008; Kennedy et al. 2010; Hanson et al. 2010; Serrano et al. 2015) than to δ^{13} C values of algae or terrestrial organic matter (ranging from -18 to -32‰; e.g. Smit et al. 2006; Cardona et al. 2007; Kennedy et al. 2010; Hanson et al 2010; Deudero et al. 2011). The poor relationship between mud and soil C_{org} contents in

Amphibolis soils could be explained by samples with relative high Corg contents (i.e. >2.5% Corg) 400 401 and relatively low mud contents, as a result of both the contribution of seagrass-derived Corg (i.e. 402 ¹³C-enriched) and C_{org} from allochthonous sources (i.e. ¹³C-depleted; Figure 1). In Posidonia soils, the poor relationship between mud and soil Corg contents could be explained by samples 403 with relative high Corg contents (i.e. >10% Corg) and relatively low mud contents, as a result of 404 the contribution of seagrass-derived Corg (i.e. ¹³C-enriched; Figure 1). The contribution of 405 seagrass-derived Corg (i.e. root, rhizome and sheath detritus) in Posidonia soils play a much 406 407 larger role than the accumulation of fine, organic-rich allochthonous particles.

On the other hand, the soil δ^{13} C signatures measured in Halodule, Halophila and Zostera 408 meadows (averaging -21 \pm 0.4‰) were more similar to δ^{13} C values of algae or terrestrial organic 409 matter than to δ^{13} C values of their seagrass tissues (ranging from -10 and -14‰; e.g. Hemminga 410 and Mateo, 1996; Kennedy et al. 2010; Hanson et al. 2010). The positive relationship between 411 mud and soil Corg contents in Halodule, Halophila and Zostera soils could be explained their 412 relatively high mud content and ¹³C-depleted Corg, indicating that allochthonous Corg inputs and 413 mud content play a major role in soil Corg accumulation in these opportunistic and early-414 colonizing seagrasses. However, the relative high Corg contents found with relatively low mud 415 contents (i.e. mud-Corg saturation) disrupted the correlation found between soil Corg and mud 416 417 contents in these meadows ($C_{org} > 1\%$ in samples with 0-20% mud; $C_{org} > 2\%$ in samples with 20-70% mud and $C_{org} > 3.5$ in samples with 70-100% mud; Figure 1). 418

The results obtained showed a tendency for high-biomass and persistent meadows (i.e. *Posidonia* and *Amphibolis*) to accumulate higher C_{org} stores and seagrass-derived C_{org} compared to ephemeral and low-biomass meadows (i.e. *Halophila*, *Halodule* and *Zostera*), suggesting that factors (biotic and abiotic) affecting the production, form and preservation of C_{org} within habitats

exert a significant influence on soil Corg content (Lavery et al. 2013; Serrano et al. 2014, 2015). 423 424 The above- and belowground biomass in meadows of the genus Posidonia (averaging 535 and 910 g DW m⁻², respectively) is up to 2-fold higher than in Amphibolis meadows (averaging 641 425 and 457 g DW m⁻², respectively) and 4 to 18-fold higher than in small and opportunistic 426 seagrasses of the genera Halophila, Halodule and Zostera (125 and 49 g DW m⁻², on average; 427 respectively; Duarte and Chiscano, 1999; Paling and McComb 2000). Indeed, larger seagrasses 428 tend to have larger and more persistent rhizomes, constituted by more refractory forms of Corg, 429 430 more prone to be preserved in soils than simpler, more labile forms of Corg such as seston and algal detritus which are more suitable to experience remineralization during early diagenesis 431 (Henrichs 1992; Burdige, 2007). In addition, the larger size of detritus within Amphibolis and 432 433 Posidonia meadows compared to Halophila, Halodule and Zostera meadows could also contribute to the larger accumulation of Corg in the former, since decay rates of seagrass detritus 434 increase with decreasing particle size due to larger surfaces available for microbial attack 435 (Harrison, 1989). Differences in above- and belowground biomass and recalcitrance between 436 Posidonia and Amphibolis spp could explain the larger contribution of seagrass-derived Corg (i.e. 437 $^{13}\text{C-enriched})$ in the former, thereby obviating the linear relationship between mud and C_{org} 438 439 contents (Figure 1).

The soil C_{org} content tend to decrease with soil depth and ageing in seagrass ecosystems (e.g. Serrano et al. 2012), thereby the persistence of discrete organic detritus within upper soil horizons could lead to organic matter concentrations above those levels explained by the association with clay and silt particles, as previously demonstrated for terrestrial soils (Mayer and Xing, 2001; Gami et al. 2009). The organic matter preserved in most marine sediments is intimately associated with mineral surfaces (i.e. selective preservation by sorption of organic

matter into minerals; Keil et al 1994) and therefore the correlation between soil Corg and mud 446 447 contents in seagrass meadows could vary as a function of soil depth and ageing. The results 448 obtained show that soil depth is not an important factor when attempting to predict soil Corg content based on mud content in bare sediments (i.e. $R^2 > 0.74$ for all core depths explored; 1 to 449 110 cm-thick, 1 to 10 cm-thick, and 11 to 110 cm-thick; Figure 2). However, a clearer pattern 450 appeared when exploring the correlation between soil Corg and mud contents in top 10 cm and 451 within 11-110 cm soil depths of combined *Halodule*, *Halophila* and *Zostera* species ($R^2 = 0.17$ 452 and $R^2 = 0.74$, respectively). These results suggest that the relatively small belowground biomass 453 of these species (i.e. organic detritus) only has an impact on the expected positive correlation 454 between soil Corg and mud content within the top 10 cm, while the correlation for deeper soil 455 depths (11-110 cm) improved ($R^2 = 0.74$) compared to the whole dataset (1 to 110 cm-thick; R^2 456 = 0.56). For combined *Amphibolis* and *Posidonia* species, the results obtained show that soil 457 depth is not an important factor when attempting to predict soil Corg content based on mud 458 content (i.e. R² <0.2 in all cases; 1 to 110 cm-thick, 1 to 10 cm-thick, and 11 to 110 cm thick; 459 Figure 2). These results suggest that the relatively large belowground biomass of these species 460 (i.e. organic detritus) has an impact on the expected positive correlation between soil Corg and 461 462 mud content within all depths studied.

Habitat conditions in seagrass meadows not only influence the amount of C_{org} accumulation through detrital plant inputs, but the capacity of the plant canopies to retain particles (Gacia et al. 1999). The amount of fine suspended particles available for burial varies among sites, driven by geomorphological features (e.g. run-off, hydrodynamic energy and water depth), while meadow structure (i.e. density, cover and morphology of the canopy) constrains their capacity to accumulate sediment particles (Hendriks et al. 2010; Peralta et al. 2008). Although the number of

cores and species studied in coastal and estuarine ecosystems was unbalanced (i.e. Amphibolis 469 470 and Posidonia dominate in coastal habitats and Halophila, Halodule, Zostera dominate in 471 estuarine habitats), the lack of, or poor correlations found within estuarine and coastal 472 ecosystems, precludes the general use of mud as a predictor of blue carbon content based on habitat geomorphology (Figure 3). Seagrass meadows and bare sediments in environments 473 474 conducive for depositional processes (i.e. estuaries) accumulated up to 4-fold higher amounts of mud compared to other coastal ecosystems, but the saturation of mud with C_{org} and the large 475 contribution of seagrass detritus into the sedimentary Corg pool (13C-enriched soils) in some study 476 sites disrupted the positive relationship expected between mud and soil- C_{org} contents. In 477 estuarine ecosystems, soil Corg originated from both mud inputs linked to allochthonous-Corg via 478 deposition from upstream transport (e.g. Aller, 1998) and seagrass inputs (i.e. in samples with 479 Corg >5%; Figure 3). The insignificant relationship between mud and soil Corg contents in coastal 480 481 habitats could be explained by their relatively low mud content and the accumulation of seagrass-derived C_{org} , in particular in samples with $C_{org} > 5\%$ (Figure 3). 482

In sum, mud is not a universal proxy for blue carbon content in seagrass ecosystems and 483 should not be applied generally across all habitat and vegetation types. Overall, the positive 484 485 relationship between mud and Corg contents found in bare sediments and in opportunistic and/or low biomass seagrass meadows (i.e. genera Zostera, Halodule and Halophila) allow mud to be 486 used as a proxy for C_{org} content in these ecosystems, thereby enabling robust scaling up exercises 487 (i.e. benefiting from existing geological surveys and models) at low cost as part of blue carbon 488 stock assessment programs. However, mud content is not a good predictor of Corg content in 489 490 highly productive meadows such as those constituted by *P. oceanica* in the Mediterranean Sea 491 and P. australis, P. sinuosa and Amphibolis spp in Australia. Analyses of soil grain size (i.e.

%mud) could constitute a relatively cheap method to estimate soil organic carbon content in 492 493 seagrass ecosystems, particularly dry and wet sieving using standard geological sieves 494 (Erftemeijer and Kach, 2001). These could be used to cheaply quantify mud content as a proxy 495 for carbon, particularly in student projects, citizen science and in countries where funding for science is limited and they do not have access to higher technology methods or cannot afford to 496 pay for analysis. In addition, since most countries have conducted geological surveys within the 497 498 coastal zone to determine sediment grain size (e.g. Passlow et al. 2005), a strong, positive 499 relationship between mud and Corg contents could allow the development of geomorphology 500 models to predict blue carbon content within seagrass meadows, dramatically improving global estimates of blue carbon storage. Indeed, maps of soil grain-size could be obtained using remote 501 502 sensing (Rainey et al. 2003; De Falco et al. 2010), opening new opportunities for scaling 503 exercises.

504 Previous studies suggested that the relationship between organic matter and the sediment matrix is best seen with clay-sized fractions (<0.004 mm; Bergamaschi et al., 1997; De Falco et 505 al. 2004). However, the grain size cut-off selected in this study (mud, <0.063 mm) is more 506 507 representative of the bulk soil and their Corg content (Pedrosa-Pàmies et al. 2013) and therefore a 508 higher correlation is expected when comparing bulk soil Corg with a larger and more representative fraction of the sediment (i.e. including the silt fraction, 0.004-0.063 mm, also 509 provides binding sites for Corg; Burdige, 2007). Other biological, chemical and geological factors 510 not explored in detail in this study may also play a key role in Corg storage, and ultimately in the 511 512 relationship between soil Corg and mud contents. For example, the effects of habitat 513 geomorphology (e.g. hydrodynamic energy, terrestrial mud and Corg inputs, export of seagrass 514 biomass) and species identity (e.g. variation in terms of productivity, oxygen exposure and

recalcitrance of Corg stores, and plant influence on sediment retention) within both coastal and 515 516 estuarine environments, are among the factors identified in this study which might explain 517 significant variation in the Corg stores of meadows in relatively similar exposure conditions 518 (Serrano et al. 2015). Other factors found to play a key role in controlling soil Corg accumulation in terrestrial ecosystems, such as chemical stabilization of organic matter (Percival et al. 1999; 519 Galy et al. 2008) and microbial biomass carbon (Danovaro et al. 1994), could also influence Corg 520 521 storage in seagrass ecosystems. Further studies are needed to identify the influences of these 522 other factors on Corg storage in seagrass meadows, and in addition to the mud content, other characteristics should be taken into account when attempting to obtain robust estimates of Corg 523 stores within coastal areas. 524

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- 709 710

711 Tables and Figures

- **Table 1.** Data on soil organic carbon and mud contents, and stable carbon isotope from coastal
- soils were gathered from a variety of seagrass meadows (and also from adjacent bare sediments)

and habitat types.

Spagios	Study site	Coomornholom	Number of	Number of	Core depth	Water
species	Study site	Geomorphology	cores	samples	(cm)	depth (m)
Amphibolis (mixed spp)	Rottnest Island, WA, Australia	Coastal	2	68	0-120	2
	Shark Bay, WA, Australia	Coastal	1	38	0-170	2
Amphibolis antarctica	Shark Bay, WA, Australia	Coastal	2	63	0-200	2-3
Amphibolis griffithii	Jurien Bay, WA, Australia	Coastal	2	41	0-70	4
Posidonia australis	Oyster Harbour, WA, Australia	Estuarine	3	31	0-120	2
	Waychinicup Inlet, WA, Australia	Estuarine	2	79	0-150	2
	Robbins Island, TAS, Australia	Coastal	6	138	0-180	3
Posidonia sinuosa	Frenchman's Bay, WA, Australia	Coastal	4	100	0-80	2-8
	Cockburn Sound, WA, Australia	Coastal	3	50	0-30	6
	Garden Island, WA, Australia	Coastal	5	147	0-120	2-8
Posidonia oceanica	Portlligat, Spain	Coastal	1	192	475	3
	Balearic Islands, Spain	Coastal	6	25	0-270	3
Halodule uninvervis	Carnarvon, WA, Australia	Estuarine	1	39	0-210	2
	Gladstone, QLD, Australia	Estuarine	6	6	0-10	intertidal
Halophila decipiens	Gladstone, QLD, Australia	Estuarine	2	2	0-10	intertidal
Halophila ovalis	Rottnest Island, WA, Australia	Coastal	1	17	0-30	3
	Swan River, WA, Australia	Estuarine	1	5	0-70	2
	Leschenault Inlet, WA, Australia	Estuarine	1	8	0-120	1
	Harvey Inlet, WA, Australia	Estuarine	1	5	0-20	2
	Gladstone, QLD, Australia	Estuarine	2	2	0-10	intertidal
Zostera muelleri	Fagans Bay, NSW, Australia	Estuarine	2	20	0-10	intertidal
	Gladstone, QLD, Australia	Estuarine	23	23	0-10	intertidal
	Tuggerah Lakes, NSW, Australia	Estuarine	2	64	0-400	3
Bare	Cockburn Sound, WA, Australia	Coastal	10	131	0-30	2-9
	Garden Island, WA, Australia	Coastal	1	16	0-30	4
	Oyster Harbour, WA, Australia	Estuarine	1	26	0-110	3
	Gladstone, QLD, Australia	Estuarine	9	9	0-10	intertidal

- Table 2. Average \pm SE organic carbon (C_{org}) content (in %), δ^{13} C signatures and mud content in
- all habitats and soil depths studied. a) Descriptive statistics based on species identity. b)

722 Descriptive statistics based on habitat geomorphology (estuarine vs coastal environments). N,

number of samples.

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a,	

<i>u</i>)										
Habitat	Organic carbon (%)			δ	δ ¹³ C (‰)			Mud (%)		
(species)	Ν	Mean	SE	Ν	Mean	SE	Ν	Mean	SE	
Posidonia oceanica	217	3.91	0.35	217	-14.92	0.08	217	11.73	0.53	
Posidonia australis	248	1.87	0.08	244	-15.79	0.24	248	11.79	0.68	
Posidonia sinuosa	297	0.80	0.04	291	-14.08	0.16	297	2.59	0.18	
Amphibolis (mixed spp)	106	1.41	0.11	106	-15.20	0.23	106	4.75	0.33	
Amphibolis antarctica	63	0.99	0.06	62	-14.62	0.24	63	6.64	0.44	
Amphibolis griffithii	41	0.85	0.07	36	-15.83	0.56	41	5.44	0.29	
Halodule uninervis	45	0.78	0.12	45	-19.86	0.53	45	17.68	3.04	
Zostera muelleri	107	1.10	0.07	43	-20.02	0.30	107	31.68	2.59	
Halophila decipiens	2	1.87	0.51	2	-25.60	0.31	2	65.99	9.62	
Halophila ovalis	37	0.97	0.23	37	-17.22	0.44	37	24.09	6.23	
Bare	182	0.59	0.08	182	-17.25	0.24	182	10.83	1.20	
Grand Total	1345	1.56	0.07	1265	-16.18	0.10	1345	10.83	0.43	

b)									
Habitat	Organic carbon (%)			δ ¹³ C (‰)			Mud (%)		
(geomorphology)	Ν	Mean	SE	Ν	Mean	SE	Ν	Mean	SE
Coastal	1026	1.59	0.09	1014	-15.70	0.10	1026	6.85	0.24
Estuarine	319	1.44	0.07	251	-18.10	0.24	319	23.62	1.41

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- 727 Table 3. Pearson correlation analyses to test for significant relationships among soil Corg and
- mud contents, and soil C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures in up to 475 cm long cores; based on (a) species

identity and (b) habitat geomorphology. *ns*, non significant correlation.

a)						
Habitat	Organic carbon (%) v	's mud	(%)	Organic carbon (%) v	$s \delta^{13}C$	(‰)
(species)	Formula	\mathbb{R}^2	P value	Formula	\mathbb{R}^2	P value
Posidonia oceanica	$C_{org} = -0.26*mud + 6.95$	0.15	***	$C_{org} = 1.59 * \delta^{13}C + 27.61$	0.13	***
Posidonia australis	$C_{org} = 0.02*mud + 1.69$	0.02	*	$C_{org} = 0.18*\delta^{13}C + 4.73$	0.30	***
Posidonia sinuosa	$C_{org} = 0.07*mud + 0.61$	0.09	***	$C_{\rm org} = 0.12^* \delta^{13} C + 2.44$	0.23	***
Amphibolis (mixed spp)	$C_{org} = 0.17*mud + 0.61$	0.26	***	$C_{\rm org} = 0.14*\delta^{13}C + 3.53$	0.09	**
Amphibolis antarctica	$C_{org} = 0.08*mud + 0.47$	0.32	***	$C_{\rm org} = 0.14*\delta^{13}C + 3.10$	0.29	***
Amphibolis griffithii	ns	0.05	0.18	$C_{\rm org} = 0.06*\delta^{13}C + 1.79$	0.21	**
Halodule uninervis	$C_{org} = 0.02*mud + 0.37$	0.34	***	ns	0.00	0.89
Zostera muelleri	$C_{org} = 0.02*mud + 0.54$	0.39	***	ns	0.08	0.07
Halophila ovalis	$C_{org} = 0.04*mud + 0.12$	0.91	***	ns	0.00	0.89
Bare	$C_{org} = 0.06*mud - 0.03$	0.78	***	ns	0.01	0.24

b)						
Habitat	Organic carbon (%)	vs mud	(%)	Organic carbon (%)	vs δ¹³C	(‰)
(geomorphology)	Formula	\mathbb{R}^2	P value	Formula	\mathbb{R}^2	P value
Coastal	ns	0.01	0.85	$C_{\rm org} = 0.17^* \delta^{13} C + 4.14$	0.03	***
Estuarine	$C_{org} = 0.02*mud + 1.01$	0.14	*	$C_{\rm org} = 0.17*\delta^{13}C + 4.52$	0.22	**

Figure 1. Relationships among soil C_{org} and mud contents, and soil C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures in all habitats and all soil depths studied: bare sediments, combined *Halodule*, *Halophila* and *Zostera* species, and combined *Amphibolis* and *Posidonia* species. Only correlations with R² >0.5 are shown. The grey shaded areas showed the range of $\delta^{13}C$ signatures of plant detritus (based on literature values; see main text). The white circles indicate the samples obviating the expected correlation between soil C_{org} and mud contents.

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744	Figure 2. Relationships among soil C_{org} and mud contents in 1 to 10 cm and 11 to 110 cm thick
745	soils: bare sediments, combined Halodule, Halophila and Zostera species, and combined
746	Amphibolis and Posidonia species. Only correlations with $R^2 > 0.5$ are shown. The white
747	circles indicate the samples obviating the expected correlation between soil C_{org} and mud
748	contents.

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Figure 3. Relationships among soil C_{org} and mud contents, and soil C_{org} and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures in the coastal and estuarine habitats studied. The grey shaded areas showed the range of $\delta^{13}C$ signatures of plant detritus (based on literature values; see main text). The white circles indicate the samples obviating the expected correlation between soil C_{org} and mud contents.



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