



1 **Ecosystem respiration in coastal tidal flats can be**
2 **modelled from air temperature, plant biomass and**
3 **inundation regime**

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23 Abstract

24 Ecosystem respiration contributes greatly to carbon emissions and losses
25 in coastal wetlands. To gain a better understanding of gaseous carbon loss from
26 a coastal wetland covered by seablite (*Suaeda salsa* Pall.) and to evaluate the
27 influence of environmental factors on ecosystem respiration, a multi-year in-situ
28 experiment was carried out during the growing season of 2012 through part of
29 2014. By partitioning total carbon dioxide (CO₂) flux into soil respiration (R_{soil})
30 and plant respiration (R_p), we found that during mid-summer, ecosystem CO₂
31 respiration rates (R_{eco}) were within the range of 844.5 to 1150.0 mg CO₂ m⁻²
32 h⁻¹, while R_{eco} was as low as 31.7 to 110.8 mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ at the beginning
33 and the end of growing seasons. Aboveground *S. salsa* plant material
34 comprised 79.1% of total biomass on average, and R_p dominated R_{eco} during
35 inundated periods. It is estimated that 1 gram of soil-emergent *S. salsa* biomass
36 (dry weight) could produce approximately 1.41 to 1.46 mg CO₂ per hour during
37 mid-summer. When water level was below the soil surface, soil microbial and
38 belowground root respiration (R_{s+r}) was exponentially correlated with air
39 temperature. Based on our observation, an empirical model was developed to
40 estimate system respiration of the *S. salsa* marsh in the Liaohe River Delta,
41 Northeast China. This model can be applied for regional carbon budget
42 estimation purposes from *S. salsa* wetlands throughout Northeast China.

43

44 Keywords:

45 Coastal wetland, soil respiration, plant respiration, field observation,
46 carbon cycling, empirical modelling



47 1. Introduction

48 Coastal wetlands are known to sequester carbon at high rates, and many
49 are regulated by salinity to emit less methane than inland wetlands due to the
50 greater availability of sulfate (Chmura et al., 2003; Holm et al., 2016; Lu et al.,
51 2016). Ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) is believed to be the dominant gaseous
52 carbon emissions process from coastal wetlands, weakening the carbon sink
53 function of coastal wetlands that have the highest effluxes of CO_2 (Nicholls,
54 2004; Smith et al., 1983). R_{eco} includes sources of CO_2 both routed through or
55 originating from emergent plant structures (R_p) and those sources associated
56 with soil microbial and belowground root respiration (R_{s+r}). R_p and R_{s+r} should
57 be quantified separately because each process has its unique seasonal pattern
58 and response to environmental factors (Li et al., 2010). Considering that CO_2
59 generated by plant and microbial respiration is much more than CO_2 generated
60 from anthropogenic activities (Raich et al., 2010), these fluxes from natural and
61 managed wetlands are inherently important in regulating the climate cycle in
62 providing positive feedbacks (i.e., greater CO_2 emissions; greater atmospheric
63 warming) or negative feedbacks (i.e., reduced CO_2 emissions; less atmospheric
64 warming) (Cox et al., 2000; Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Melillo et al., 2002;
65 Mitsch et al., 2008). Coastal wetlands have been the focus of much attention
66 since large amounts of carbon can be stored in tidal (known as “blue carbon”)
67 and in inland non-tidal coastal wetlands, but with a notable reduction in net
68 gaseous CO_2 (and CH_4) emissions when managed properly (Chen et al., 2016;
69 Jankowski et al., 2017; Rodríguez et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016).

70 R_{eco} in coastal wetlands is influenced by many environmental factors
71 including soil and air temperature (Arora et al., 2016; Juszczak et al., 2013),
72 soil properties (Hassink, 1992), salinity (Neubauer et al., 2013), plant type (Xu
73 et al., 2014), root biomass (Krauss et al., 2012), and hydrologic conditions
74 (Guan et al., 2011). Environmental factors change greatly with time, which



75 create bias on evaluating R_{eco} if the full range of changing environmental
76 conditions is not included in determinations (Marínmuñiz et al., 2015; White et
77 al., 2014). In addition, R_p and soil microbial respiration have different responses
78 to temperature and water level change (Dawson and Tu, 2009; Hall and
79 Hopkins, 2015; Wu et al., 2017).

80 Our lack of understanding about CO₂ emissions from a wide range of
81 environments and environmental conditions results in difficulties in linking
82 response to key factors (Wolkovich et al., 2014), yet such linkages are critical
83 for modeling and determine area-scaled fluxes of use at regional and national
84 levels. Statistical analyses are useful in identifying interactions and the
85 importance of individual environmental factors in controlling R_{eco} , but such
86 information is often more locally relevant than globally and there has been
87 decidedly less quantification of larger-scale influence (Iwata et al., 2015; Song
88 et al., 2015). Modelling is an effective way to understand and evaluate CO₂
89 exchange between ecosystems and the atmosphere (Giltrap et al., 2010;
90 Kandel et al., 2013), given that empirical assessment often misses extreme
91 environmental conditions. By simulating biogeochemical activities, process-
92 based models are capable of interpreting material and energy flow from one
93 pool to another (Giltrap et al., 2010; Metzger et al., 2015; St-Hilaire et al., 2010).
94 However, as more processes are considered through iterative research, the
95 number of parameters of relevance to modelling can increase, which makes
96 models more complicated and more difficult to apply across scales (Wang and
97 Chen, 2012). Empirical models are easier to deploy for evaluating respiration
98 in the same ecosystem because driving variables are connected to
99 observations via mathematical formulas (Yuste et al., 2005). Biological
100 processes are not typically fully integrated within models, rather statistical
101 relationships are used to imply cause and effect, leading to imperfect model
102 structure and larger uncertainty in model projections (Larocque et al., 2008).



103 Partitioning in-situ R_{eco} into different components and determining the
104 variables controlling each component is challenging but important (Li et al.,
105 2010). For this approach, traditional chamber methods have advantages as flux
106 measurements are direct and linked over small spatial scales to environmental
107 measurements (Dyukarev, 2017; Pumpanen et al., 2004). This approach does
108 abandon a degree of reality accomplished through eddy covariance methods
109 (Aubinet et al., 2012; Nicolini et al., 2018). However, models can be applied
110 effectively to develop chamber-based assessments at larger scales.

111 *Suaeda salsa* Pall is a pioneer herbaceous species of tidal marshes and is
112 very tolerant to salinity (Baoshan et al., 2008; Guan et al., 2011). It naturally
113 grows on highly saline soil including intertidal zones of Europe and East Asia
114 as well as saline and alkaline soils of beaches and lakeshores in northern China.
115 The growing season R_{eco} rate of *S. salsa* wetlands in the Liaohe River Delta
116 and the Yellow River Delta averaged 335 to 402 mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ (Ye et al., 2016)
117 and approximately 193 mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ (Chen et al., 2016), respectively. From
118 these studies, temperature is believed the dominant controlling factor of R_{eco} ,
119 and several exponential correlations between temperature and R_{eco} have been
120 developed (Xie et al., 2014). However, water level also determines soil aerobic
121 versus anaerobic condition by enhancing or restricting oxygen availability,
122 respectively, and plant biomass also contributes to R_{eco} through emergent plant
123 structures and roots embedded below the soil surface (Olsson et al., 2015).
124 Due to a mix of temporal and spatial characteristics of plant distributions and
125 environmental factors in *S. salsa* wetlands across their geographic range,
126 observing and measuring R_{eco} of *S. salsa* marshes across this range would be
127 cost-prohibitive (Sánchez-Cañete et al., 2017).

128 To gain a better understanding of gaseous carbon loss from a coastal
129 wetland covered by *S. salsa* and to evaluate the contributions of plant and soil
130 fluxes to R_{eco} , a multi-year in-situ experiment based on the chamber method

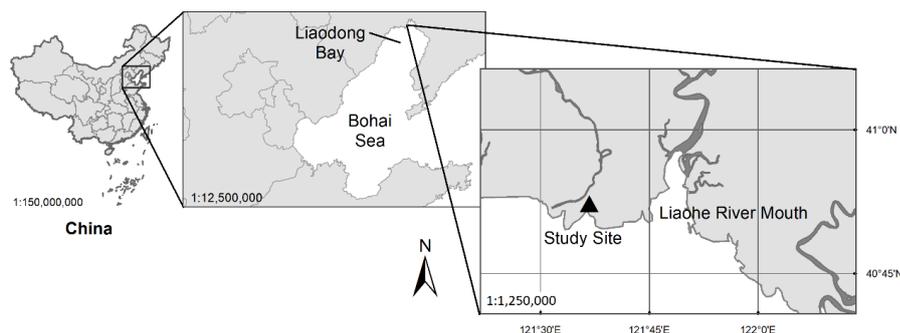


131 was carried out during the growing seasons of 2102, 2013, and 2014. We
132 quantify the influence of temperature, biomass, and water table on ecosystem
133 respiration, as past studies, but we also develop a rapid assessment method
134 (ecosystem model) to estimate system-scale R_{eco} in *S. salsa* marshes of the
135 Liaohe River delta to aid future efforts to scale beyond where experimental
136 measurements are taken, and over potentially different environmental
137 conditions projected for the future. This rapid evaluation model also has
138 potential application in regional and national carbon budget estimation for *S.*
139 *salsa* wetlands with lower costs than direct empirical assessment.

140 2. Materials and methods

141 2.1. Study area

142 This study was conducted in the Liaohe Delta (121°25'–123°31' E, 40°39'–
143 41°27' N) of Northeast China (Figure 1). Natural wetlands in the Liaohe Delta
144 cover about 2610 km², which account for about 69% of the delta area (Ji et al.,
145 2009). In addition, rice agriculture (non-natural wetlands) comprises
146 approximately 3287 km², and is spread inside and outside of the Liaohe Delta
147 area proper. The Liaohe Delta is located in the temperate continental monsoon
148 zone with mean air temperature of 8.3 °C, and a mean annual precipitation of
149 612 mm with most rain falling in summer. The mean annual evaporation rate is
150 1705 mm, and the mean annual sunshine duration is around 2769 h (Luo et al.,
151 2003). The average tidal range in the area is 2.7 m; tides are semi-diurnal. The
152 Liaohe Delta comprise what is believed to be the largest reed (*Phragmites*
153 *australis* Cav. Trin ex Steud) wetland in the world with a total area of
154 approximately 800 km² (Brix et al., 2014). A field study site was built 16 km west
155 of the Liaohe River mouth in a newly restored wetland on a former fallow tidal
156 flat colonized recently by *S. salsa*. *Suaeda salsa* wetlands comprise only 32
157 km² in the Liaohe River delta, but provide seasonal color to the region during
158 flowering that draws tourists from all over China.



159

160 Figure 1 The location of the study site in the Liaohe Delta, Northeast China

161 The soil on the study sites is a silty clay loam with a sand, silt and clay
162 content of 20%, 65% and 15%, respectively, and a soil bulk density of
163 approximately 1.3 g cm^{-3} . The soil total and organic carbon content are low,
164 averaging 9.5 g kg^{-1} and 6.4 g kg^{-1} , respectively, and total nitrogen content is
165 1.1 g kg^{-1} . Soil pH is 7.3 ± 0.4 (std. err.) and soil pore water salinity is $17 \pm 2\%$.

166 2.2. CO_2 flux measurements

167 The CO_2 fluxes were measured using a field-portable infrared gas analyzer
168 (Li-8100A, LI-COR Biosciences, Inc., Lincoln, NE, U.S.A.) with a commercial
169 survey chamber (8100-103). CO_2 measuring range was 0 to 3000 ppm with
170 errors less than 1.5 %. Circular survey collars (10 cm tall by 20 cm diameter)
171 were inserted 3 to 5 cm into the soil 2 hours before measurement began to limit
172 the influences of recent disturbance. The survey collar measured an area of
173 318 cm^2 . The total volume of the flux chamber was calculated as the sum of the
174 volume of the commercial survey chamber system ($\sim 4843 \text{ cm}^3$) plus the volume
175 inside the collar factoring insertion depth of each collar individually. CO_2
176 concentrations were recorded at 1 Hz during 90 s measurement periods,
177 measurements were replicated twice, and values were averaged to ensure data
178 reproducibility (Mukhopadhyay and Maiti, 2014). Prior to each field trip, the
179 infrared gas analyzer was factory calibrated and checked for zero drift before
180 measurements using CO_2 -free nitrogen gas (Dyukarev, 2017).



181 The CO₂ fluxes (F , mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) were calculated according to the
182 following equation:

$$183 \quad F = \frac{dc}{dt} \frac{M}{V_0} \frac{P}{P_0} \frac{T_0}{T} \frac{V}{S}$$

184 Where dc/dt (mol h⁻¹) is the slope of the linear regression line for CO₂
185 concentration over time; M (mg mol⁻¹) is the molecular mass of CO₂; P (in
186 Pascals) is the barometric pressure; T (in Kelvin) is the absolute temperature
187 during sampling; V (in Liters) is the total volume of the enclosure measuring
188 space; S (in m²) is the cover area of the measuring plot. V_0 (22.4 L/mol), T_0
189 (273.15 K) and P_0 (101.3 kPa) are the gas mole volume, absolute air
190 temperature, and atmospheric pressure under standard condition, respectively
191 (Song et al., 2009).

192 2.3. Experimental design

193 Fluxes of CO₂ were measured approximately monthly during the growing
194 seasons of 2012, 2013, and 2014 (figure 2), for a total of 15 months of
195 measurements over the three years. Soils of Liaohe Delta wetlands are frozen
196 to depths of 15 cm during the months of December to March (Ye et al., 2016).
197 Six plots were established, and all had different amounts of vegetation
198 coverage in each observation month. On each plot, three measuring
199 procedures were included, as follows:

200 (1) Measurement of the entire ecosystem CO₂ flux by including all
201 vegetation and soil area under that vegetation, " R_{eco} ";

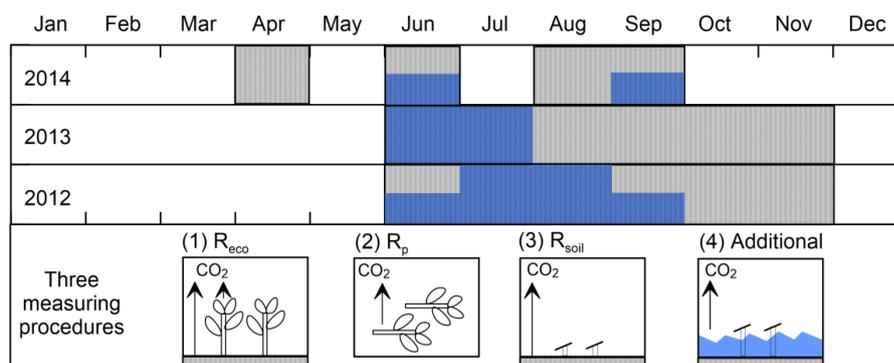
202 (2) Measurement of plant material after cutting and removing all *S. salsa*
203 at 1 to 2 cm above soil surface, R_p . We placed all *S. salsa* into a sealed and
204 dark survey collar immediately after harvest (within 2 minutes) and measured
205 CO₂ flux from the still physiologically active plants.

206 (3) Measurement of CO₂ flux within the survey chamber but without
207 standing plants, which indicates soil microbial respiration plus respiration of
208 roots underlying those soils, R_{s+r} . R_{s+r} was taken when soils were not inundated.



209 Additional measurements were taken when soils were inundated, and those
 210 measurements used to partition CO₂ exchange between the water surface and
 211 the atmosphere at those times.

212 All harvested *S. salsa* plant material was dried to a constant mass at 65 °C
 213 in a convection oven for a measure of aboveground biomass (AGB). A 15 cm
 214 deep surface soil sample was taken within each survey collar after
 215 measurements were completed during each sampling period. Living roots of *S.*
 216 *salsa* were collected, separated from the soil column and dried in an oven at
 217 65°C to constant mass for a measure of belowground biomass (BGB).



218
 219 Figure 2 The observing period and procedures. The observation periods from 2012
 220 to 2014 was marked as filled grey patches on the top subplot. Vertical blue patches
 221 indicated the relative water level of a corresponding observation period. Months with
 222 continuous blue rectangles refer to inundation of all six plots; half covered refer to
 223 inundation of only some of the plots; and no blue bar equates to no inundation. The
 224 bottom subplot displays a visual depiction of procedures. R_{eco} , R_{s+r} , and R_p were
 225 measured in the corresponding sequence.

226

227 2.4. Statistical analysis and modeling

228 All monthly data are presented as means among plots with corresponding
 229 standard errors among plots. Correlation analyses were conducted to examine
 230 the relationships between the fluxes and the measured environmental variables.



231 In all tests, the differences were considered significant at $p < 0.05$. Least square
232 curve fitting was applied to quantify the influence of environmental factors. An
233 empirical model was developed using Spyder 3.2.4 on Python 3.6 platform
234 based on the field observations of respiration (R_{eco}) in various treatments and
235 their corresponding air temperature, plant biomass, and inundation regime.

236 3. Results and discussions

237 3.1. Ecosystem respiration

238 Overall, soil and root respiration (R_{s+r}) and plant respiration (R_p)
239 contributed 16% and 84%, respectively, to the total ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}).
240 However, the relative contributions of R_{s+r} and R_p varied both during the season
241 and between seasons (Figure 3).

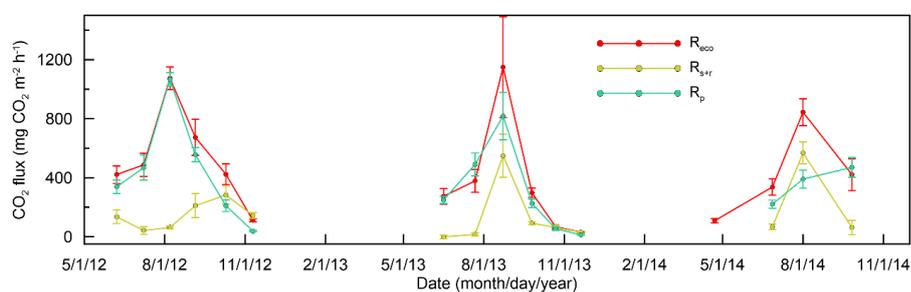
242 R_{eco} varied significantly over the growing season with peak values in
243 August when the weather was hot (Figure 3). The seasonal pattern was nearly
244 identical between years, although peak R_{eco} varied between 845 mg CO₂ m⁻²
245 h⁻¹ in 2014 and 1150 mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ in 2013. During mid-summer (July and
246 August) there was great spatial variation in R_{eco} (as indicated by relatively large
247 variation among measurements) due to the variations in plant biomass within
248 the collars and also differences in water table depth at the time of specific
249 measurements.

250 R_{s+r} generally varied in concert with R_{eco} with highest rates in July-August,
251 except in 2012 where rates were low (< 100 mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) in July and August.
252 This corresponds to a period where the soil surface in all six measuring plots
253 was inundated, i.e. had standing water on the soil surface. This was also the
254 case in June-July in 2013 which also had very low R_{s+r} rates. The inundation
255 probably reduces R_{s+r} because of the prevailing anoxic conditions in the soil
256 which is likely to occur as a consequence of the inundation. However, emission
257 of CO₂ to the atmosphere through the water surface might also be reduced
258 because CO₂ is highly soluble in water and enters into an equilibrium with the



259 bicarbonate buffer system (Berglund and Berglund, 2011), with is especially
 260 prominent in saline water (i.e., the porewater of our sites was ~50% of full-
 261 strength seawater). The highest soil respiration rates ($>400 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$) were
 262 recorded in August of 2013 and 2014 where the water table was below the soil
 263 surface and temperatures were high.

264 R_p generally peaked in August where temperatures were high and where
 265 the plant biomass were maximal, except in 2014 where R_p was highest in
 266 September. R_p generally varied in concert with R_{eco} and often, particularly
 267 during inundated periods, contributed to most of the ecosystem respiration
 268 (approximately 93 %), while both R_{s+r} and R_p contribute to R_{eco} when the water
 269 table is below the soil surface (approximately 38 % R_{s+r} and 62 % R_p). R_{eco} from
 270 additional *S. salsa* wetlands in the Liaohe Delta was in the range of what we
 271 found, and also peaked in June to August, depending on the year (Ye et al.,
 272 2016), corresponding strongly to peak seasonal aboveground biomass as well.
 273 Our study confirms that all components of R_{eco} follow suit, with R_{s+r} and R_p
 274 peaking concomitant with R_{eco} in most instances (figure 3), tracking plant growth.



275

276 Figure 3. Seasonal variation in ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}), soil respiration (R_{s+r}),
 277 and plant respiration (R_p) during the growing seasons of 2012-2014. . Errorbars are
 278 standard error of the mean values.

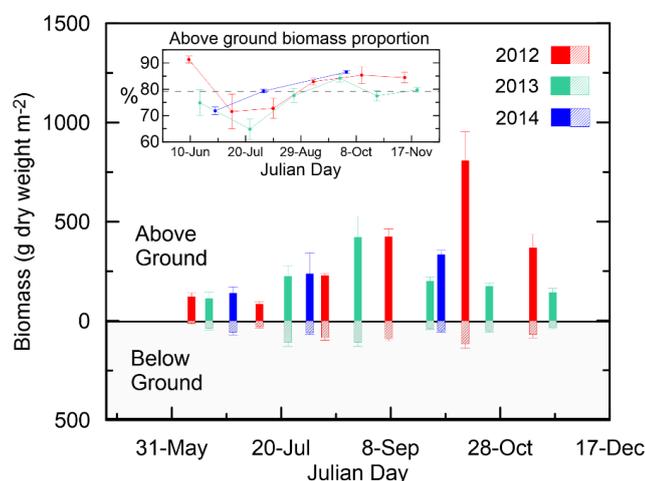
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280 3.2. Plant biomass

281 *Suaeda salsa* is an annual herb that germinates and starts to grow in late



282 April. The plants then follow the normal seasonal vegetation growth cycle for
283 cold temperate regions, with flowering beginning in July and maturation of
284 seeds occurring around late September (Mori et al., 2010). In the current study,
285 the biomass production of *S. salsa* largely followed this pattern reaching a total
286 biomass of between 530 and 930 g dry mass m⁻² depending on year (Fig. 4).
287 Overall, the aboveground biomass constituted about 79% of the total biomass
288 (i.e., aboveground plus belowground), but the proportion varied during the
289 growing season. In the spring and early summer, the roots contributed a larger
290 proportion (25% to 35%) of the total biomass whereas in the late summer and
291 autumn the roots only constitute 15% to 20% of the total biomass. This shows
292 that the roots of *S. salsa* develop prior to peak above ground biomass, and are
293 thus slightly out of phase, suggesting an important role for early growing season
294 root growth initiation which also influences R_{eco} . After mid-September,
295 aboveground biomass remains stable probably because roots at this stage are
296 now able to support the biomass of the entire plant. Mao et al. (2011) reported
297 that the root covers 8%~13% of total *Suaeda salsa* biomass in the Yellow River
298 Delta, which was similar to our results.



299

300 Figure 4 Seasonal variation of *S. Salsa* biomass during three growing seasons. Error

301 bars indicates the standard error at each sampling period (n=6). The inserted graph

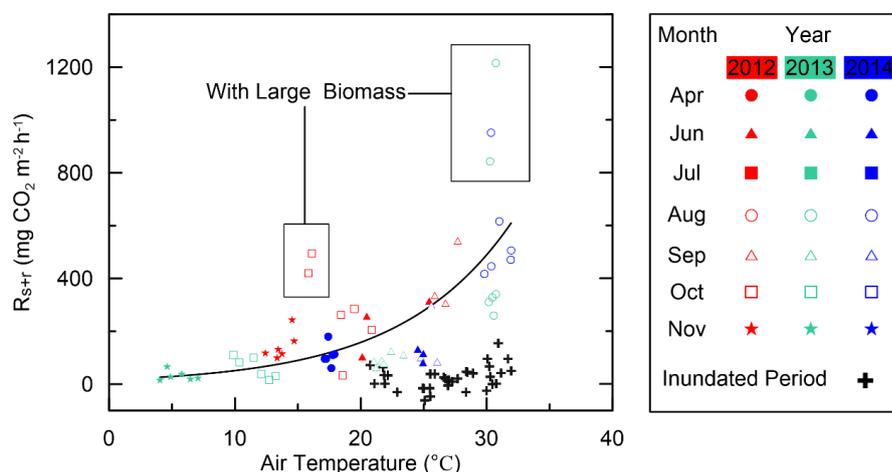


302 presents the proportion of aboveground biomass (AGB) of total biomass. The dashed line
 303 indicates the overall average AGB proportion.

304 3.3. Influencing environmental factors on R_{s+r} and R_p

305 Air temperature varied between 3°C and 33°C during the measuring period.

306 R_{s+r} rates were always low when the air temperature was below 18 °C (Fig. 5),
 307 which is consistent with the findings of Ye et al. (2016). When the low fluxes
 308 measured during inundated periods were excluded, we found that R_{s+r} was
 309 exponentially correlated with air temperature on a seasonal scale, which has
 310 also been reported in several other studies (Bäckstrand et al., 2010; Xie et al.,
 311 2014). If we did not remove fluxes of R_{s+r} that were measured during inundated
 312 periods, the correlation would be significantly weakened (figure 5), suggesting
 313 a strong statistical interaction between air temperature and inundation that
 314 needs to be considered (Krauss et al., 2012). R_{eco} also correlated weakly with
 315 air temperature probably because the combined effects of soil temperature,
 316 water table, and plant biomass on R_{eco} were not considered (Flanagan et al.,
 317 2002; Reth et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2016). Observations from measuring plots
 318 with large biomasses were significantly higher than the exponentially predicted
 319 values, indicating that roots in the soils probably contributed significantly to R_{s+r} .



320

321

Figure 5 The relationship between the observed soil respiration (R_{s+r}) rates and air



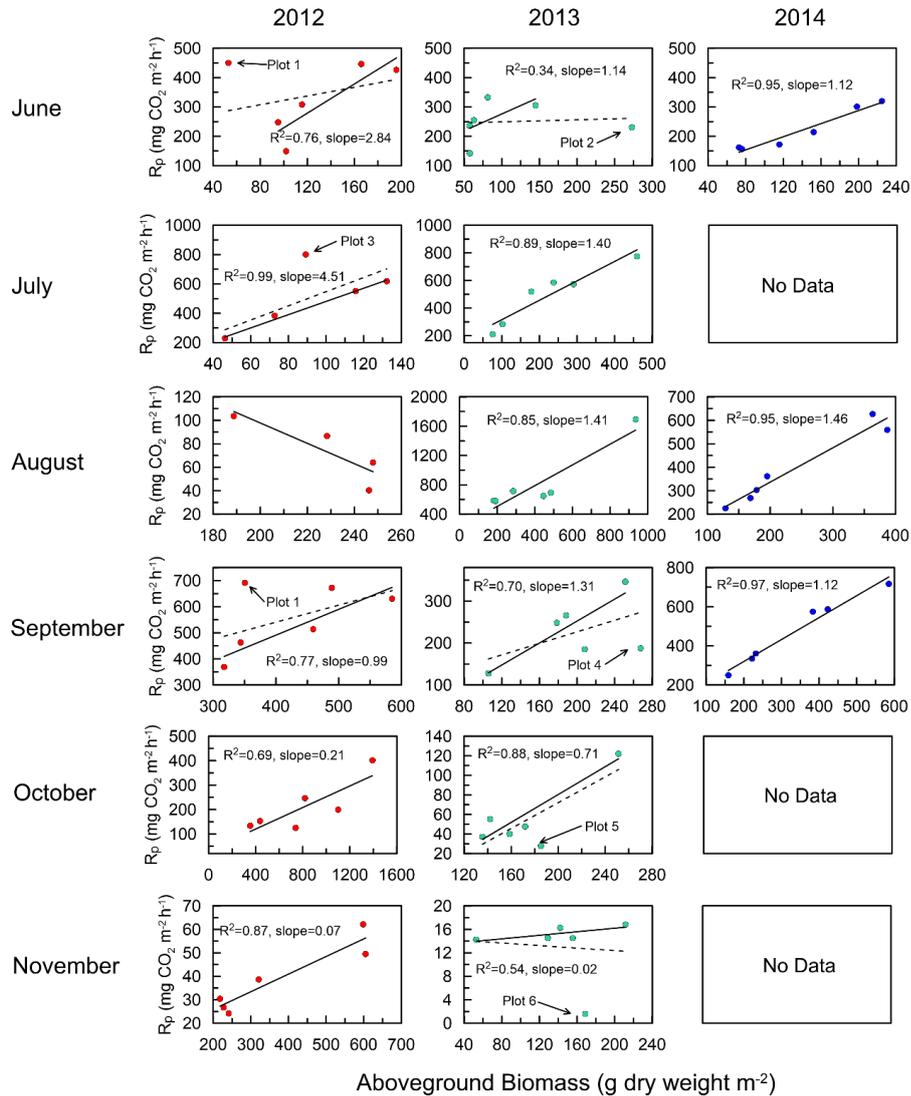
322 temperatures. The fluxes are grouped by month. The fluxes during inundated periods are
323 plotted separately using different marks (included in the correlation).

324 During inundated periods, R_{s+r} rates were low because water blocked both
325 oxygen and CO₂ transport (Yang et al., 2014). Water can both absorb or emit
326 CO₂ depending on the HCO₃⁻/CO₃²⁻ balance in surface water and the dissolve
327 balance of CO₂ between surface water and the atmosphere (Wanninkhof and
328 Knox, 2003). *Suaeda salsa* has very limited aerenchyma in its tissue, and no
329 plant-mediated gas transport has been found in this species (Brix et al., 1996).
330 Besides, compared to the rates of R_{s+r} and R_p , the rates of gas exchange
331 between surface water and the atmosphere is low. Our observations suggest
332 that the main effect of inundation to the *S. salsa* marsh respiration is blocking
333 the gas transport from the soil to the atmosphere. Hence, the R_{s+r} rate is very
334 sensitive to water level variation just around the soil surface. This phenomenon
335 was also reported in cool temperate bog located in Mer Bleue, Canada (Lafleur
336 et al., 2005; Pugh et al., 2017).

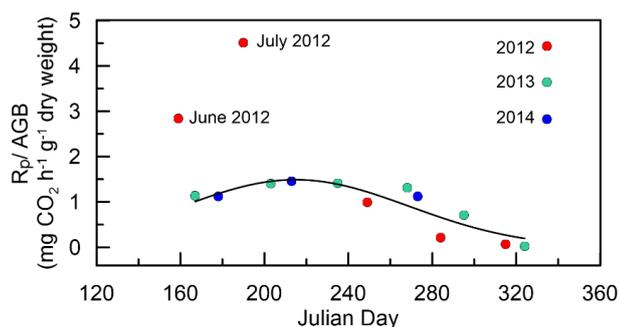
337 Plants are reported to account for 35% to 90% of the total ecosystem
338 respiration in wetlands (Johnson et al., 2000), and are therefore believed to be
339 the dominant influencing factor for the spatial variation observed in R_{eco} (Han
340 et al., 2007). In the Yellow River delta, Han et al. (2014) did not find a significant
341 relationship between R_{eco} and biomass during the growing season in a *S. salsa*
342 wetland. This may be because they did not partition R_p , as we did here. As can
343 be seen in figure 3, R_p was close to R_{eco} during inundated periods, which shows
344 that the *S. salsa* plants contributed the most to the R_{eco} . In all periods except
345 August 2012, we observed a significant linear correlation between AGB and R_p
346 (figure 6). To demonstrate how the AGB influences R_p , the slope of the linear
347 curves versus Julian days are shown in figure 7. The slope of the regression
348 line varies over a growing season, and is < 0.1 mg CO₂ per g dry mass per hour
349 in October and November, probably because of plant senescence in the autumn.



350 The slopes obtained for 2013 and 2014 are comparable and the difference is
351 less than 5% in June and August. In June and July 2012, the slopes of R_p to
352 AGB are more than twice as high as the corresponding slopes of 2013 and
353 2014. As the study site was established in 2012, it is possible that the
354 biochemical conditions in the soil, including nutrient and organic carbon
355 concentrations, were disturbed slightly. The soil might have contained more
356 nutrients the first year, which might have led to high plant activity and
357 corresponding high respiration rates. Disregarding the larger slopes in 2012,
358 the remaining points follow a unimodal distribution over time. This can be
359 mathematically described by a Gaussian equation relating R_p /AGB over Julian
360 day (figure 7). Some studies prefer to use the air or soil temperature as the
361 proxy to evaluate seasonal parameters, while the accumulated temperature
362 has been shown to be better for evaluations of plant phenology (Cannell and
363 Smith, 1983). Since we did not measure meteorological variables on site
364 continuously over annual cycles, we are still able to predict respiration
365 parameters versus *S. salsa* plant biomass because of the significance of
366 seasonal time represented by Julian day as a proxy.



367 Aboveground Biomass (g dry weight m^{-2})
 368 Figure 6 The relationship between plant respiration rate (R_p) and aboveground
 369 biomass in each month during the three growing seasons. The linear correlation was
 370 tested within each observation, the solid lines indicate the correlation after 'outliers' are
 371 removed, and the dashed line indicate the linear correlation with all data points included.



372

373 Figure 7 The seasonal variation of dry mass specific plant respiration rate (R_p/AGB).

374 The rate of June and July of 2012 are significantly higher than the other values, and are

375 thus not included in the seasonal variation estimation curve.

376 3.4. Modelling of components of ecosystem CO₂ fluxes377 As is shown in Equation 1, R_{eco} is calculated as the sum of R_p and R_{s+r} .

378
$$R_{eco} = R_{s+r} + R_p \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

379 3.4.1. Soil and root respiration

380 R_{s+r} was determined by water level and air temperature, which was

381
$$R_{s+r} = k_{WT} \times f(T) \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

382
$$k_{WT} = \frac{e^{-ah}}{1+e^{-ah}} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

383
$$f(T) = F_0 \times e^{bT} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

384 Where k_{WT} represents the influence factor of water table, and $f(T)$ indicates385 the influence of air temperature (T in °C) on R_{s+r} (figure 9). Equation 3 displays386 the influence of water level on k_{WT} , with the parameter, a , a constant, indicating387 the changing rate of water level (h in cm) relative to the soil surface on our study388 sites. Here, a was determined to be 4.6, indicating that water level of 1cm could

389 block completely block the soil respiration, while -1 cm water level could provide

390 full R_{s+r} capacities (figure 10). Equation 4 indicates the relationship between391 air temperature and R_{s+r} during non-inundated periods, which is represented by392 an exponential curve (figure 5). Parameter b describes the temperature393 sensitivity of R_{s+r} and F_0 (in mg CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) was determined by R_{s+r} at 0 °C.



394 3.4.2. Plant respiration

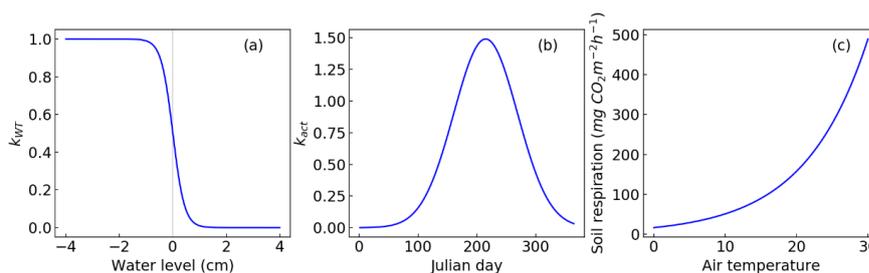
395 R_p in *S. salsa* wetlands can be determined by

$$396 R_p = m_p \times k_{act} \quad \text{Equation 5}$$

397 where m_p (g dry weight m^{-2}) is the biomass of *S. salsa* and k_{act} was the
 398 amount of CO_2 that 1 gram plant material can produce in 1 hour based on our
 399 study, and is used here to indicate the influence that seasonal plant activity has
 400 on R_p .

$$401 k_{act} = k_{amax} \times e^{-\left(\frac{D-D_m}{D_s}\right)^2} \quad \text{Equation 6}$$

402 k_{act} has a seasonal signature as well, related to environmental variables
 403 such as air temperature; however, air temperatures alone were not as useful in
 404 predicting R_p as k_{act} . A gaussian equation driving by Julian day was used to
 405 evaluate the seasonal and annual variation in k_{act} . According to our observation
 406 and analysis, the best fit parameters of k_{amax} , D_m , and D_s was 1.49, 214.83, and
 407 76.63, respectively (figure 7, figure 8b).

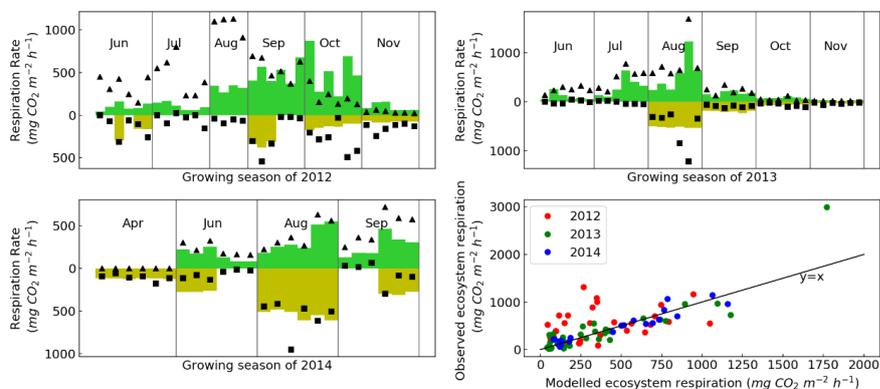


408 Figure 8 Key parameters and the driving variables. (a): Parameter k_{WT} changes driven by
 409 water level change near soil surface; (b): Seasonal variation of k_{act} driven by Julian day of
 410 a year; (c): Soil respiration under different air temperatures.

412 As is shown in figure 9, R_{eco} in 2012 was significantly underestimated
 413 because plant activity in 2012 was higher than the other two years (figure 4).
 414 The estimated R_{s+r} rate includes living root respiration as well as soil organic
 415 matter respiration (microbial) according to our model, if we assume the living
 416 roots respire as fast as the aboveground parts. With the record of belowground
 417 biomass and the parameter k_{act} , the contribution of each component can be

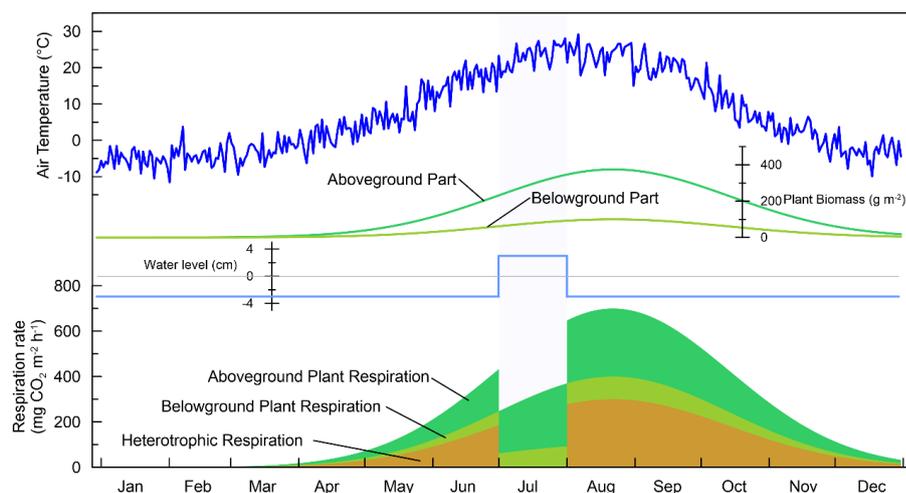


418 estimated. On our study sites, R_{s+r} had an average contribution of 23.9% to total
419 ecosystem respiration during the entire growing season. Knowing that the
420 modelled aboveground R_p covers an average of 55.2% of R_{eco} , plant biomass
421 determines the spatial variation in R_{eco} , and is therefore suggestive that our
422 model is widely applicable to other cold temperate *S. salsa* wetlands through
423 plant biomass, water table depth, and air temperature modeling alone. As
424 Moore and Dalva (1993) reported, the effects of climatic change on gas flux
425 from peatlands are more likely to be associated with changes in the water table
426 than with changes in thermal regime. The schematic respiration model derived
427 from our results follow suit (figure 10).



428
429 Figure 9 The observed respiration and modelled respiration. The triangle marks
430 represent observed R_p while the square marks represent observed R_{s+r} . The green and
431 tan bars indicate the modelled R_p and R_{s+r} , respectively. The modelled and observed
432 R_{eco} of 2012, 2013 and 2014 are colored red, green and blue, respectively.

433



434

435

Figure 10 Schematic seasonal variation of ecosystem respiration and

436

environmental factors in *S. salsa* marsh of the Liaohe River delta. Water level in July is

437

manully set above soil surface.

438

More complicated environmental variables (such as water table and

439 temperature) on plant activity, processes of gas diffusion and water $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{CO}_3^{2-}$

440 balance are not included in this model due to the limitation of our field

441 observation. Besides, for only one dataset, comparing the observed data and

442 modelled data here makes less sense. More observations or data from other *S.*

443 *salsa* wetlands are needed to test this model on a larger scale. However, with

444 easily obtained environmental variables (AGB, air temperature, and water

445 regime), R_{eco} (and by extension R_p and R_{s+r}) rate can be estimated on a large

446 scale, making assessments of area-scaled CO_2 emissions from this wetland

447 type, such as conducted by Ye et al. (2016), more cost-effective in the future.

448 This model provides a regional rapid assessment protocol for R_{eco} within *S.*

449 *salsa* marshes; Necessary environmental variables can even be obtained

450 through remote sensing.

451

4. Conclusions

452

Ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) of a *S. salsa* wetland in the Liaohe Rive Delta,

453 China, was observed to range from -61 to $2995 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, with significant



454 seasonal variation. Flux partitioning confirmed that R_{eco} was correlated with
455 plant biomass, water regime, and air temperature. Plant biomass and plant
456 activity controlled plant respiration, and further dominated the R_{eco} during
457 inundated period. Both soil and plant contributed to R_{eco} when water level was
458 below soil surface. Soil and root respiration is exponentially correlated with air
459 temperature with a sensitivity of $0.113\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$. Besides, *S. salsa* could produce as
460 much as 1.41 to $1.46\text{ mg CO}_2\text{ g}^{-1}$ dry weight h^{-1} during mid-summer. Air
461 temperature, plant biomass, and hydrological regime are essential to estimate
462 R_{eco} using our proposed rapid assessment method. With regional data
463 calculated from remote sensing, the method can be used to evaluate R_{eco} of *S.*
464 *salsa* marshes on a large scale in the Liaohe River Delta, and potentially in
465 other similar cold temperate wetland types.

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