



1 **Large-scale predictions of saltmarsh carbon stock based on simple observations of plant**  
2 **community and soil type.**

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13 **Abstract.**

14 Carbon stored in coastal wetland ecosystems is of global relevance to climate regulation.

15 Broad-scale inventories of this 'blue' carbon store are currently lacking and labour intensive.

16 Sampling 23 salt marshes in the United Kingdom, we developed a Saltmarsh Carbon Stock

17 Predictor (SCSP) with the capacity to predict up to 44% of spatial variation in soil organic

18 carbon (SOC) from simple observations of plant community and soil type. Classification of

19 soils into two types (sandy or not-sandy) explained 32% of variation in SOC. Plant community

20 type (5 vegetation classes) explained 37% of variation. Combined information on soil and

21 plant community types explained 44% of variation in SOC. GIS maps of SOC were produced

22 for all salt marshes in Wales (~4000 hectares), using existing soil maps and governmental

23 vegetation data, demonstrating the application of the SCSP for large-scale predictions of blue

24 carbon stores and the use of plant community traits for predicting ecosystem services.

25



26 **1 Introduction**

27 Implementation of environmental policy and management via ‘the ecosystem approach’  
28 requires a broad-scale knowledge of the distribution of natural stocks and ecosystem services  
29 (McKenzie et al., 2014; Meiner et al., 2013; TEEB, 2010; UK National Ecosystem Assessment,  
30 2014). Spatial information is often patchy and for some ecosystem stocks and services it is  
31 almost entirely lacking. The ‘predictive tool’ approach, based on mathematical modelling, was  
32 traditionally used in population and resource distributional mapping (Cuddington et al.,  
33 2013), and has recently been applied to the predictive mapping of ecosystem services  
34 (McHenry et al., 2017). Significant advances have been made in predicting ecosystem service  
35 provision in terrestrial systems, such as agricultural landscapes, freshwater habitats and  
36 forests (Ding and Nunes, 2014; Emmett et al., 2016; Vigerstol and Aukema, 2011). In contrast,  
37 there are few predictive tools for coastal systems which, combined with a shortage of baseline  
38 data for many environmental variables (Robins et al., 2016), means that distributional maps  
39 of ecosystem services and stocks are lacking for global coastlines (Meiner et al., 2013).

40 Coastal wetlands (mangroves, tidal marshes and seagrasses) sequester significant amounts of  
41 ‘blue carbon’, which they retain in long-lived, primarily below-ground, soil organic carbon  
42 (SOC) stores (Howard et al., 2017; Luisetti et al., 2013). Global strategies for integrating blue  
43 carbon storage into greenhouse-gas accounting have been proposed (IPCC, 2014). However,  
44 a global inventory of blue carbon remains a challenge, as empirical observations of SOC stocks  
45 in coastal wetlands are expensive, scarce and unevenly distributed, with few records even for  
46 relatively well-studied areas such as Europe (Beaumont et al., 2014). Ecosystem service maps  
47 for the UK National Ecosystem Assessment (NEA) for Wales, the focal region of the present  
48 study, characterised salt marshes as the lowest category of carbon storage relative to all other



49 terrestrial habitats (Scholefield, 2013). SOC stocks in Welsh salt marshes may be under-  
50 estimated due to incomplete habitat mapping of inter-tidal areas. Rolling out empirical  
51 observations of below-ground SOC stock across large scales of blue carbon systems is not a  
52 practicable and affordable short-term solution to the lag between management ambition and  
53 carbon inventorying. Predictive mapping of carbon stocks holds great promise; it has been  
54 extensively trialled for terrestrial systems (Emmett et al., 2016; Gray et al., 2013; Rossel et al.,  
55 2014), but rarely applied to blue carbon ecosystems (Gress et al., 2017; Meiner et al., 2013).

56 Predictive models of ecosystem services typically use a combination of predictor variables  
57 (Posner et al., 2016). For carbon storage, predictors such as climate, soil type, sedimentary  
58 classification and habitat or land management type are commonly used (Chaplin-Kramer et  
59 al., 2015; Jardine and Siikamäki, 2014; Kelleway et al., 2016). Many ecosystem service models  
60 that include carbon storage predictions are computationally sophisticated, operationally time  
61 consuming and require specialists for their operation and interpretation (Posner et al., 2016),  
62 all of which reduces the scope for their use by landscape managers. Simple predictive tools  
63 that incorporate readily available spatial information with ground-truthed field  
64 measurements might be a more attractive option for use in the field. For example, a recent  
65 study by Emmett et al. (2016) proposed soil pH as a potential metric for ecosystem service  
66 provision, at catchment scale, accounting for 45% of variation in ecosystem service supply.

67 Recent work has explicitly linked SOC stock to both soil properties and plant community  
68 parameters for terrestrial and coastal grasslands (Bai et al., 2016; Manning et al., 2015). In  
69 addition, these SOC stores are further mediated by climatic factors (e.g. precipitation), and  
70 land-use management (e.g. livestock grazing intensity) (Ford et al., 2012; Tanentzap and  
71 Coomes, 2012; Yang et al., 2010). Classification of soils by texture can be useful for quantifying



72 soil organic matter (SOM) content and therefore indicating SOC stock (O'Brien et al., 2015).  
73 In particular, a strong positive correlation between clay content and SOC stock is apparent  
74 due to the adsorption of organics to clay particles (Arrouays et al., 2006; Hassink, 1997; Oades,  
75 1988). The composition of the plant community, presence of dominant species and plant  
76 diversity largely determine root properties (e.g. biomass, turnover and exudates), which  
77 further influence SOM content and SOC stock (De Deyn et al., 2008; Ford et al., 2016). Species-  
78 rich plant communities are also often functionally diverse, with differing root strategies  
79 leading to enhanced root biomass (Loreau et al., 2001) and consequent impacts on SOC stock  
80 (Jones and Donnelly, 2004). Moreover, particular life history strategies or plant traits can also  
81 be associated with enhanced carbon capture and storage, for example fast growth rates or  
82 the production of recalcitrant litter that is slow to break down (Yapp et al., 2010).

83 The ability to easily and quickly predict saltmarsh SOC stock from plant community  
84 assemblages and / or soil type would provide the potential to update the current inventory  
85 of blue carbon on a regional, biogeographical or national scale. This would be of interest to a  
86 wide group of stake-holders including academics, the IPCC, the Blue Carbon Initiative  
87 (<http://thebluecarboninitiative.org/>) and governmental / non-governmental land managers.  
88 Here we present a range of predictive models for SOC stock based on plant (vegetation type,  
89 class, species richness, root biomass) and soil (simplified type or texture category) parameters  
90 measured across 23 salt marshes in Wales, UK. In addition, we used a subset of these models  
91 to create a novel tool for practitioners – the Saltmarsh Carbon Stock Predictor (SCSP) - for  
92 predicting and mapping the SOC stock of Welsh salt marshes  
93 (<https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-tool/>); alongside a simplified version designed  
94 for use by the general public - the Saltmarsh App (<https://www.saltmarshapp.com/>).



95 **2 Materials and methods**

96 2.1. Site selection

97 Twenty-three saltmarsh sites were sampled for vegetation and soil properties in July 2015: 10  
98 in north or mid Wales and 13 in south Wales, UK (Fig.1) representing a range of marsh  
99 typologies. The Severn estuary in the south-east was excluded due to nesting bird restrictions.  
100 We used the British National Vegetation Classification (NVC) scheme to characterise  
101 vegetation communities (Rodwell, 2000). Enabling us to make our ‘quadrat-scale’ results  
102 comparable to existing national NVC maps, thereby allowing estimates of SOC stocks to be  
103 up-scaled across all Welsh marshes (see section 2.5.). Unpublished work also indicated a link  
104 between NVC and SOC in saltmarsh habitats (Kingham, 2013). Four of the most common  
105 vegetation types (= 5 NVC classes) were assessed in this study (Table 1); they were chosen as  
106 they are widespread and common the UK, (Table 1) and present at all study sites according  
107 to governmental (Natural Resources Wales, NRW) NVC maps (e.g. Fig. S1, Supplement). At  
108 each study site, four 1 x 1 m quadrats were sampled per vegetation type (each quadrat ca. 10  
109 metres apart along a transect line). In some specific locations, where extent was limited, only  
110 two quadrats per vegetation type were assessed. Note that the 4 vegetation types equate to  
111 5 NVC classes as the *Juncus maritimus* community is divided into two distinct classes (Table  
112 1).

113 2.2. Plant community and root biomass

114 Above-ground vegetation characteristics were measured within each 1 × 1 m quadrat.  
115 Percentage cover of each plant species was estimated by eye. Plant species richness was  
116 recorded as the number of species present per quadrat. Shannon-Weiner index [S-W index



117 (H')] was calculated as a measure of plant diversity based on species cover. NVC classes  
118 associated with each vegetation type (Table 1) were verified for each quadrat using the  
119 Tablefit v1.1 software (Hill, 2011). Root dry biomass was determined for 0 - 10 cm depth using  
120 a 2.6 cm diameter corer: roots were removed from sediment, washed and then dried at 60°C  
121 for 72 hours. All plant nomenclature followed Stace (2010).

### 122 2.3. Soil characteristics, SOC stock and field texture test

123 Soil characteristics were measured from within each 1 x 1 m quadrat. Soil samples, of ~ 10 g  
124 (fresh mass) from the top 10 cm, were taken from within each quadrat, diluted to a ratio of  
125 1:2.5 by volume with deionised water and measured for electrical conductivity (EC) and pH  
126 (*Jenway 4320* conductivity meter, *Hanna pH209* pH meter). EC was used as a proxy for salinity.  
127 Soil bulk density samples were taken using a stainless-steel ring (3.1 cm height, 7.5 cm  
128 diameter) inserted vertically into the soil (from a depth of 2 cm to 9.5 cm deep) to quantify  
129 the top 10 cm of soil. Samples were dried at 105 °C for 72 hours to assess soil moisture content  
130 and soil bulk density. The dried samples were ground and sub-sampled for loss-on-ignition  
131 analysis (375 °C, 16 h) to estimate SOM content (Ball, 1964). SOC stock was calculated from  
132 bulk density and SOM with SOC content estimated as 55 % of SOM (Emmett et al., 2010).

133 Root-free soil samples (1 per quadrat at 5 cm depth) were classified into 12 soil texture  
134 categories using the British Columbia protocol for estimating soil texture in the field  
135 (<https://www.for.gov.bc.ca/isb/forms/lib/fs238.pdf>) based on graininess, moistness,  
136 stickiness and ability to hold a form without breaking apart when rolled. Soil was also assigned  
137 a simplified soil type of 'Sandy' or 'Non-sandy' (Table 2). These approaches were chosen over  
138 conventional soil grain-size assessment as they facilitate inexpensive, broad-scale  
139 observations where soils can be classified by non-experts in a few minutes in the field.



140 **Table 1.** Saltmarsh vegetation types, associated National Vegetation Classification (NVC) class  
 141 and marsh intertidal position (zone).

Vegetation type	NVC class	Marsh zone
<i>Puccinellia maritima</i> community	SM13	Low / mid
<i>Atriplex portulacoides</i> community	SM14	Mid / high
<i>Juncus gerardii</i> community	SM16	Mid / high
<i>Juncus maritimus</i> community	SM15	Mid / high
“ “ “	SM18	Mid / high

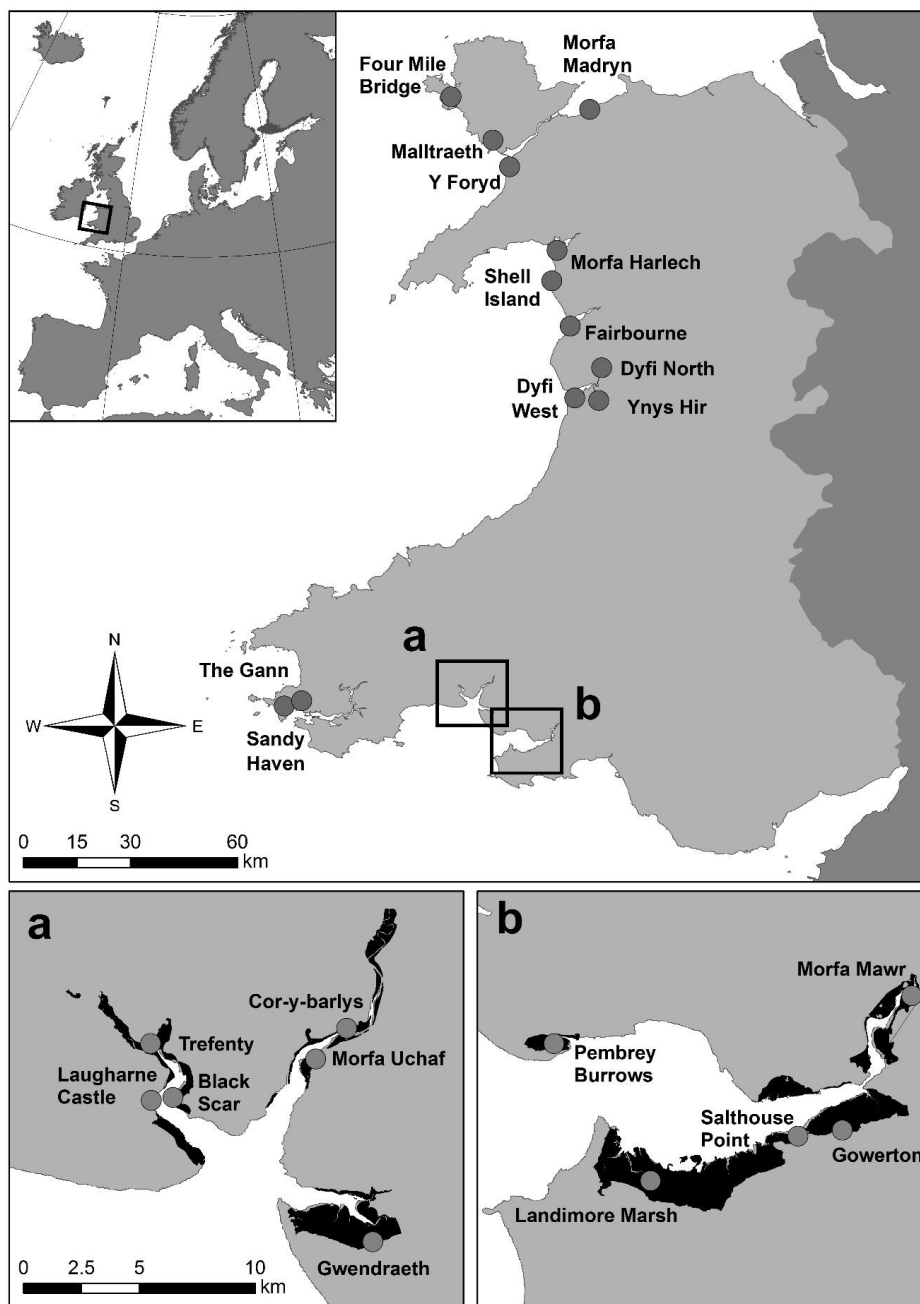
142 *NB J. maritimus* community is divided into two NVC classes

143 **Table 2.** Soil texture categories [British Columbia protocol for estimating soil texture in the  
 144 field (<https://www.for.gov.bc.ca/isb/forms/lib/fs238.pdf>)] and simplified soil type.

Soil texture category	Soil category description	Simplified soil type
S Sand	85 - 100 % sand	Sandy
SL Sandy loam	45 - 80 % sand	Sandy
FSL Fine sandy loam	46 – 80 % fine sandy	Sandy
SC Sandy clay	45 - 65 % clay	Sandy
Si Silt	0 - 20 % sand	Non-sandy
SiL Silt loam	0 - 50 % sand	Non-sandy
L Loam	20 - 50 % sand	Non-sandy
CL Clay loam	20 - 45 % sand	Non-sandy
SiCL Silty clay loam	0 - 20 % sand	Non-sandy
SiC Silty clay	0 - 20 % sand	Non-sandy
C Clay	> 40 % clay (0 - 45 % sand)	Non-sandy
O Organic	> 30 % OM	Non-sandy

145





146

147 **Figure 1.** The 23 Welsh salt marshes included in the study.



## 148 2.4. Analysis: Explanatory variables and prediction of SOC stock

149 The relationship between the response variable ‘SOC stock’ and the explanatory variables was  
150 determined using uni- or bi-variate linear mixed effects models. This was done in order to  
151 keep the models as simple as possible, to be able to scale the results up to the landscape-  
152 scale using available GIS layers (see subsection 2.6) and with the final aim of being of direct  
153 use for practitioners. The explanatory variables we entered in the models were the fixed  
154 categorical variables ‘vegetation type’ (4 levels: *P. maritima* community, *A. portulacoides*  
155 community, *J. gerardii* community, *J. maritimus* community), ‘NVC class’ (5 levels: SM13,  
156 SM14, SM16, SM15, SM18), ‘simplified soil type’ (2 levels : sandy, non-sandy), ‘soil texture’  
157 (12 levels: sand, sandy loam, fine sandy loam, sandy clay, silt, silt loam, loam, clay loam, silty  
158 clay loam, silty clay, clay, organic) and the continuous variables ‘root biomass’ and ‘plant  
159 species richness’. The categorical variable ‘vegetation type’ was nested within the random  
160 effects ‘saltmarsh site’ (23 levels: e.g. Morfa Harlech) and ‘location’ (2 levels: north or south  
161 Wales) (e.g.  $\text{Carbon\_stock} \sim \text{Soil\_type} + \text{NVC}, \text{random} = \sim 1 | \text{Location/Site/Veg\_type}$ ).

162 Inspection of residuals and Bartlett’s test detected a clear violation of the assumption of  
163 homoscedasticity. We addressed this issue by adding a constant variance function (varIdent)  
164 as weights into the linear mixed effects models, to take into account the differences in  
165 variance across groups (e.g. vegetation type, NVC class, simplified soil type). Final models  
166 were selected on the basis of the lowest Akaike’s Information Criteria (AIC) (Zuur et al., 2009).  
167 Likelihood-ratio based pseudo R-squared were calculated for final models (Grömping, 2006).

168 The final uni- and bi-variate models we tested were the following: i) NVC\_model (‘NVC class’  
169 only); ii) Soil\_model (‘simplified soil type’ only); iii) Veg\_soil\_model (‘vegetation type’ and  
170 ‘simplified soil type’ combined); iv) NVC\_soil\_model (‘NVC class’ and ‘simplified soil type’



171 combined). SOC stock predictions were calculated from the coefficients of the final linear  
172 mixed effects models. For example, the NVC\_soil\_model values for each explanatory variable  
173 for coefficient 1 (i.e. simplified soil type: sandy, non-sandy) and coefficient 2 (i.e. NVC class:  
174 SM13, SM14, SM15, SM16, SM18) were summed and added to the model intercept giving a  
175 model prediction of SOC stock for each model in tonnes of carbon per hectare ( $t\ C\ ha^{-1}$ ). All  
176 analysis was carried out in R (R Core Team, 2016).

#### 177 2.5. Model selection justification for the SCSP tool and the Saltmarsh App

178 The SCSP tool (Skov et al., 2016; <https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-tool/>) was  
179 designed to be used primarily by expert practitioners whereas the Saltmarsh App  
180 (<https://www.saltmarshapp.com/>) was aimed at the general public. Therefore the models  
181 they utilise to predict saltmarsh SOC stock differ based on access to data sources. The SCSP  
182 tool offers two types of information: i) a look up table for predicted SOC stock ( $t\ C\ ha^{-1}$ )  
183 provided either NVC class (NVC\_model), simplified soil type (Soil\_model) or both  
184 (NVC\_soil\_model) are known; and ii) a GIS map layer and series of maps (see subsection 2.6).  
185 The NVC\_soil\_model was used for The SCSP tool as existing governmental maps are already  
186 categorised by NVC class. The carbon calculator component of the Saltmarsh App was based  
187 on the Veg\_soil\_model. This model was selected as vegetation type was assessed as easier to  
188 determine than NVC class by non-experts (e.g. citizen-scientists) in the field. For both the SCSP  
189 tool and the Saltmarsh app 'simplified soil type' was used instead of 'soil texture category' as  
190 simplified soil type was both easier to assess in the field by non-experts and more  
191 straightforward to map using existing soil maps.

192



193 2.6. Scaling-up: SOC Stock mapping

194 As part of the SCSP tool, a GIS shapefile (referred to as the SCSP shapefile) was developed to  
195 illustrate how information on NVC class and simplified soil types (sandy v non-sandy) can be  
196 integrated into broad-scale mapping of SOC stocks in saltmarshes across Wales, UK. The SCSP  
197 shapefile illustrated SOC stocks for marshes across Wales utilising the predictive power of the  
198 linear mixed effects models obtained in the statistical analyses (section 2.4) for: A) 'NVC class'  
199 only (NVC\_model); B) 'Simplified soil type' only (Soil\_model); C) 'NVC and simplified soil type'  
200 combined, (NVC\_soil\_model); D) 'NVC and simplified soil type' combined (NVC\_soil\_model)  
201 plus predictions based on 'simplified soil type' (Soil\_model) where SOC predictions for NVC  
202 pioneer communities were not known. Estimates of the total amount of carbon (t C) for all  
203 marshes visible, for the 'Area' of the saltmarsh (%) for which we had the necessary  
204 information to make predictions were calculated for each map. For example, Laugharne  
205 marsh (Fig. 2) included NVC classes for which the study did not have predictive SOC to NVC  
206 relationships; hence, shapefiles A and C (detail above) included areas without SOC predictions  
207 so the percentage of the marsh area for which SOC predictions were made was <100 %.

208 The SCSP shapefile was built by combining three GIS layers: i) the first layer provided the  
209 distribution of saltmarsh areas in England and Wales, and is distributed by the Environmental  
210 Agency (EA) (available at <https://data.gov.uk/dataset/saltmarsh-extents1>); ii) the second  
211 layer gave the distribution of NVC classes in Welsh salt marshes, and was provided by Natural  
212 Resources Wales ('Intertidal Phase-2' shapefile); and iii) the third layer provided simplified  
213 soil type information, and was obtained from 'Soilscapes', a 1:250,000 scale, soil map covering  
214 England and Wales, and developed by LandIS (<http://www.landis.org.uk/>). The EA shapefile  
215 (i) represented saltmarsh areal extent as measured between 2006 and 2009 across England



216 and Wales (Phelan et al., 2011). The phase-2 survey data of NVC communities (ii) were derived  
217 from 1996-2003 surveys of saltmarsh plant carried out for all of Wales (Brazier et al., 2007).  
218 Soils of the Soilscape map (iii) were simplified into the two types used in SOC-predicting  
219 algorithms: sandy or non-sandy soil. Comparison between mapped soil types and simplified  
220 soil types measured in the field are shown in Table S1 (Supplement). The SCSP shapefile and  
221 instructions on how to use it are available at [https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-](https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-tool/)  
222 [tool/](https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-tool/).

223

## 224 **3 Results**

### 225 3.1. Site characterisation

226 Plant and soil characteristics for each vegetation type of the 23 saltmarsh sites are shown in  
227 Table S2, Supplement. SOC stock was often greater in both *J. gerardii* (SM16) and *J. maritimus*  
228 (SM15; SM18) plant communities (40-60 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>) than in the *Atriplex* (SM14) and *Puccinellia*  
229 (SM13) communities (20-50 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>). Soil pH of 6-7.5 was common throughout, but electrical  
230 conductivity (a proxy for soil salinity) was more variable, dependent on specific position and  
231 elevation relative to the tidal frame. Plant species richness was consistent across *P. maritima*,  
232 *J. gerardii* and *J. maritimus* communities (4 – 10 species m<sup>-2</sup>) with only *A. portulacoides*  
233 occurring commonly as a monoculture. Plant height was variable, between 3-30 cm for *P.*  
234 *maritima* and *J. gerardii*, with shorter swards when grazers present. *A. portulacoides* shrubs  
235 were consistently 20-30 cm high, with *J. maritimus* tussocks 40-70 cm tall. Root biomass of  
236 between 1-5 kg DW m<sup>-2</sup> was common, with *J. gerardii* and *J. maritimus* communities typically  
237 having greater root biomass than the other two community types.



238 3.2. SOC stock: explanatory variables and model predictions

239 The relationship between the response variable 'SOC stock' and the plant and soil explanatory  
240 variables was quantified by 6 uni- and 4 bi-variate models (Table 3). Assessment of 'vegetation  
241 type' (Veg\_model) or 'NVC class' (NVC\_model) alone accounted for 36-37 % of the variation  
242 in SOC stock. Root biomass alone (Root\_model) explained 32 % of variation. Simplified soil  
243 type alone (Soil\_model), where soil was divided into sandy or non-sandy groups, explained 32  
244 % of variation rising to 45 % when texture categories (Text\_model) were considered. Plant  
245 species richness alone (Species\_model) explained 41 % of variation in SOC stock (Fig. S2,  
246 Supplement). Bivariate models including plant community variables (vegetation type or NVC  
247 class) and simplified soil type (Veg\_soil\_model and NVC\_soil\_model) explained 40-44 % of  
248 SOC stock, rising to 51-52 % when plant variables were coupled with soil texture category  
249 (Veg\_text\_model and NVC\_text\_model).

250 3.3. Prediction of SOC stock: the SCSP tool and Saltmarsh App

251 The SCSP tool look up table (Table 4) provides a straightforward way to determine SOC stock  
252 in a UK saltmarsh based on information on either simplified soil type, plant community (NVC  
253 class or vegetation type) or both. For convenience the SCSP look up table also contains the  
254 model used in the carbon calculator component of The Saltmarsh App (Veg\_soil\_model).  
255 Predictions of SOC stock based on plant NVC communities (5 classes) produced SOC stock  
256 predictions (top 10 cm of soil) varying from 32 t C ha<sup>-1</sup> for the *A. portulacoides* NVC class to  
257 50 t C ha<sup>-1</sup> for the *J. gerardii* NVC class (Table 4). Predictions based on simplified soil types (2  
258 types) predicted that sandy soils store less SOC (29 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>) than non-sandy soils (43 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>).  
259 A series of GIS based maps, illustrating SOC stock (t C ha<sup>-1</sup>) and total SOC stored per marsh (t  
260 C) for all Welsh saltmarshes (based on three models: NVC\_model; Soil\_model;



261 NVC\_soil\_model) can be viewed in the Supplement, Fig. S3-S25 inclusive (exemplar Fig. 2) or  
 262 online at <https://www.saltmarshapp.com/saltmarsh-tool/>

263 **Table 3.** Six explanatory variables of SOC stock (t C ha<sup>-1</sup>; top 10 cm of soil) in Welsh  
 264 saltmarshes, based on ANOVA output from mixed effect models, with F statistic values  
 265 presented.

Model name	Vegetation type	NVC class	Plant species richness m <sup>2</sup>	Root biomass (kg DW m <sup>-2</sup> )	Simplified soil type	Soil texture category	R <sup>2</sup>
<i>SOC stock prediction: 6 single variable models</i>							
Veg_model	9.33 ***	-	-	-	-	-	0.36
NVC_model	-	7.84 ***	-	-	-	-	0.37
Species_model	-	-	9.61 **	-	-	-	0.41
Root_model	-	-	-	15.0 ***	-	-	0.32
Soil_model	-	-	-	-	12.52 ***	-	0.32
Text_model	-	-	-	-	-	2.90 **	0.45
<i>SOC stock prediction: 4 bivariate models</i>							
Veg_soil_model	10.18 ***	-	-	-	22.39 ***	-	0.40
Veg_text_model	10.66 ***	-	-	-	-	3.84 ***	0.51
NVC_soil_model	-	9.17 ***	-	-	22.54 ***	-	0.44
NVC_text_model	-	7.92 ***	-	-	-	3.63 ***	0.52

266 Significance (\*\* = p < 0.01, \*\*\* = p < 0.001)

267 Vegetation type (4 levels: *P. maritima*; *A. portulacoides*; *J. maritimus*; *J. gerardii*)

268 NVC class (5 levels: SM13; SM14; SM15; SM16; SM18)

269 Simplified soil type (2 levels: 'Sandy' soil with ≥0.45 sand; 'Non-sandy' soils with <0.45 sand including loam,  
 270 clay, organic soils)

271 Soil texture category (12 levels: see Table 2)

272



273 **Table 4.** SCSP tool look up table based on models of SOC stock prediction in Welsh salt  
 274 marshes (using output of a sub-set of models from Table 3).

Vegetation type	NVC class	Simplified soil type	Model Coefficient(s)	Model Intercept	Predicted SOC stock (t C ha <sup>-1</sup> )	
NVC_model: 'NVC class' only [ $p < 0.001$ , $r^2 = 0.37$ , mean model standard error (SM13 $\pm$ 2.9, SM14 $\pm$ 3.9, SM15 $\pm$ 4.9, SM18 $\pm$ 3.4, SM16 $\pm$ 3.2)]						
- ( <i>P. maritima</i> )	SM13	-	-	39.5	40	
- ( <i>A. portulacoides</i> )	SM14	-	-7.8	39.5	32	
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM15	-	-2.3	39.5	37	
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM18	-	9.3	39.5	49	
- ( <i>J. gerardii</i> )	SM16	-	10.4	39.5	50	
Soil_model: 'Simplified soil type' only [ $p < 0.001$ , $r^2 = 0.32$ , mean model standard error $\pm$ 3.9]						
-	-	Sandy	-	29.4	29	
-	-	Non-sandy	13.7	29.4	43	
Veg_soil_model: 'Vegetation type' and 'Simplified soil type' [ $p < 0.001$ , $r^2 = 0.4$ , mean model standard error ( <i>P. maritima</i> $\pm$ 2.7, <i>A. portulacoides</i> $\pm$ 3.3, <i>J. maritimus</i> $\pm$ 3.3, <i>J. gerardii</i> $\pm$ 3.0)]						
<i>P. maritima</i>	-(SM13)	Sandy	8	-12.9	32.7	28
<i>P. maritima</i>	-(SM13)	Non-sandy	8	12.9	19.8	41
<i>A. portulacoides</i>	-(SM14)	Sandy	-	-12.9	32.7	20
<i>A. portulacoides</i>	-(SM14)	Non-sandy	-	12.9	19.8	33
<i>J. maritimus</i>	-(SM15 & SM18)	Sandy	15.1	-12.9	32.7	35
<i>J. maritimus</i>	-(SM15 & SM18)	Non-sandy	15.1	12.9	19.8	48
<i>J. gerardii</i>	-(SM16)	Sandy	16.3	-12.9	32.7	36
<i>J. gerardii</i>	-(SM16)	Non-sandy	16.3	12.9	19.8	49
NVC_soil_model: 'NVC class' and 'Simplified soil type' [ $p < 0.001$ , $r^2 = 0.44$ , mean model standard error (SM13 $\pm$ 3.3, SM14 $\pm$ 3.7, SM15 $\pm$ 5.2, SM18 $\pm$ 3.3, SM16 $\pm$ 3.4)]						
- ( <i>P. maritima</i> )	SM13	Sandy	-	-14.1	40.4	26





- ( <i>P. maritima</i> )	SM13	Non-sandy	-	14.1	26.3	40
- ( <i>A. portulacoides</i> )	SM14	Sandy	-7.2	-14.1	40.4	19
- ( <i>A. portulacoides</i> )	SM14	Non-sandy	-7.2	14.1	26.3	33
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM15	Sandy	2.4	-14.1	40.4	29
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM18	Sandy	10.1	-14.1	40.4	36
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM15	Non-sandy	2.4	14.1	26.3	43
- ( <i>J. maritimus</i> )	SM18	Non-sandy	10.1	14.1	26.3	50
- ( <i>J. gerardii</i> )	SM16	Sandy	9.5	-14.1	40.4	36
- ( <i>J. gerardii</i> )	SM16	Non-sandy	14.1	9.5	26.3	50

275 Variables not in model denoted by '-'; Variables related to 'Vegetation type' or 'NVC class' but not included in

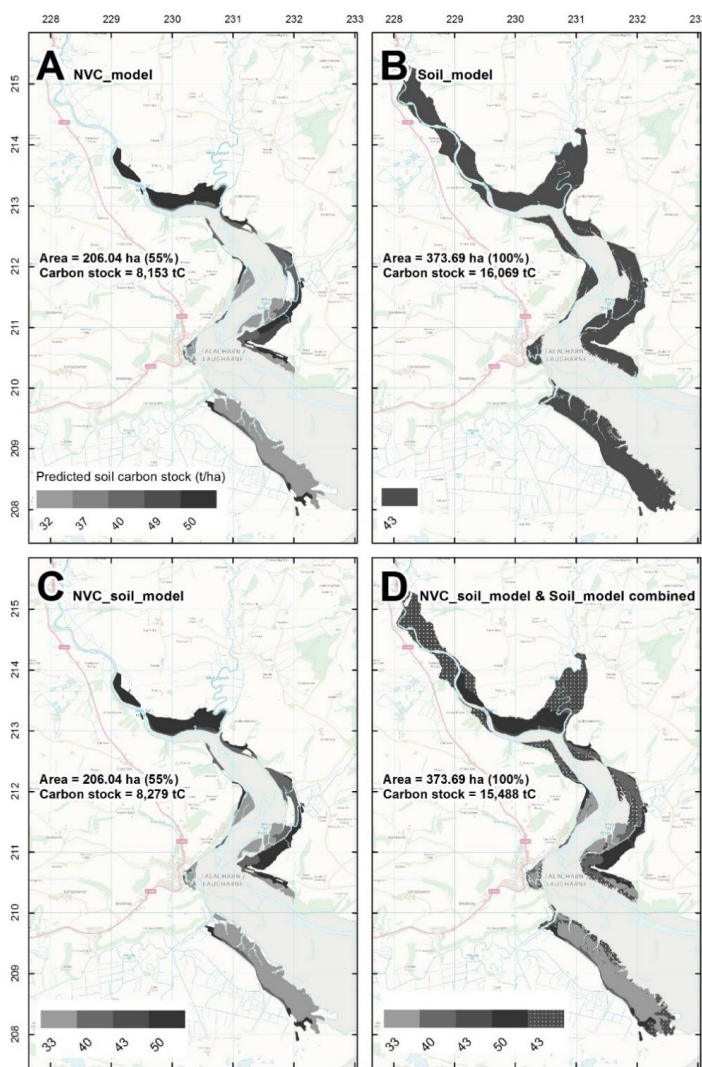
276 analysis in parentheses '()'.  
277

277 Vegetation type (4 levels: *P. maritima*; *A. portulacoides*; *J. maritimus*; *J. gerardii*)

278 NVC class (5 levels: SM13; SM14; SM15; SM16; SM18)

279 Simplified soil type (2 levels: 'Sandy' soil with  $\geq 0.45$  sand; 'Non-sandy' soils with  $< 0.45$  sand including loam,

280 clay, organic soils)



281

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282 **Figure 2.** Predictions of SOC stock ( $\text{t C ha}^{-1}$  for top 10 cm) for saltmarshes at Laugharne in  
283 south Wales. SOC stock was predicted by **A**) 'NVC class' only (NVC\_model); **B**) 'Simplified soil  
284 type' only (Soil\_model); **C**) 'NVC and simplified soil type' combined, (NVC\_soil\_model); **D**)  
285 'NVC and simplified soil type' combined (NVC\_soil\_model) plus predictions based on  
286 'simplified soil type' (Soil\_model) where SOC predictions for NVC pioneer communities were  
287 not known. Inserted into maps are estimates of the total amount of SOC (t C) for all marshes



288 visible, for the 'Area' of the saltmarsh (%) for which we had the necessary information to  
289 make predictions. Laugharne marsh included NVC communities for which the study did not  
290 have predictive SOC to NVC relationships; hence, panel A and C include areas without SOC  
291 predictions (white colour) and the percentage of the marsh area for which SOC predictions  
292 were made are <100 %.

293

#### 294 **4 Discussion**

295 The accurate prediction of 'blue carbon' stock is of interest to a wide range of stakeholders  
296 including the IPCC (2014). This study has demonstrated that a large proportion of the variation  
297 in SOC stock in saltmarsh habitats can be predicted from just two easy-to-measure variables,  
298 plant community ('vegetation type' or 'NVC class') and simplified soil type, which together  
299 accounted for close to half of the variation in SOC stock in 23 Welsh salt marshes. Associations  
300 of SOC with plant and soil characteristics have been demonstrated in other ecosystems  
301 (Amundson, 2001; Bai et al., 2016; Manning et al., 2015), although this study is the first to use  
302 such relationships to produce a national inventory of blue carbon storage, with previous  
303 attempts largely unsuccessful (Serrano et al. 2016).

##### 304 4.1. Ecological observations

305 Whilst SOC stock in UK saltmarshes was broadly predicted by soil type, with non-sandy soils  
306 more carbon rich, there remained a clear association between SOC stock and plant  
307 community type, with rush-dominated *J. maritimus* and *J. gerardii* communities associated  
308 with greater SOC stocks than either *A. portulacoides* or *P. maritima* communities. The deep-  
309 rooted saltmarsh shrub *A. portulacoides* (Decuyper et al., 2014) occurred predominantly as a



310 near monoculture (Ford et al., 2016), with the shallow-rooted salt marsh grass *P. maritima*  
311 community found alongside simple-rooted plants such as *Plantago maritima*. In contrast, the  
312 rushes *J. gerardii* and *J. maritimus*, characterised by extensive laterally creeping rhizomes with  
313 thick anchors and many shallow fine roots, commonly grew alongside the grasses *Festuca*  
314 *rubra* and *Agrostis stolonifera* and various other forbs. The diverse *Juncus* communities are  
315 known to have a wide variety of rooting strategies (Minden et al., 2012) that lead to greater  
316 root biomass and consequently greater SOC stock (Jones and Donnelly, 2004; Loreau et al.,  
317 2001). Higher SOC stock in *Juncus* areas might also arise as these species grow in waterlogged  
318 conditions that limit aerobic breakdown of organic material (Ford et al., 2012), while *A.*  
319 *portulacoides* is known to colonise relatively well-aerated and drained areas (Armstrong et  
320 al., 1985).

#### 321 4.2. Tools for broad-scale predictions of saltmarsh SOC stock

322 The study findings were used to develop two practical tools for predicting the SOC stocks of  
323 salt marshes: the SCSP tool for expert stakeholders (i.e. IPCC, blue carbon initiatives,  
324 academics, policy makers and land managers), and the Saltmarsh App for the general public  
325 (find both at <https://www.saltmarshapp.com>). All of the univariate and bivariate models  
326 tested in this study explained  $\geq 32\%$  of the variation in saltmarsh SOC stocks, however not all  
327 were of practical use for the tool/app, which required variables that were either easy to  
328 measure or readily available as GIS layers. For example, the characterisation of soils into 12  
329 soil texture categories produced consistently better univariate and bivariate predictions of  
330 SOC ( $\sim 50\%$  of variation explained) than simple classification into sandy or non-sandy soils  
331 ( $\sim 33\%$ ), as texture-classification allowed a more accurate assessment of the clay to sand ratio,  
332 a key indicator of SOC (Arrouays et al., 2006; O'Brien et al., 2015). However, the 2-class



333 simplified soil type classification was selected for use in the tools, as existing UK soil maps  
334 categorised saltmarsh soils in these terms, and because non-specialists can distinguish sandy  
335 from non-sandy soils in the field. For plant community type, predictions by ‘vegetation type’  
336 or ‘NVC class’ performed equally well, both explaining over a third of variation in SOC in  
337 univariate models, rising to nearly half when combined with either simplified soil type or  
338 texture classification. NVC class was selected as a key variable for SCSP as it is often mapped  
339 at UK level by national agencies, whereas the easier to identify vegetation type was chosen  
340 for the Saltmarsh App. In summary, the SCSP tool generates predictions and maps of  
341 saltmarsh SOC stock from existing mapped information on soil type, NVC classification, or  
342 both. The Saltmarsh App predicts SOC stock from field-based information on vegetation type  
343 and simplified soil type combined.

#### 344 4.2. Advantages and limitations of predicting blue carbon from vegetation and soil types

345 Coastal vegetated habitats are now increasingly acknowledged as important carbon sinks  
346 (Howard et al., 2017), based on their high primary production, sediment trapping capacity  
347 and the biogeochemical conditions of their sediments, which slow the decay of organic  
348 material (Kelleway et al., 2017, McLeod et al., 2011). The contribution of coastal habitats,  
349 such as salt marshes, to climate change mitigation had previously been under-estimated  
350 (Scholefield et al., 2013), mainly due to their relatively small area cover relative to the open-  
351 ocean or terrestrial vegetated ecosystems. However, on a per area basis, coastal wetlands  
352 equate to similar or more efficient carbon sinks than most terrestrial forests (McLeod et al.,  
353 2011; Pan et al., 2011). Indeed, this study shows Welsh marshes hold up to  $50 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  in the  
354 top 10 cm of soil, equivalent to carbon densities in habitats such as fresh-water wetlands,  
355 semi-natural grasslands and woodlands (Ostle et al., 2009). The SOC predictive models and



356 associated tool presented in this paper are widely applicable to other UK salt marshes, but  
357 also throughout north-western European salt marshes (from Portugal to the Baltic), due to  
358 the similarity of common and wide-spread vegetation types (Adam, 1990). However, for use  
359 in other biogeographical regions, particularly North America, where salt marshes are  
360 dominated by large *Spartina* species that produce organogenic soils (Adam, 1990), the  
361 methods would need further ground-truthing.

362 The SCSP tool provides SOC predictions for saltmarsh plant communities indicative of the low,  
363 mid and high marsh zones, representing around half of the total Welsh saltmarsh area (Brazier  
364 et al., 2007). However, future work could boost the scope of the SCSP by validating SOC stock  
365 predictions for pioneer communities (*Spartina* and *Salicornia*), that may differ markedly in  
366 biotic indicators of SOC stock such as root biomass (Keiffer and Ungar, 2002; Schwarz et al.,  
367 2015). At present, pioneer communities are defined by simplified soil type alone (see panel D  
368 in Fig. 2). Common to many ecosystem service mapping tools, the SCSP tool assumes linearity  
369 of the relationship between area and ecosystem service, this however is uncertain (Barbier et  
370 al., 2008; Koch et al., 2009), and should be the next frontier of ecosystem service research.

371 While the SCSP tool has advantages in terms of translating ecology into practitioner-ready  
372 information, something that is increasingly being demanded of ecologists (see Chapin, 2017,  
373 and the Special Issue on ‘translational ecology’ in *Frontiers in Ecology and Environment*,  
374 December 2017), such an approach also has some limitations. Namely, in the process of  
375 translating ground level observations of ecosystem benefits (e.g. SOC stocks) into large-scale  
376 maps, there is some information that gets ‘lost in translation’ (*sensu* Jackson et al., 2017). In  
377 the case of this study, we were inherently limited by the need to use a reduced number of  
378 the simplest variables available to any practitioner (e.g. vegetation community type), and at



379 the same time, variables that feature in national cartographic programmes (e.g. coarse soil  
380 categories maps). Even so, the simple models selected for the SCSP tool explained ~50% of  
381 the variation in SOM in the studied salt marshes. However, there is still another 50% that we  
382 do not account for in this work. We know some of this variation is explained by the need to  
383 use simplified soil categories (instead of soil texture) and the inability to use root biomass and  
384 plant species richness as variables in the final tool (as these variables need more expertise to  
385 estimate, and do not feature in an available GIS layer). The rest of the variation in SOC stock  
386 might be attributed to differences in land use (i.e. grazed vs. un-grazed marshes) (Davidson  
387 et al., 2017; Mueller et al., 2017), differences in marsh elevation within the tidal frame, or in  
388 the geomorphological context of the marsh (e.g. fringing or estuarine, and if estuarine, near  
389 the mouth of the estuary or towards the head of the estuary) (Arriola and Cable, 2017),  
390 salinity or pH (Chambers et al., 2013), level of urbanisation of the catchment (Deegan et al.,  
391 2012), past history of the marsh (Kelleway et al., 2017), whether the marsh sits in a dynamic  
392 or stable area (J.F. Pagès et al., unpublished manuscript), level of disturbance/exposure it is  
393 being subjected to (Macredie et al., 2013), among other factors. Despite the caveats listed  
394 above, this study has demonstrated the ability to predict up to half the variation in saltmarsh  
395 SOC stock from very simple environmental metrics.

396

## 397 **5 Data availability**

398 The data are available by request from the corresponding author.

399 **The Supplement related to this article is available online.**



400 *Author contribution.* MS, AG and HF designed the experiment. HF, MD-E, JP and RH carried  
401 out the experiment. HF and CL analysed data and created GIS maps. HF prepared the  
402 manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

403 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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