
Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019

2017

Mucking About: Hydrologic Regime and Soil Carbon Storage in Restored Subtropical Wetlands

Alicia Huber
University of Central Florida



Part of the [Biology Commons](#)

Find similar works at: <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd>

University of Central Florida Libraries <http://library.ucf.edu>

This Masters Thesis (Open Access) is brought to you for free and open access by STARS. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019 by an authorized administrator of STARS. For more information, please contact STARS@ucf.edu.

STARS Citation

Huber, Alicia, "Mucking About: Hydrologic Regime and Soil Carbon Storage in Restored Subtropical Wetlands" (2017). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019*. 5920.

<https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/5920>



University of
Central
Florida

STARS
Showcase of Text, Archives, Research & Scholarship

MUCKING ABOUT:
HYDROLOGIC REGIME AND SOIL CARBON STORAGE IN
RESTORED SUBTROPICAL WETLANDS

by

ALICIA HUBER
B.S. Towson University, 2014

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Science
in the Department of Biology
in the College of Sciences
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Summer Term
2017

Major Professor: Patrick Bohlen

© 2017 Alicia Huber

ABSTRACT

Wetlands are extremely important ecosystems that have declined drastically worldwide, continue to be lost, and are threatened globally. They perform a number of important ecosystem services such as flood control, provide habitat for many species, and have aesthetic and recreational value. Wetlands are also important to the global carbon (C) cycle. Wetland soils are especially effective C sinks because they have high primary productivity and low decomposition rates due to flooded, anoxic conditions. Increased recognition of wetlands' value has led to more ecological and hydrological restoration of degraded wetlands to mitigate the effects of wetland destruction. Hydrological restoration, which attempts to recreate natural hydroperiod and water levels in wetlands, is expected to increase soil C storage. Many studies have estimated the C stock in different wetland ecosystems across biomes, but few have examined hydrological drivers of soil C variation across wetland types.

This study investigated the relationship between hydrologic variables (hydroperiod and average water depth) and soil C storage in three types of hydrologically restored wetlands (marsh, bay swamp, and cypress swamp) at the Disney Wilderness Preserve (DWP) in central Florida, USA. I collected 150 50-cm soil cores along existing monitoring transects in sampled wetlands where water elevation data had been collected since 1995 to examine the relationship between hydrologic variable and soil C storage. I analyzed a combination of generalized linear mixed models (glmm), evaluated using AICc. Mean water depth was a better predictor than hydroperiod of soil C concentration and stock. Mean water depth had a significant positive relationship with soil C concentration in bay swamps and marshes and soil C stock in marshes. However, this effect was small and often outweighed by other factors such as differences in

vegetative community, soil depth, or local site conditions. Water depth had no significant relationship with soil C concentration in cypress swamps or upland communities or on soil C stock in bay swamps, cypress swamps, or uplands.

Wetland community type had a strong influence on soil C variation, with bay swamp soils having the highest mean soil C concentration followed by cypress swamp, marsh, and upland soils, respectively. Soil C concentration generally decreased with soil depth. Bay swamps also had the highest soil C stock, followed by cypress swamp, marsh, and upland soils, respectively. Together, the sampled wetland communities cover approximately 22% of the sampled communities at DWP, yet store an estimated 47% of the total soil C to a 90 cm depth. The results of this study affirm the importance of inundation for soil C storage in wetlands, but also highlight that there are a number of other complex variables affecting soil C in different types of wetlands such as differences in litter quality and decomposition rates.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This thesis project would not have been possible without the support, contributions, and advice from many individuals and groups. First, I would like to thank The Nature Conservancy staff at the Disney Wilderness Preserve for their contributions; particularly Beatrice Pace-Aldana for providing site data and Petra Royston for coordinating trips to the site. I would also like to thank the many members of the Urban Ecology Lab at University of Central Florida: Jessica Sandoval, Shelby Turner, Gina Barrella, Paul Boudreau, Robert Duarte, Ryan Hammond, Jeremy Piacente, and Tiffani Manteuffel for their work collecting and processing soil samples. John Guziejka and Ian Biazzo also gave invaluable and considerable time to field collection efforts. I also relied heavily on advice and supplies from the Aquatic Biogeochemistry Lab and University of Central Florida, especially Havalend Steinmuller.

I am also grateful for the guidance and support from the department faculty who served on the committee for this thesis: Dr. Patrick Bohlen, chair, Dr. C. Ross Hinkle, and Dr. Lisa Chambers. Also, many thanks to Drs. David Jenkins and Pedro Quintana-Ascencio for counsel on project design and statistical analysis. To Ryan Chabot, Andrew Mason, and Bryan Davila, I am thankful for statistical advice and programming help in R. I also thank Louisiana State University (Baton Rouge, LA) for processing soil samples. Finally, I am ever grateful to my family, partner, friends, and fellow graduate students in the Biology Graduate Student Association (BGSA) for their varied and plentiful support throughout this process.

This project was supported by the National Science Foundation under WSC Category 2 Collaborative award number 1204380.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
INTRODUCTION	1
Research Questions	4
METHODS	5
Study Site	5
Wetland Site Selection.....	11
Soil Sample Site Selection	12
Soil Sample Collection and Processing	14
Hydrological Analysis.....	15
Statistical Analysis.....	16
RESULTS	18
Wetland Hydrology.....	18
Soil Carbon Concentration.....	20
Soil Bulk Density.....	26
Soil Carbon Stock	28
Wetland Contribution to Soil Carbon Stocks at the Landscape Scale	34
DISCUSSION.....	37

Hydrology and Soil Carbon	37
Vegetative Community and Soil Carbon	39
Estimating Soil Carbon at the Landscape Scale.....	41
Wetland Restoration and Soil Carbon.....	42
Wetland Soil Carbon and Climate Change	44
CONCLUSIONS	46
APPENDIX A: ORGANIC MATTER TO CARBON CONVERSION REGRESSION AND EQUATION.....	47
APPENDIX B: MANUAL MONITORING WELL AND CONTINUOUS RECORDER REGRESSIONS AND CONVERSION EQUATIONS	49
APPENDIX C: DISTRIBUTION PLOTS OF MODEL RANDOM EFFECTS.....	87
APPENDIX D: HYDROPERIOD ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS	89
APPENDIX E: WATER DEPTH ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS	92
APPENDIX F: SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	95
APPENDIX G: SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ COMMUNITY AND SOIL DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS	98

APPENDIX H: SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ WATER DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS	102
APPENDIX I: SOIL BULK DENSITY ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	106
APPENDIX J: SOIL BULK DENSITY ~ SOIL DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	109
APPENDIX K: SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	113
APPENDIX L: SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ SOIL DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	116
APPENDIX M: SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ WATER DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS.....	120
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	124

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Map showing the location of the Disney Wilderness Preserve (DWP).	6
Figure 2. Wetlands at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	8
Figure 3. Designated hydrologic units (HUs), monitoring transects, and monitoring wells at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.....	10
Figure 4. Soil sampling locations at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	13
Figure 5. Mean hydroperiod in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal lines the medians.....	19
Figure 6. Mean water depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.	20
Figure 7. Soil carbon concentration for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.	21
Figure 8. Mean soil carbon concentration by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean.	22
Figure 9. Soil carbon concentration along a hydrologic gradient and by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities.....	25
Figure 10. Soil bulk density for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.....	26
Figure 11. Mean soil bulk density by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean.....	28
Figure 12. Soil carbon stock for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the mean, horizontal bars the median.....	29

Figure 13. Mean soil carbon stock by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean..... 30

Figure 14. Soil carbon stock along a hydrologic gradient and by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. 33

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Wetland land cover at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	7
Table 2. Characteristics of wetlands of interest (from Helton 1996).	11
Table 3. Count and relative cover of wetlands of interest at the Disney Wilderness Preserve and soil sampling distribution by wetland type.	14
Table 4. Soil sampling distribution among wetlands zones in the three wetland types included in the study.	14
Table 5. AICc output showing the dAICc value, degrees of freedom (df), AICc weight, and percentage deviance explained (Devex) of the top five models for soil carbon concentration. Table truncated to omit all other models with AICc weights < 0.001.	24
Table 6. AICc output showing the dAICc value, degrees of freedom (df), AICc weight, and percentage deviance explained (Devex) of the top five models for soil carbon stock. Table truncated to omit all other models with AICc weights < 0.001.	32
Table 7. Estimated total carbon stored in the upper 50 cm of soil in three wetland communities at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	34
Table 8. Percentage soil carbon in communities at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	35
Table 9. Coverage and estimated soil carbon storage in the upper 90 cm of soil for three wetland communities (this study) and upland communities (Becker 2011) at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.	36

INTRODUCTION

Wetlands are among the world's most ecologically important ecosystems, but remain threatened globally. Commonly referred to as "nature's sponges," wetlands can quickly absorb large quantities of water and gradually release their stores over time. This phenomenon buffers the effects of storm events by reducing storm water runoff and flooding in natural and human-developed areas and recharges groundwater aquifers (Bullock and Acreman 2003; Zedler and Kercher 2005; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Min, Perkins, and Jawitz 2010; McLaughlin and Cohen 2013). Wetlands also improve water quality by filtering sediments, pollutants, and excess nutrients from the water column either through sediment deposition or biological transformations (Johnston, Detenbeck, and Niemi 1990; Russell, Guynn, and Hanlin 2002; Zedler and Kercher 2005; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007). Additionally, wetlands moderate local climates (Marshall et al. 2004), support regional biodiversity (Semlitsch and Bodie 1998; Sabo et al. 2006), and are important habitat for many threatened species (Chapman, Chapman, and Chandler 1996; Hamer, Lane, and Mahony 2002). Humans further benefit from wetlands through the harvest of edible and commercially profitable species and through recreational activities (Whitney et al. 2004, Mitsch and Gosselink 2007).

Wetlands are also a significant part of the global carbon (C) cycle, serving as important C sinks (Chmura et al. 2003; Mitra, Wassmann, and Vlek 2005). While covering only 4-6% of global land area, wetlands store approximately 20-30% of all global soil organic carbon (SOC) (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Lal 2008; Yu et al. 2012). Wetlands store significant amounts of C in the form of soil organic matter (SOM), which is 40-60% C (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Reddy and DeLaune 2008). A combination of high primary productivity and slowed

decomposition due to waterlogged, anoxic soils, results in the accumulation and long term storage of SOM (Tate 1987; Batjes 1999; Chmura et al. 2003; Mitra, Wassmann, and Vlek 2005; Bridgham et al. 2006; Mitsch and Goseelink 2007). SOM has a strong influence on aboveground vegetation, ecosystem function, and environmental quality (Kimble et al. 2007; Reddy and DeLaune 2008) by regulating soil temperature, increasing soil moisture holding capacity, enhancing soil aggregate stability, and serving as a nutrient reservoir for plants (Tate 1987; Schlesinger 1991; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Reddy and DeLaune 2008). For these reasons, the presence and amount of SOM is commonly used as an indicator of ecosystem health, especially in wetland communities.

Some ecosystem services provided by wetlands can be difficult or costly to mimic with human infrastructure, yet wetlands are still highly endangered (Costanza 1997; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007). An estimated 50% of global historic wetland land cover has been lost and wetlands are continually threatened by hydrologic modification for agriculture, mosquito control, and development (Kimble et al. 2007; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007). Florida, one of the most wetland-dense states in the United States, has lost an estimated 46% or 3.8 million ha of wetlands since European settlement (circa 1780) (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007).

Beginning in the 1970s, wetlands gained recognition for their role in flood control, coastal protection, and water quality enhancement. A series of international meetings and treaties including the 1971 Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar Convention), Agenda 21 from the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, and World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) called for the protection of ecologically important wetlands. The United States 1972 Clean Water Act, the adoption of a “no net loss” policy in 1989, and other legislation has increased protections for wetlands across the country. These efforts have slowed wetland losses,

and have even led to some even some “gains” in protecting, restoring, or creating wetlands, but we are far from achieving stability in wetland cover and functioning (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007). Not only do human activities such as urbanization impact existing wetlands, but restored or created wetlands do not always provide the same ecological services as natural or undisturbed wetlands (Bishel-Machung et al. 1996; Zedler and Callaway 1999; Moreno-Mateos et al. 2012; McLaughlin and Cohen 2013; Lewis and Feit 2015).

Because soil C sequestration is enhanced by flooded conditions, hydrologic restoration of wetlands is expected to increase soil C accretion and storage (Kimble et al. 2007; Vincent, Burdick, and Dionne 2013). A better understanding of the relationship between hydrology and C storage in wetlands could prove useful in managing wetlands to mitigate C emissions and anthropogenic climate change. Several studies of wetland C stock in a variety of biomes show wide variation in C storage across scales, indicating that wetlands are complex, highly variable systems with C stocks differently affected by climate, hydrology, vegetation, soil conditions, and microbial populations (Mitra et al. 2005; Bridgham et al. 2006; Kayranli et al. 2010). However, few studies have explored the relationship between hydrological conditions and wetland C storage (Sahuquillo et al. 2012; Sulman, Desai, and Mladenoff 2013; Lewis and Feit 2015; Nyamadzawo et al. 2015). Most of these studies focus on a single wetland type and most have limited hydrologic data. This study aims to increase our understanding of the drivers of variation in wetland soil C storage by investigating and modeling the relationship between hydrological variables and wetland soil C storage in different wetland communities in a restored subtropical landscape.

Research Questions

My research examined variation in soil C stock of three types of restored wetlands at the Disney Wilderness Preserve (DWP) in Central Florida in order to provide insights into landscape-scale C storage throughout the upper Kissimmee basin of the Northern Everglades ecosystem. The results will improve our understanding of wetland ecosystem function, specifically by examining the contribution of various drivers to variation in wetland soil C storage.

My three main research questions were:

1. How do long-term (10-year) mean hydroperiod (days inundated per year) and water depth relate to soil C in different types of depressional wetlands in a subtropical landscape?
2. Does the vegetative community type of a wetland interact with hydrological factors to influence C storage?
3. What is the contribution of wetland soils to C storage at the landscape scale?

Based on these questions, I predicted that:

1. Wetlands characterized by greater long-term mean water depths and longer hydroperiods would store more soil C than wetlands with shallower depths and shorter hydroperiods.
2. There would be a strong interactive effect between hydrology and vegetative community on wetland soil C storage.
3. Models based on hydrologic variables such as mean water depth and hydroperiod could be used to predict soil C storage at both the local and landscape scales.

METHODS

Study Site

This study focused on the Disney Wilderness Preserve (DWP), south of Kissimmee, FL, USA. DWP is a 4,654 ha preserve managed by The Nature Conservancy (TNC) in Reedy Creek at the headwaters of the Greater Everglades watershed (Fig. 1). The site includes a 3,440 ha former cattle ranch dominated by wetlands, improved Bahia grass pastures, and degraded flatwoods ecosystems cattle grazed since the late 1800s. In 1992, the Walt Disney Corporation purchased the property for restoration to mitigate the expansion of Walt Disney World and development of Celebration, FL. The Greater Orlando Aviation Authority (GOAA) added an additional 1,200 ha to the preserve in 1995 as mitigation for expansion of the Orlando International Airport (MCO). The region has a subtropical climate with hot summers, mild winters, and cycles of wet (May – October) and dry (November – April) seasons. Annual mean temperatures range from 15°C in January to 27°C in August and mean annual precipitation is 1142 mm per year (South Florida Water Management District Station WRWX). Ground elevation at DWP ranges from 15 to 21 meters above sea level (TNC 1996).



Figure 1. Map showing the location of the Disney Wilderness Preserve (DWP).

Upland and wetland ecosystems at DWP underwent ecological and hydrological restoration between 1994 and 2012. Among the restoration goals for this site was the enhancement of water quality and quantity for the Kissimmee and Northern Everglades ecosystems, in agreement with the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan (CERP) (U.S. Congress 2000; TNC 2004). Hydrologic restoration involved filling drainage ditches to their original ground elevation in order to raise water levels and meet restoration targets for hydroperiod, water level fluctuations, and water level elevation. Hydrologic restoration targets were derived from “literature values and the professional judgment of original project ecologist” (TNC 2004). In drained wetland areas, TNC staff mechanically removed and chemically treated encroaching woody vegetation and invasive plant species to restore natural hydrophilic wetland vegetation. The restoration project

met its criteria for success in 2011 (TNC 2011). When completed, this mitigation project was the first large off-site mitigation project of its kind and was a great success for conservation and ecological restoration (Gatewood 1995).

TNC continues to monitor and manage the site by conducting growing season prescribed burns on 2-3 year intervals, treating or removing invasive species, and monitoring threatened or endangered species on site such as the Red Cockaded Woodpecker (*Picoides borealis*) and Florida Scrub Jay (*Aphelocoma coerulescens coerulescens*). There are approximately 1,300 ha of restored wetlands at DWP (28% of the total land area) including freshwater marshes, cypress swamps, bay swamps, wet prairie, and floodplain swamps (Table 1) (Fig. 2).

Table 1. Wetland land cover at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

Land Use Classes	Total Area (ha)	Percent Cover	Mean Size (\pm SD) (ha)
Freshwater Marsh	287	21.7	3.0 \pm 11.8
Bay Swamp	159	12.0	17.7 \pm 21.0
Cypress Swamp	239	18.1	2.8 \pm 9.8
Wet Prairie	150	11.4	0.9 \pm 1.6
Mixed Hardwood Swamp	108	8.2	4.2 \pm 11.6
Floodplain Swamp	377	28.6	41.9 \pm 44.2
Grand Total	1,320		3.4 \pm 12.71

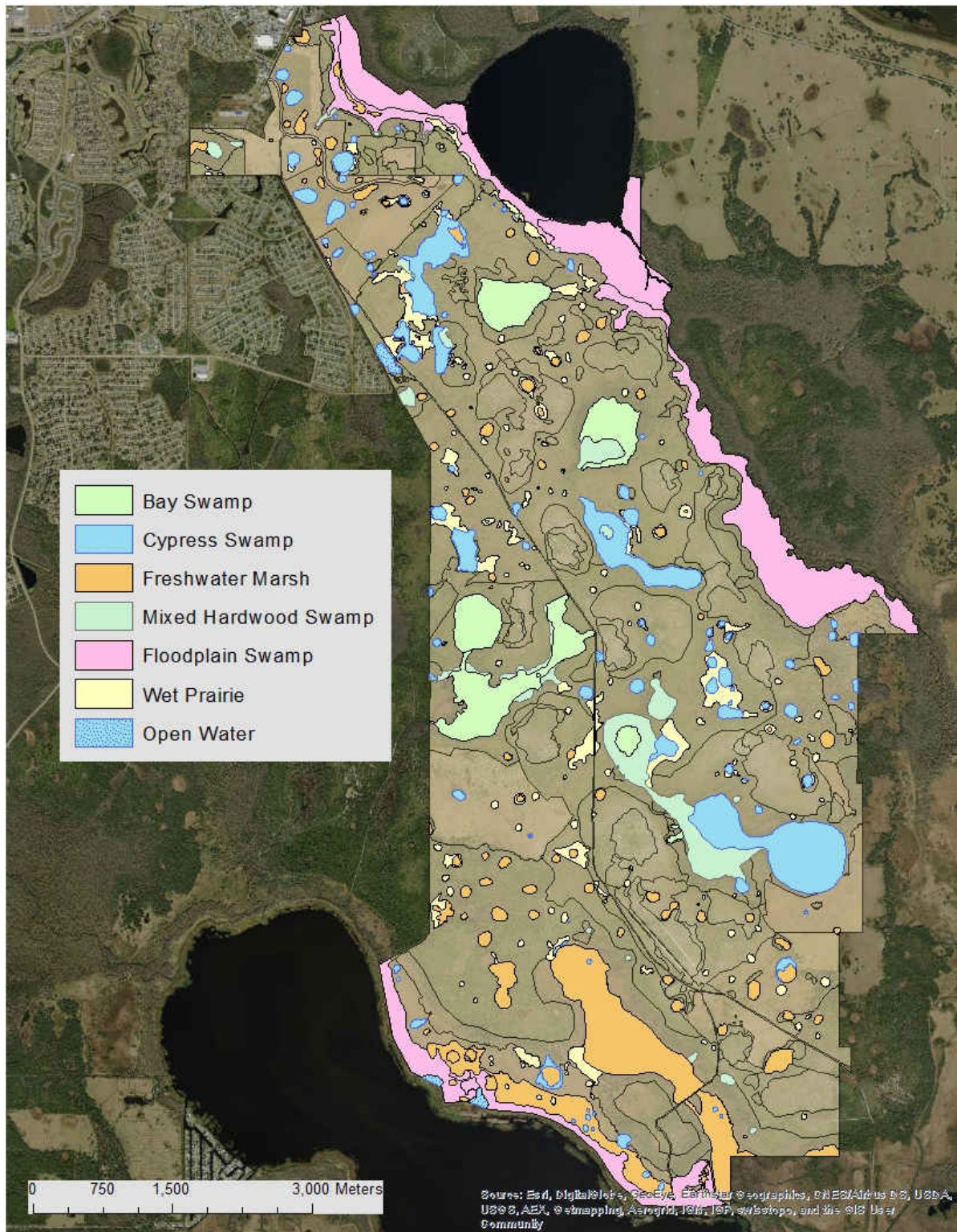


Figure 2. Wetlands at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

For restoration and monitoring purposes, TNC grouped the wetlands at DWP into 24 hydrologic units (HUs) and established transects for initial site characterization and to monitor wetlands in each HU throughout the restoration process (Fig. 3) (TNC 1994). Transect number and length varied by size of the hydrologic units and number of wetlands in restoration. Transects generally spanned from wetland interiors into adjacent uplands to facilitate survey of ecotone transitional zones, which were expected to experience the most hydrologic change. Along each transect, TNC staff collected data on ground elevation, vegetative characteristics, organic matter depth, and water elevation before or during restoration efforts (TNC 1997).

Since 1995, TNC monitored wetland water level with over 450 manual wells and approximately 25 wells instrumented with continuous water elevation recorders (Telologer 2109e-5 pressure transducers, Telog Instruments, Victor, NY) (Fig. 3). Well installation dates varied by the restoration start dates in each HU. TNC employees recorded water elevations from manual wells, located along monitoring transects, once per month for 1-17 years. Monitoring of all manual wells ended by 2010. Continuous wells, distributed across DWP, recorded hourly means of water elevation from the time they were installed in the 1990s until 2010 or later. Of the original 25 continuous monitoring wells, 18 were still in operation in 2017.

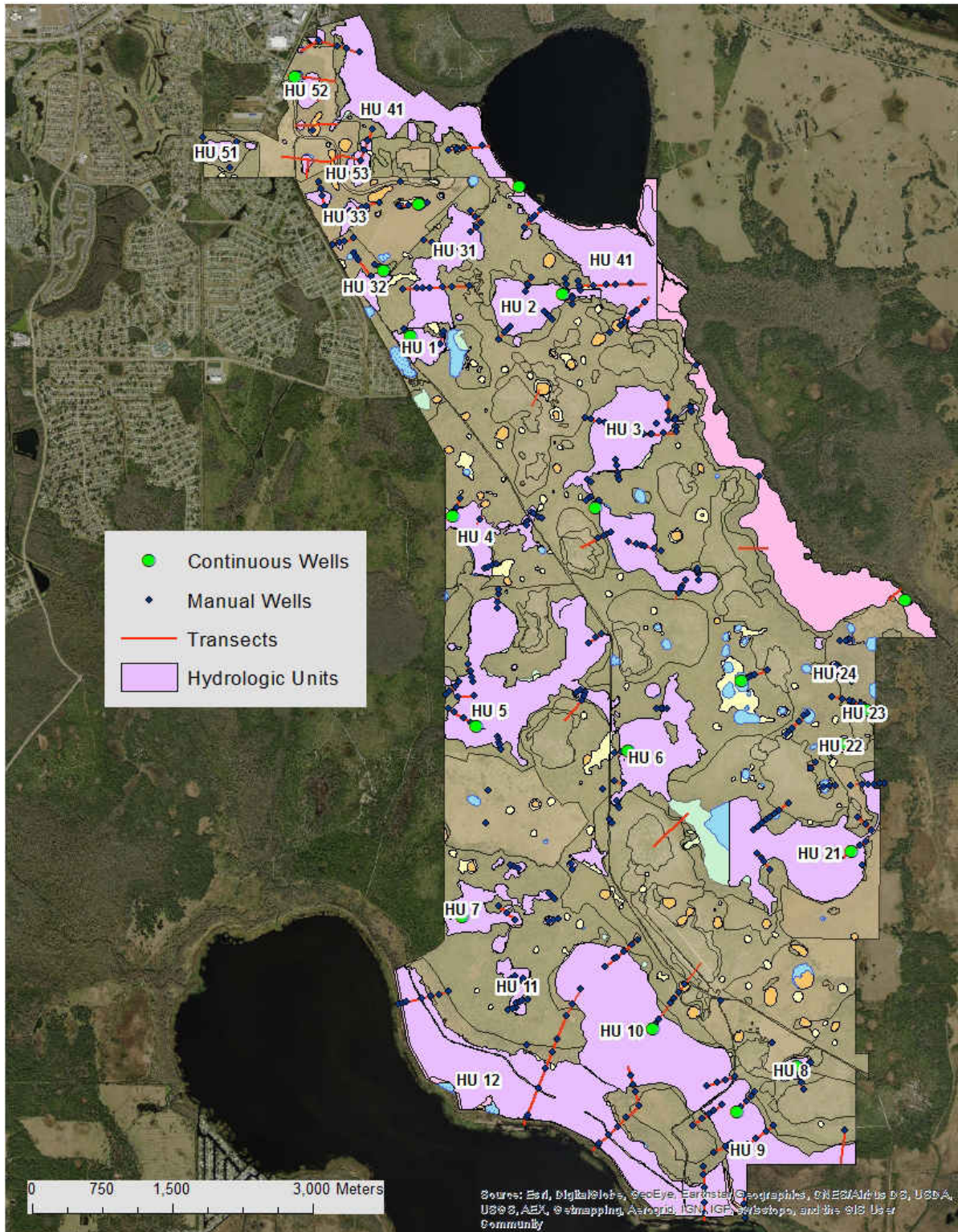


Figure 3. Designated hydrologic units (HUs), monitoring transects, and monitoring wells at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

Wetland Site Selection

This study included the three dominant wetland types at DWP: freshwater marshes, bay swamps, and cypress swamps (Table 2), which together represent approximately 60% of the wetland cover and 17% of total land cover on site (Table 1). All three wetland types are depressional wetlands that are mostly rain-fed with no or little surface flow into or out of the system. This study does not include non-depressional wetlands at DWP such as riparian wetlands, which are hydrologically dominated by adjacent waterbodies, or the large heterogeneous marsh at the southern end of the site, which is hydrologically more similar to a floodplain than an isolated depressional wetland.

Table 2. Characteristics of wetlands of interest (from Helton 1996).

Community Type	Shape	Dominant Species	Soil
Bay Swamp	Large, Irregular Basin	<i>Magnolia virginiana</i> <i>Gordonia lasianthus</i> <i>Persea palustris</i>	Deep organic layers, Highly variable basal soil: dark salt & pepper to clayey muck
Cypress Swamp	Strand or Isolated dome	<i>Taxodium ascendens</i>	Shallower organic layers; Basal soils: organic to mucky clay
Marsh	Basin or Depression	Grasses (<i>Typha sp.</i> , <i>Sagittaria sp.</i>), sedges (<i>Panicum sp.</i> , <i>Cladium sp.</i>), floating aquatic plants (<i>Nymphaea sp.</i> , <i>Nelumbo sp.</i>)	Highly variable basal soil: sandy organic to clayey muck

Candidate wetlands included ecologically restored bay swamp, cypress swamp, and marsh communities that had at least one monitoring well within their boundaries and at least one

monitoring transect with ground elevation data necessary to calculate hydrologic variables from water elevation data. Of the approximately 186 wetlands at DWP, 49 individual wetlands met these requirements. Twenty-two wetlands, including 10 freshwater marshes, 7 cypress swamps, and 5 bay swamps, met final selection criteria based on the quality and quantity of their available hydrologic data, size (> 0.5 ha), and location in the landscape.

Soil Sample Site Selection

Sampling teams collected a total of 150 soil cores (Fig. 4), which were distributed among the sampled wetlands based on the proportional coverage of each wetland type at DWP (Table 3), and assigned among individual wetlands according to the wetlands' size and number of transects. Mixed hardwood swamp cover was combined with bay swamp since both community types occur together as part of the same individual wetlands. Using ArcGIS (version 10.3.1) and TNC's land class and monitoring data, I established three zones at each wetland site: "upland transect," which included a 25 m buffer upland of the wetland boundary; "wetland transect", which included the TNC monitoring transects within the designated wetland boundaries; and "wetland interior," which was the area of the wetland beyond the monitored transect. I used ArcGIS to randomly place sampling points along transects in the upland transect and wetland transect zones. When the transects did not reach the wetland interior, I selected additional sampling points at approximately 50 m intervals beyond the endpoint of the existing monitoring transects (Table 4). Wetlands in which (a) transect(s) reached the center of the wetland did not have a wetland interior zone.

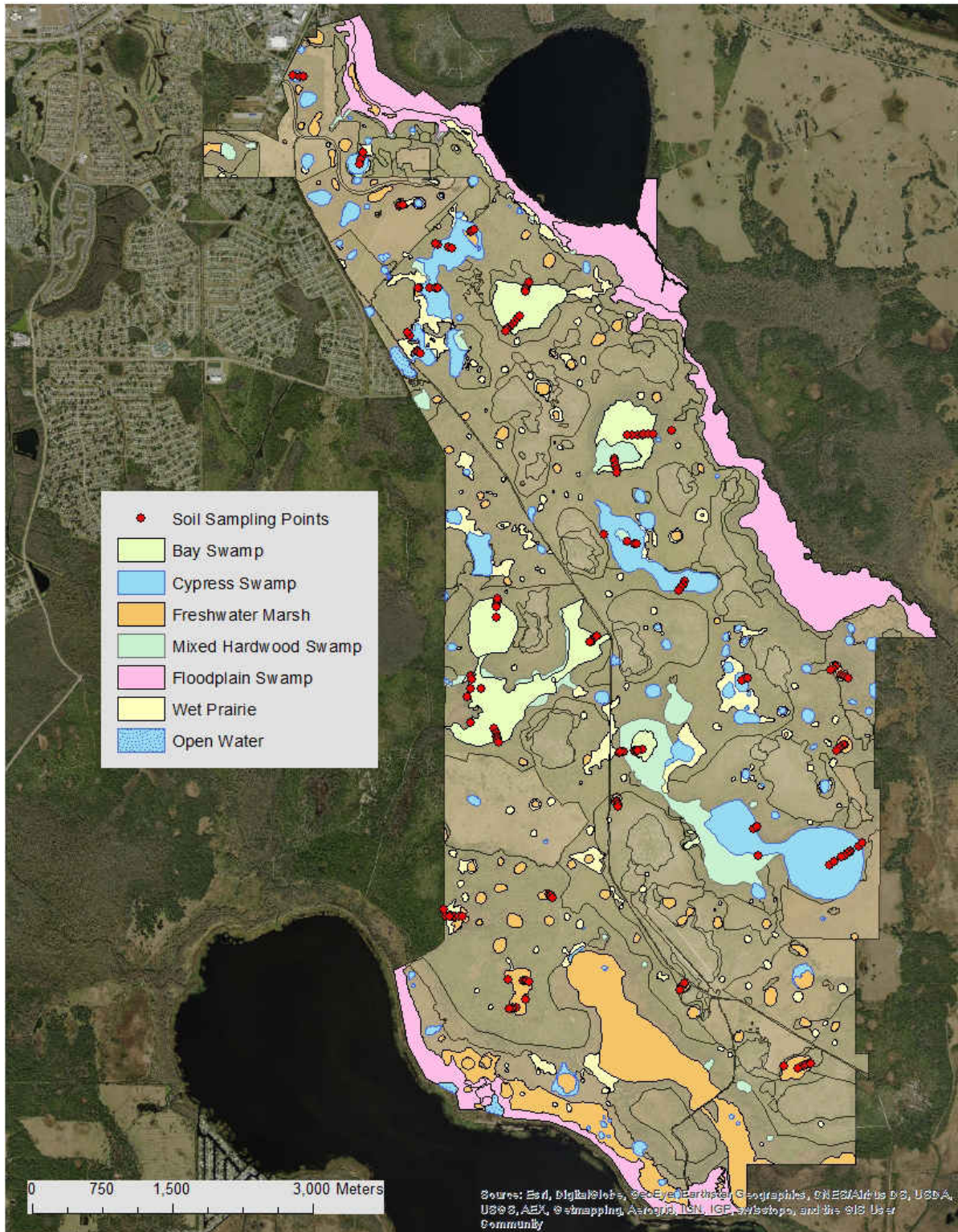


Figure 4. Soil sampling locations at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

Table 3. Count and relative cover of wetlands of interest at the Disney Wilderness Preserve and soil sampling distribution by wetland type.

Wetland Community	Total Count	Total Cover (ha)	% Cover	Selected Wetlands	Sampling Points
Bay Swamp	5	271	34	5	51
Cypress Swamp	86	239	30	7	45
Marsh	95	287	36	10	54
Total	186	797	100	22	150

Table 4. Soil sampling distribution among wetlands zones in the three wetland types included in the study.

Wetland Community	Upland	Transect	Interior	Total
Bay Swamp	11	28	12	51
Cypress Swamp	11	32	2	45
Marsh	13	41	0	54
Total	35	101	14	150

Soil Sample Collection and Processing

Sampling teams collected all soil samples between March and November 2016. Soil cores were taken with a three-inch outer diameter clear polyurethane pipe hammered into the ground to a 50 cm depth. Teams extruded cores from the pipe in the field and cut them into six depth segments: 0-5 cm, 5-10 cm, 10-20 cm, 20-30 cm, 30-40 cm, and 40-50 cm. Detritus was not collected. Samples remained on ice until brought back to the lab, where they stayed at 4°C until processed.

Mass measurements for each core segment included initial field-wet mass and oven-dried mass (60°C). Soil moisture was the percentage of water mass lost during drying. Soil bulk density was the oven-dried mass of the whole soil core segment sample divided by the volume of

the whole core segment. SOM was determined on 1.5-2.0 g subsamples of sieved (2 mm mesh) dried, and mechanically ground (Spex Sample Prep 8000M Mixer/Mill) samples that were ashed for 16 hours at 550°C in a Fisher Scientific Isotemp® muffle furnace. The Wetland Biogeochemistry Analytical Services (WBAS) lab at Louisiana State University (Baton Rouge, LA) determined carbon and nitrogen content (g C kg⁻¹ soil) for 50 randomly selected soil core segments (Costech 1040 CHNOSA Elemental Combustion). I used these data to create a regression equation to convert organic matter content to C content for the remaining samples (APPENDIX A). I calculated total C content by multiplying percentage C by the total dry soil mass and calculated soil C stock (S_c , kg C m⁻²) using the horizon depth (D), percent carbon of materials passing the 2 mm screen (C_s), mass of materials passing the 2 mm screen (M_s), and the total volume of the depth increment (V) as follows:

$$S_c = \frac{D * \left(10,000 \frac{cm^2}{m^2} \right) * (C_s * M_s)}{V}$$

Hydrological Analysis

When possible, I used data from the geographically closest well to each sampling location to calculate hydrologic variables for each point. To estimate daily water elevations at manual well locations where only monthly measurements were available, I fit regressions comparing water elevation readings at manual wells and the nearest continuous well, using readings taken within 30 minutes of each other (APPENDIX B). I then used the regression equation to estimate continuous water elevation the manual well location using data from the continuous well location. I assessed the fit of each regression with R² values and residual plots. In the event that regression fit was poor for between manual well data and data from the geographically closest

continuous well, I chose another continuous well for the regression. I used a total of 73 manual monitoring wells and 17 continuous recorders for analysis.

I estimated daily relative water depths at each sample location by subtracting the site ground elevation, determined from original site surveys, from estimated daily water elevations, and then calculated the mean water depth between January 1, 2001 and December 31, 2010. I chose this date range because water elevation data was available from all continuous wells for this time period. I calculated hydroperiod as the number of days per year a sampling point was inundated (water depth > ground elevation), including a 2 cm buffer. I then calculated the 10-year mean hydroperiod for the same time frame as water depth.

Statistical Analysis

To model both soil C stock (kg C m^{-2}) and concentration (g C cm^{-3}), I fit a number of generalized linear mixed models (glmm) with the function `glmmadmb` using the `glmmADMB` package (Fournier et al. 2012, Skaug et al. 2013) in R version 3.3.0 (R Core Team 2016). I ran the models with a gamma family because the data did not meet the assumptions of normality for maximum likelihood (ML) or restricted maximum likelihood (REML). To account for non-random soil sampling design, each model included the following random effects in the models' random intercepts: individual core ID (when analyzing by soil depth) nested within transect nested within wetland. Distribution plots of the random effects are shown in APPENDIX C. The models also included combinations of these fixed predictor variables: mean water depth, standard deviation of the mean water depth, mean hydroperiod, soil depth segment, and vegetative community type. Over 20 models were fit of logical combinations of the above predictor variables and their possible interactions while excluding collinear predictor variables

from appearing in the same model (such as mean water depth and hydroperiod or hydroperiod and vegetative community). I used the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) for model selection and evaluated the residuals of the most informative plots. I also ran glmms to analyze water depth, hydroperiod, and soil bulk density by vegetative community type and community type by soil depth. Models including hydrologic variables exclude interior sample points, because accurate ground elevation data were not available for these points. All other models include data from all soil samples.

RESULTS

Wetland Hydrology

Hydroperiod was significantly shorter in upland communities than in the wetland communities (Fig. 5, $p < 0.001$). Among wetland community types, mean hydroperiod in marshes was significantly shorter than in cypress and longer than in bay swamps ($p < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in mean hydroperiod between bay and cypress swamps. Bay swamps had the greatest range of hydroperiod (0-356 days/year), whereas cypress swamps had the smallest range of hydroperiod (220-357 days/year). Hydroperiod was normally distributed in cypress swamps and marshes, slightly skewed towards shorter hydroperiods in bay swamps, and very skewed towards longer hydroperiods in uplands (Fig. 5). Median hydroperiod in the upland communities was 21 days/year, but over 25% of upland sampling locations had hydroperiods over 100 days/year. The random effect variance (1.45), due to individual wetlands and individual transects in a given wetland, is on par with or greater than the effect of community type on hydroperiod, indicating that a significant amount of variability in hydroperiod was due to local site conditions. The model output and residual plots are shown in APPENDIX D.

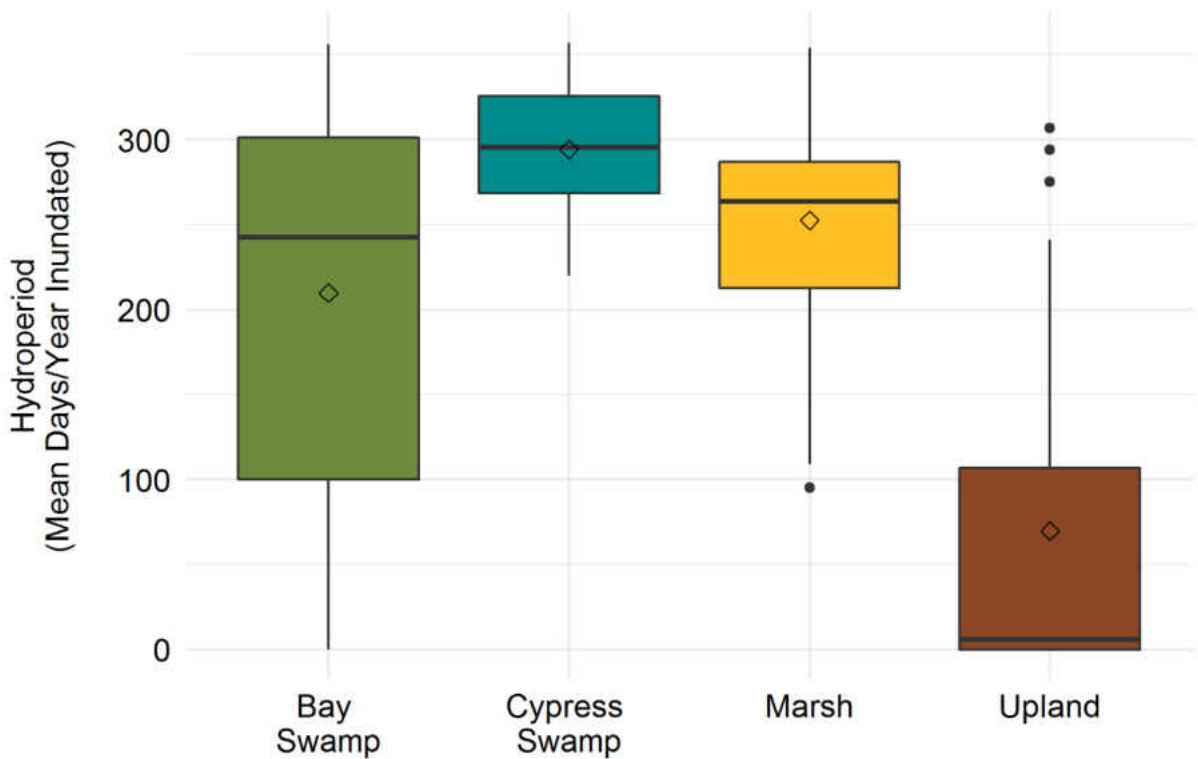


Figure 5. Mean hydroperiod in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal lines the medians.

Mean water depth was significantly lower in the upland communities than the wetland communities (Fig. 6, $p \approx 0$). There was no significant difference in mean water depth between bay and cypress swamps or between cypress swamps and marshes, but mean water depth was slightly (~17 cm) but significantly lower in bay swamps than in marshes ($p < 0.05$). Water depth was normally distributed in all community types. Mean water depth was below the ground surface in both bay swamp (-3 cm) and upland communities (-52 cm). The random effect variance (0.026), due to individual wetlands and individual transects within wetlands was much lower than the random effect variance on hydroperiod and lower than the effects of community type on mean water depth, indicating that more of the variability in mean water depth is due to differences in vegetative community than to local site conditions. The model output and model

residual plots are shown in APPENDIX E.

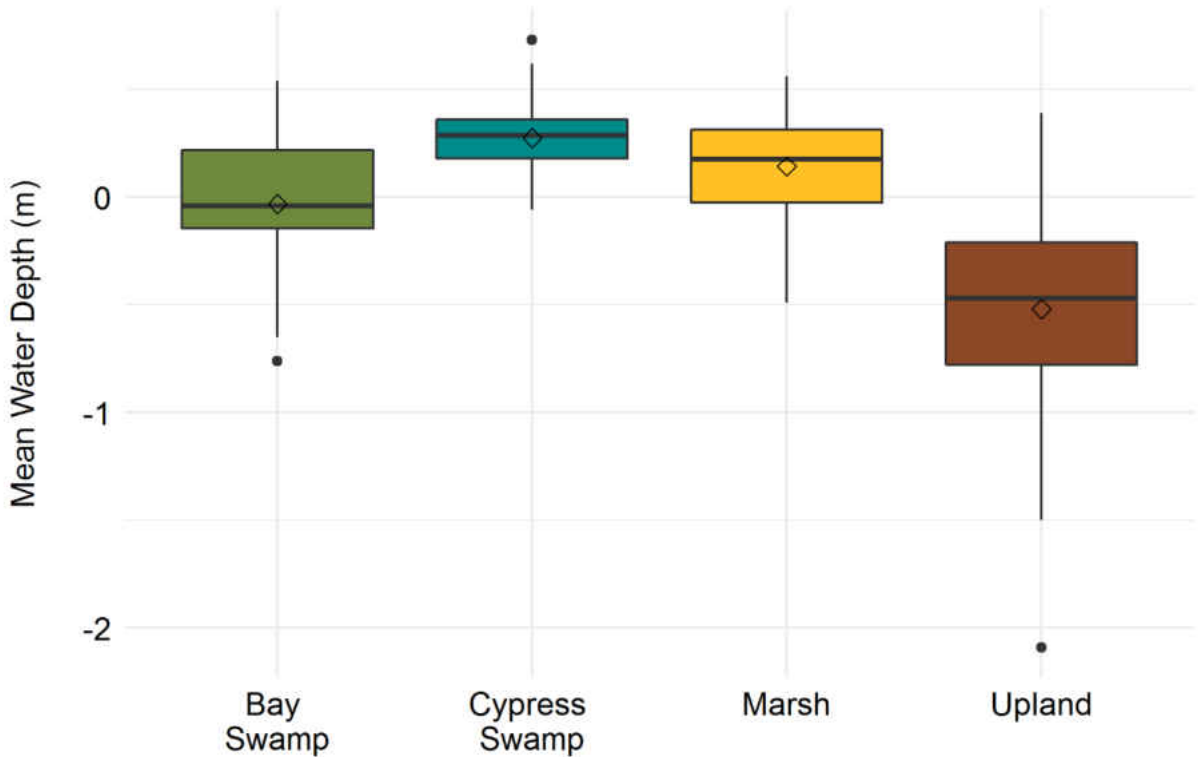


Figure 6. Mean water depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.

Soil Carbon Concentration

Mean soil C concentration for 0-50 cm depth was significantly different among all community types (Fig. 7, $p < 0.01$). Bay swamps had the highest mean soil C concentration, followed by cypress swamp, marsh, and uplands, respectively. The distribution of soil C concentration was greatly skewed in all wetland types, towards the lower C concentrations of the range in bay swamps and towards the higher concentrations of the range in in cypress swamps and marshes. The random effect variance (0.066), due to individual wetlands and individual transects within wetlands is lower than the estimates for community types, indicating a small

effect of local site conditions on soil C concentration. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX F.

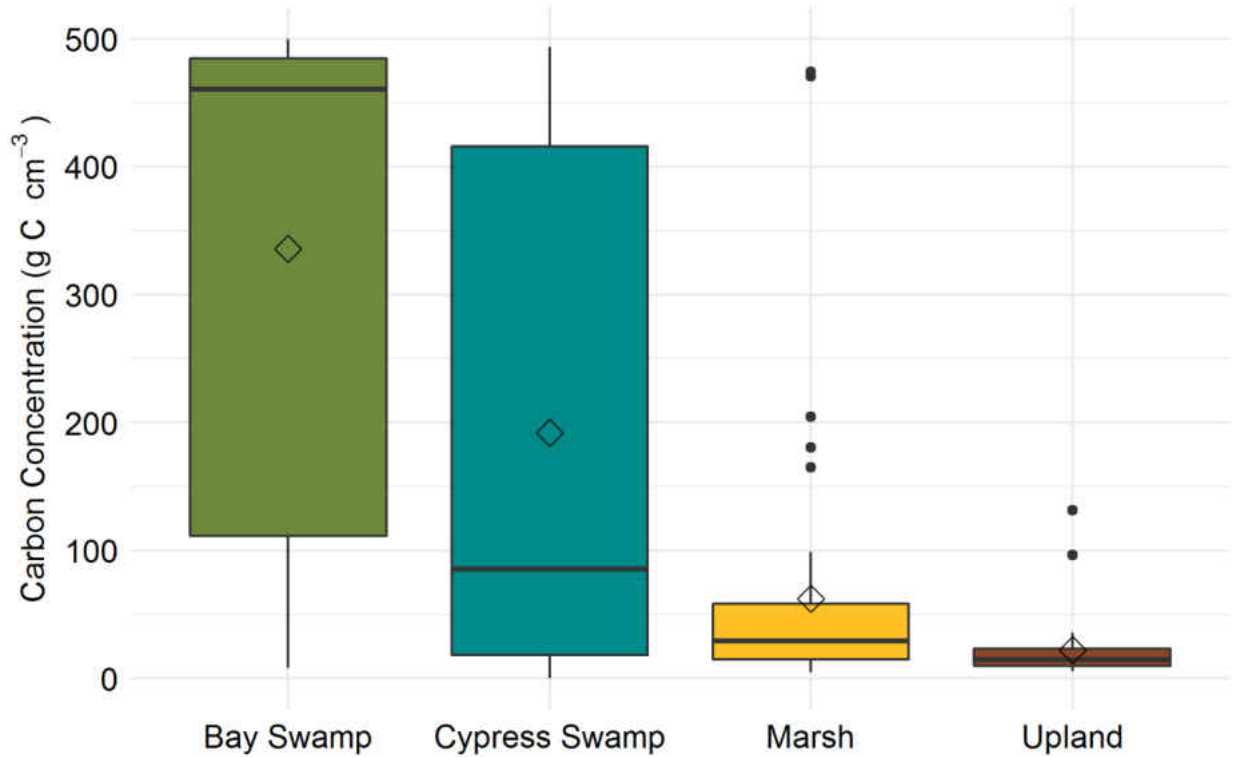


Figure 7. Soil carbon concentration for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.

At each soil depth below 5 cm, bay swamp soils had the highest mean C concentration, followed by cypress swamp, marsh, and upland soils (Fig. 8). In the 0-5 cm soil depth, mean C concentration was not significantly different among the wetland communities. At the 5-10 cm depth, there was no significant difference in mean soil C concentration between cypress and bay swamps, but both were significantly higher than marsh and upland. After 10 cm depth, all differences in mean soil C concentration across community types are significant. The total random effect variance due to individual wetlands, transects, and soil cores (1.25) was on par

with or greater than the estimates of the fixed effect parameters, indicating significant variability in soil C concentration due to site and sampling location.

Soil C concentration tended to decline with increasing soil depth in all community types. In the both the upland and cypress soils, there was a significant decrease in soil C concentration in each segment for the top 0-20 cm, but no significant change below 20 cm depth. Similarly, the marsh soil exhibited a significant decrease in soil C concentration to a 30 cm depth, but no significant decrease below 30 cm. In bay swamp soils, C concentrations did not change in the upper 20 cm of the profile, but declined significantly below 20 cm, although there were no significant differences among layers from 20-50 cm. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX G.

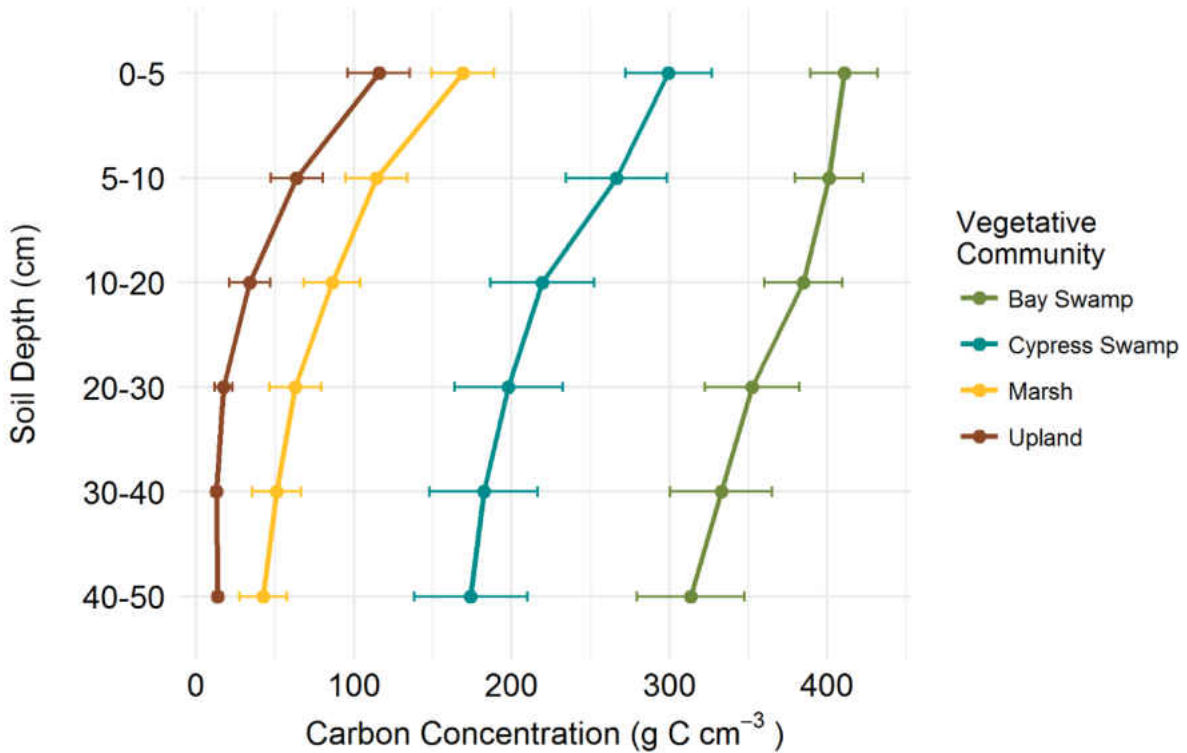


Figure 8. Mean soil carbon concentration by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

The following function was the most plausible model for predicting soil C concentration from wetland ecological and hydrological variables at the study sites (Table 5):

```
glmmadmb(C_Conc ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com+Seg_Code*Pt_Com + (1|WL_ID/TR_ID/Pt_ID),  
          data = SegData, family = "Gamma")
```

Where C_Conc is the soil C concentration (g cm^{-3}) of an soil core segment, WD_avg is the mean water depth, Pt_Com is the vegetative community, Seg_Code is the soil depth segment, WL_ID is the individual wetland sampled, TR_ID is the transect ID number, and Pt_ID is the core identification number. The model includes the individual effects of mean water depth, vegetative community, and soil depth as well as interactive effects between mean water depth and vegetative community and between soil depth and vegetative community. Mean water depth was a significant predictor of soil C concentration in bay swamp and marsh soils ($p < 0.001$) but not in upland or cypress swamp soils. The total random effect variance from sampling location embedded within wetlands and sampling transects (1.136) was similar to or greater than many estimates from the fixed effect parameters, suggesting that local site conditions had significant influence on variation of soil C concentration. The model output and residual plots are in APPENDIX H, along with the statistical model for soil C concentration at DWP.

Table 5. AICc output showing the dAICc value, degrees of freedom (df), AICc weight, and percentage deviance explained (Devex) of the top five models for soil carbon concentration. Table truncated to omit all other models with AICc weights < 0.001.

Model (Fixed Effects)	dAICc	df	weight	Devex
C_Conc ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com+Seg_Code*Pt_Com	0.0	32	1	13.55
C_Conc ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com*Seg_Code	25.9	52	< 0.001	13.75
C_Conc ~ Pt_Com*Seg_Code	29.2	28	< 0.001	13.16
C_Conc ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com+Seg_Code	51.0	17	< 0.001	12.68
C_Conc ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com*WD_SD+Seg_Code	54.3	25	< 0.001	12.83

In marsh and bay swamp soils, soil C concentration increased with increasing mean water depth (Fig. 9). There was no significant relationship between mean water depth and soil C concentration in cypress swamp or upland soils. There is also no discernable pattern between mean water depth and soil depth.

In bay swamps, there was a dramatic shift in soil C concentration after mean water depth crosses the 0 m (ground surface) threshold towards high C concentration at all depths (with a few exceptions). Although there are some bay swamp segments with low C concentration, these low values are not observed in locations with positive mean water depths. There also appears to be little change in bay swamp soil C concentration with increasing depth after crossing the 0 m threshold.

The increase in soil C concentration with increasing water depth is more gradual in marsh soils, but again the highest C concentrations only occur when mean water levels are above the ground surface. In cypress swamps, soil C concentration does not vary significantly with mean water depth, however almost all of the cypress sampling locations had mean water depths greater than 0 m. contrasting with bay swamps, cypress swamps exhibit a wide range of soil C concentrations with the same and deeper mean water depths. Soil C concentration in upland

communities also does not vary significantly with mean water depth, but occupies the different end of the hydrologic spectrum than cypress swamps, with very few upland samples collected from locations with mean water levels greater than the ground surface.

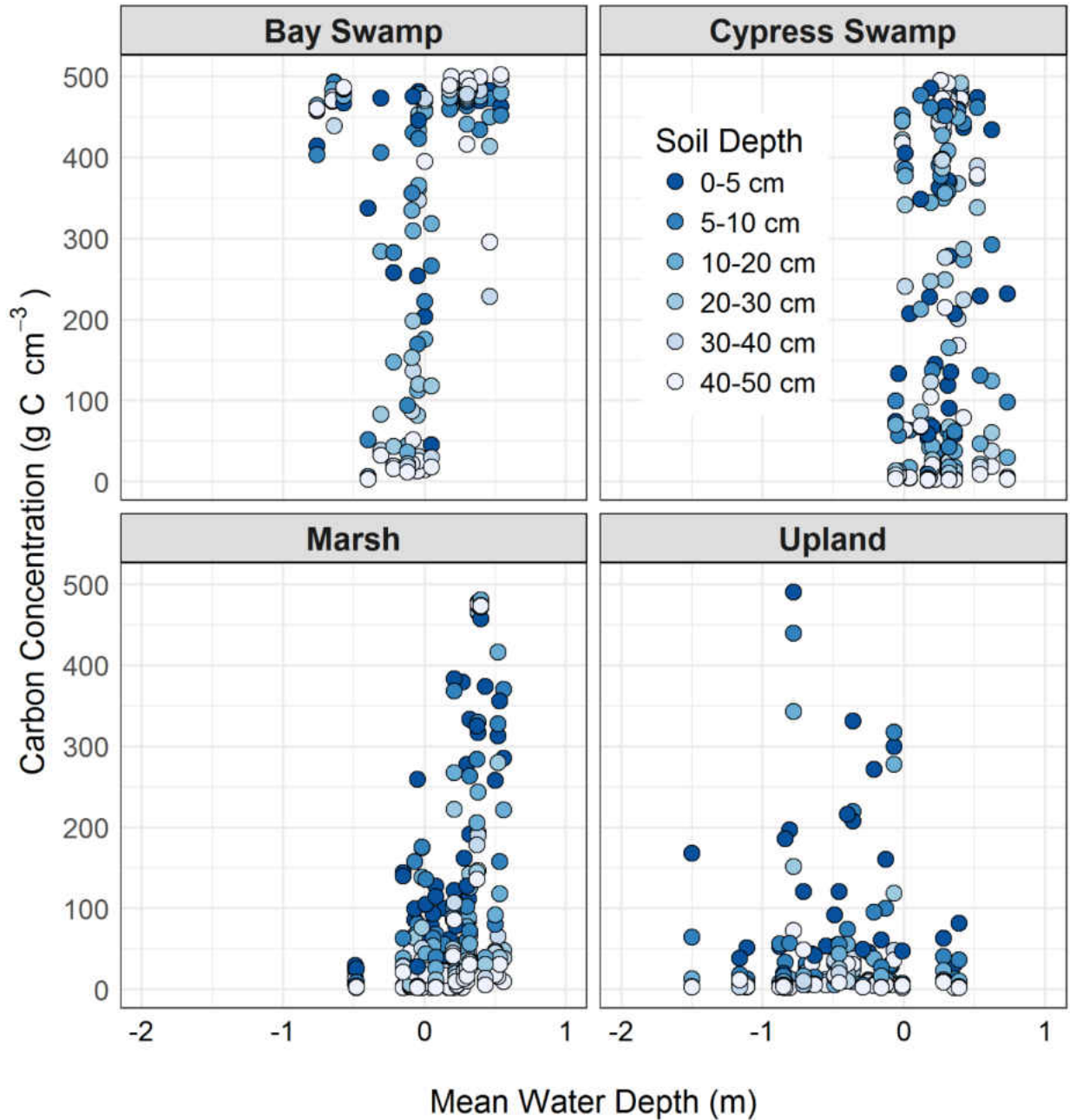


Figure 9. Soil carbon concentration along a hydrologic gradient and by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities.

Soil Bulk Density

Mean soil bulk density for the top 50 cm was significantly different across all wetland communities: marsh soils had the highest mean bulk density, followed by cypress and bay swamp soils, respectively (Fig 10). Bulk density in upland soils was not significantly different from that in marsh soil but was significantly higher than bulk density in both bay and cypress swamp soils. Bulk density was heavily skewed in bay swamps towards higher densities and skewed in the uplands towards lower densities, with a few low density outliers. The combined random effect variance (0.17) is smaller than the community estimates, indicating more variation in soil bulk density is explain by overall differences among vegetative communities rather than variance in local site conditions. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX I.

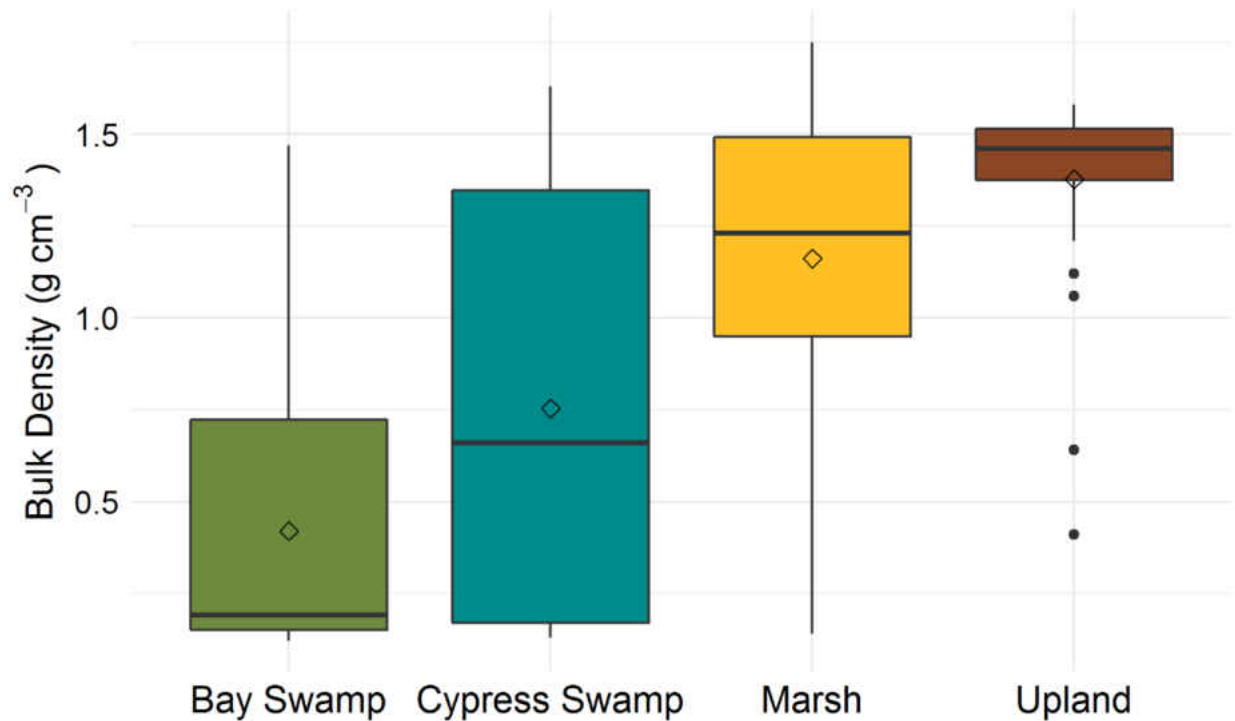


Figure 10. Soil bulk density for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the means, horizontal bars the medians.

At each depth segment, mean soil bulk density is greatest in the upland communities, followed by marsh, cypress swamp, and bay swamp (Fig. 11). This pattern is the inverse of that seen with soil C concentration in each community. Mean soil bulk density is significantly different in each community type for the top 0-20 cm. At 20-50 cm, there is no significant difference between marsh and upland soils, but both have significantly higher mean soil bulk densities than the swamp soils. In each community type, mean soil bulk density increased with depth. In bay swamps, there was a significant increase in mean bulk density with increasing depth until 30 cm, but no difference among depths from 30-50 cm. In cypress swamp, marshes, and upland soils, mean bulk density increased significantly with increasing depth in the top 0-20 cm. At greater depths, there was no significant change in bulk density in upland soils but the greatest depths (40-50 cm) in cypress swamp and marsh soils had significantly higher densities than the 20-30 cm depth. The combined random effect variance (0.16) is again lower than the estimates for individual community types and soil depths. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX J.

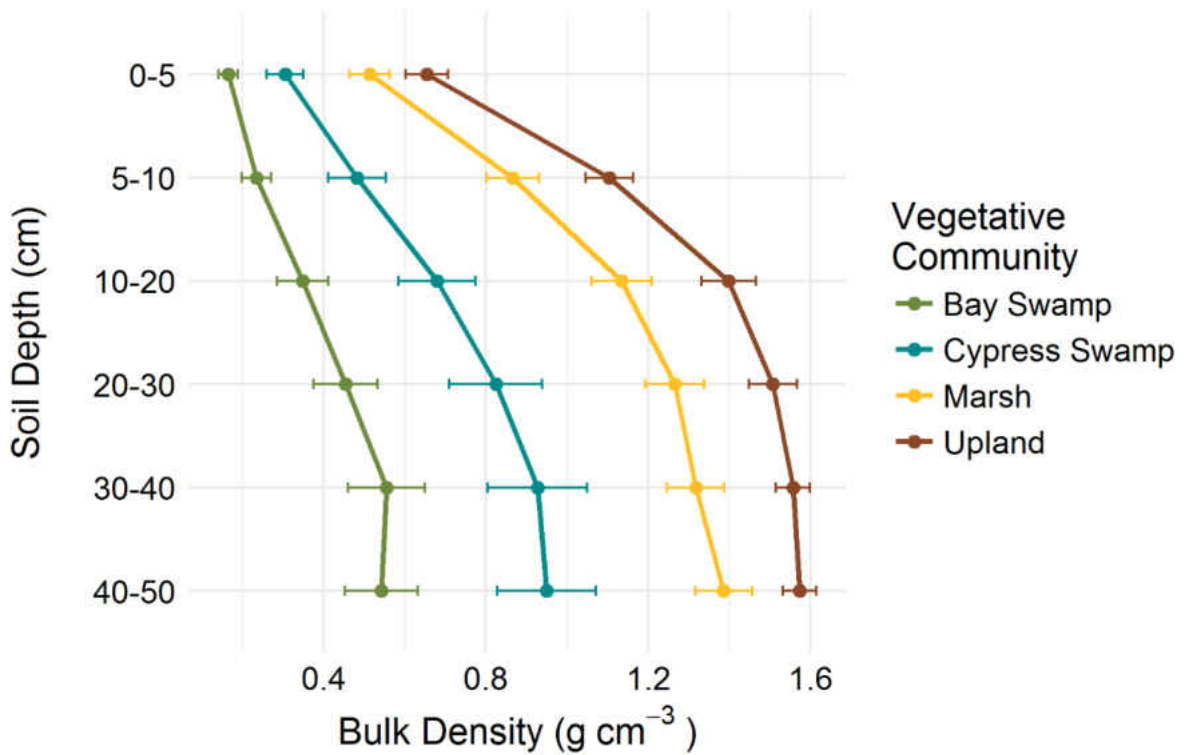


Figure 11. Mean soil bulk density by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

Soil Carbon Stock

Soil C stock in the upper 50 cm of soil was significantly higher in bay swamps than all other communities and lowest in upland communities (Fig. 12). Mean soil C stocks in cypress swamps and marshes falls between the mean stocks in bay swamp and upland but are not significantly different from each other. This pattern is similar to the one seen between soil C concentration and vegetative community. Soil C stock was mostly normally distributed in all communities, but more was more variable in cypress swamps and marshes when compared with bay swamp and upland communities. The combined random effect variance (0.09) is an order of magnitude smaller than the estimates for the individual vegetative communities. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX K.

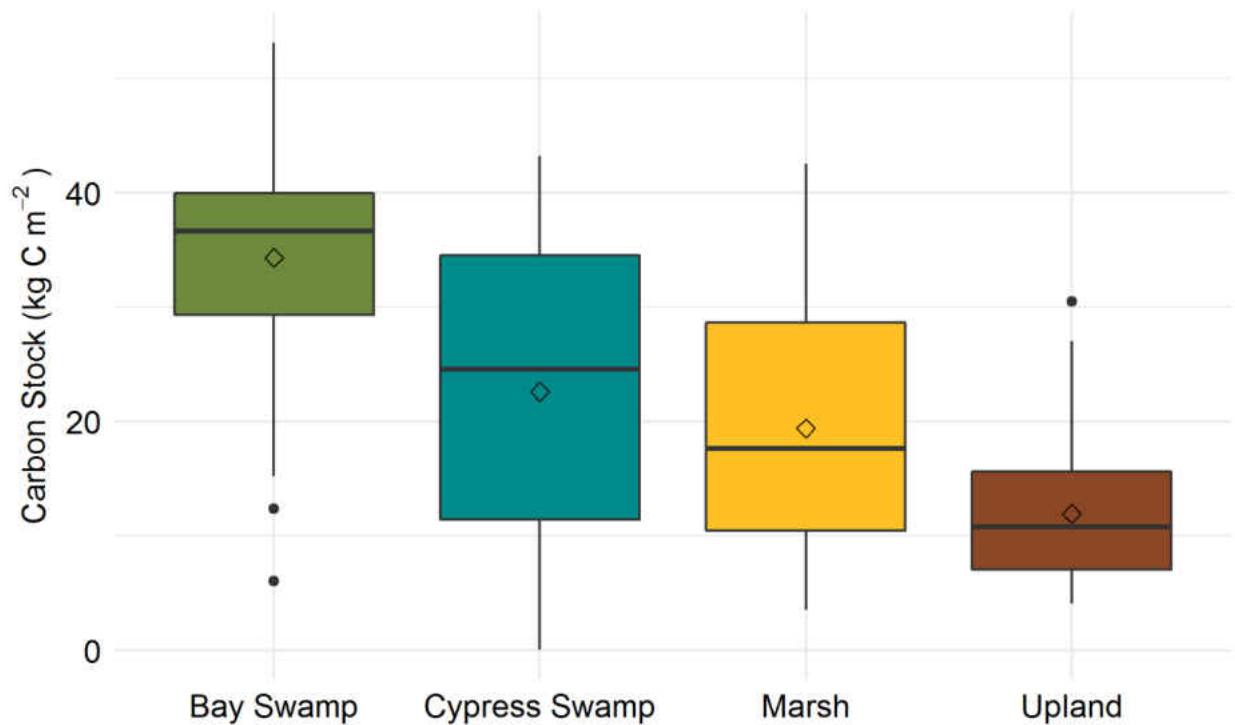


Figure 12. Soil carbon stock for 0-50 cm depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Diamonds represent the mean, horizontal bars the median.

At each soil depth except the 0-5 cm depth, bay swamps had the highest mean soil C stock, followed by cypress swamps, marshes, and uplands (Fig. 13). In the top 5 cm, mean C stock was significantly higher in bay than cypress swamps, but did not differ significantly among other communities. In the 5-10 cm depth, mean soil C stock was significantly lower in upland soils compared with wetlands soils, but the wetland soils did not differ from each other. At 10-20 cm, cypress swamps were is not significantly different from either bay swamps or marshes. At 20-50 cm, mean soil C stock was different among all communities except between cypress swamp and marsh soils.

In each wetland type, there was an increase in mean soil C stock between 5-10 cm and 10-20 cm with a decrease in mean soil C stock with increasing soil depth below 20 cm. In bay swamps,

there was a significant increase in mean soil C stock from 0-5 cm to 5-10 cm. Mean C stock in the top 10 cm was significantly less than mean C stock at deeper layers, but there is not much significant change in mean C stock in the 10-50 cm segments. In cypress swamps, mean C stock at 10-20 cm is significantly higher than mean C stock at all other depths. After 20 cm, mean C stock resembles the values found in the upper 10 cm. A similar pattern in mean C stock appears in marsh soils. Mean soil C stock in upland communities did not exhibit the increase at 10-20 cm that occurred in the wetlands, but exhibits an over decrease in mean C stock with depth. The combined random effect variance (0.31) is on par with some of the fixed effect parameter estimates, indicating soil C stock varied greatly by local site conditions. The model output and residuals are shown in APPENDIX L.

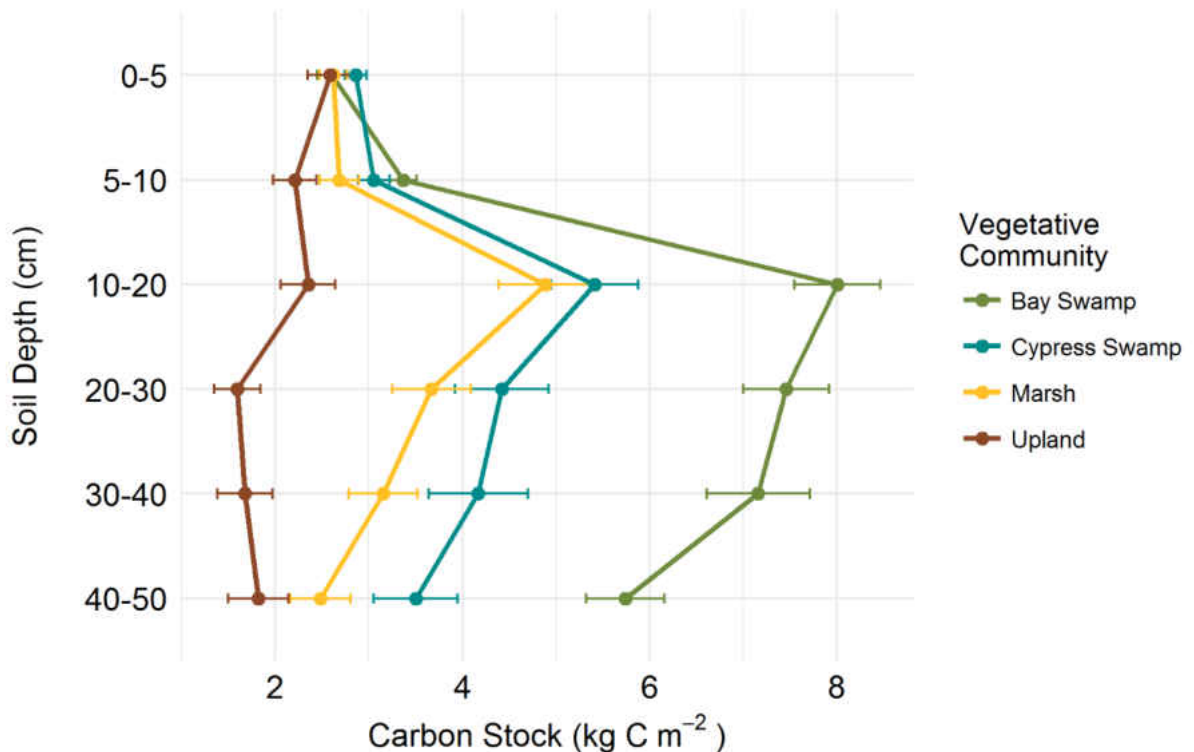


Figure 13. Mean soil carbon stock by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

The function for the most plausible model predicting soil C stock from wetland ecological and hydrological variables was:

```
glmmadmb(C_Stock ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com+Seg_Code*Pt_Com + (1|WL_ID/TR_ID/Pt_ID),  
          data = SegData, family = "Gamma")
```

Where C_Stock is the total soil C (kg C m^{-2}) of an individual sample (see above for definitions of other variables) (Table 6). This model configuration is identical to that of the model for soil C concentration and includes the individual effects of mean water depth, vegetative community, and soil depth as well as interaction effects between mean water depth and vegetative community and between soil depth and vegetative community. The total random effect variance from individual wetlands, transects, and soil cores (0.120) was an order of magnitude lower than the random effect variance for the glmm predicting soil C concentration (1.136) indicating that the fixed effects of water depth, vegetative community, and soil depth explained more variation in soil C stock and that less variation in soil C stock was attributed to local site conditions. This model also fits the data better than the soil C concentration model, as shown by the model residual plots. The model output, residuals plots, and the statistical model are in APPENDIX M.

Table 6. AICc output showing the dAICc value, degrees of freedom (df), AICc weight, and percentage deviance explained (Devex) of the top five models for soil carbon stock. Table truncated to omit all other models with AICc weights < 0.001.

Model (Fixed Effects)	dAICc	df	weight	Devex
C_Stock ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com+Seg_Code*Pt_Com	0.0	32	1	18.88
C_Stock ~ Pt_Com*Seg_Code	16.7	28	< 0.001	18.17
C_Stock ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com*Seg_Code	19.1	52	< 0.001	19.58
C_Stock ~ WD_avg*Seg_Code	97.3	16	< 0.001	15.24
C_Stock ~ WD_avg*Pt_Com*WD_SD+Seg_Code	100.7	25	< 0.001	15.68

Mean water depth was only a significant predictor of C stock in marsh soils. The pattern of increasing soil C stock with increasing mean water depth in marshes looks very similar to the pattern with soil C concentration (Fig. 14). In the bay swamp, cypress swamp, and upland communities, soil C stock distribution did not vary significantly with mean water depth.

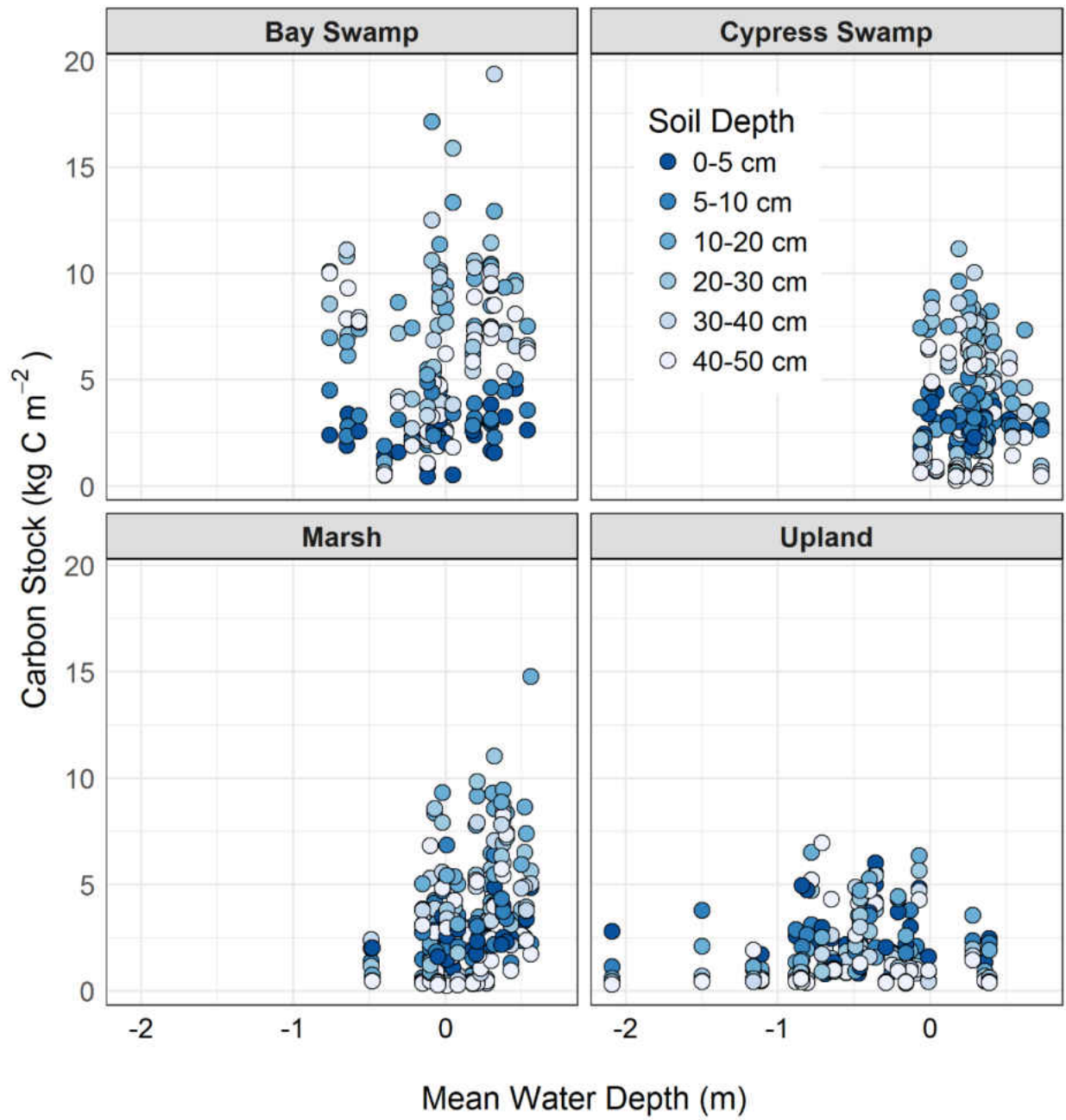


Figure 14. Soil carbon stock along a hydrologic gradient and by soil depth in three wetland communities and adjacent upland communities.

Wetland Contribution to Soil Carbon Stocks at the Landscape Scale

To estimate site-wide soil C storage in the upper 50 cm for each wetland community, I multiplied the mean soil C stock (kg C m⁻²) by the areal coverage of each community at the Disney Wilderness Preserve (Table 7). Even though bay swamps covered an area approximately equal to the area covered by cypress swamp and marshes, bay swamp soils stored approximately 66% more total C than each of the other wetland types, and had the greatest concentration of soil C in the top 50 cm, 340 Mg ha⁻¹. Total soil C was similar in cypress swamp (230 Mg C ha⁻¹) and marsh soils (195 Mg C ha⁻¹). Combined, these three wetland communities stored approximately 260 Mg ha⁻¹ and a total of approximately 204,970 Mg of C in the upper 50 cm of soil at the site.

Table 7. Estimated total carbon stored in the upper 50 cm of soil in three wetland communities at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

Soil Depth	Total Carbon (kg)		
	Bay Swamp	Cypress Swamp	Marsh
0-5 cm	7,067,680	6,835,400	7,519,400
5-10 cm	8,039,960	7,301,450	7,700,210
10-20 cm	21,701,680	12,939,460	14,017,080
20-30 cm	20,211,180	10,566,190	10,535,770
30-40 cm	19,403,600	9,963,910	9,049,110
40-50 cm	15,555,400	8,367,390	7,120,470
Total	93,055,980	55,973,800	55,942,040

Percent soil C was much higher in the wetland community types sampled in this study than in upland soils sampled at the site by Becker (2011) (Table 9). The wetland-upland ecotones sampled in this study also had higher percentage soil C in the upper 30 cm compared to the uplands sampled by Becker, however mean percentage C is approximately equal for both in the 30-60 cm segment.

Table 8. Percentage soil carbon in communities at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

	Community	Percentage Carbon	
		<u>0-30 cm</u>	<u>30-60 cm</u>
Becker 2011	Scrubby Flatwoods	0.8	0.3
	Longleaf Pine Flatwoods	1.7	1.8
	Pasture in Restoration	2.5	0.9
	Unrestored Pasture	3.1	1.4
	Slash Pine Flatwoods	4.2	0.8
This Study	Bay Swamp	38.8	33
	Cypress Swamp	27.0	17.5
	Marsh	10.8	4.5
	Upland Ecotone	5.5	1

To compare my soil C estimates with those for uplands sampled by Becker (2011), I estimated soil C stock in the wetlands from this study by assuming consistent soil C stocks from the last segment (40-50 cm) for the remaining 50-90 cm (Table 10). I then calculated the proportion of land area and total soil C stock for each wetland community and the combined uplands from Becker's study. These calculations exclude approximately 1,000 ha of ecosystems at DWP including floodplain swamps, scrub, and open water. Bay swamps continued to be the greatest soil C pool and alone stored approximately 40% as much soil C in the upper 90 cm as the uplands sampled by Becker. Together, the sampled wetland communities cover approximately 22% of area of sampled communities at DWP, yet store approximately 47% of the total soil C to a 90 cm depth.

Table 9. Coverage and estimated soil carbon storage in the upper 90 cm of soil for three wetland communities (this study) and upland communities (Becker 2011) at the Disney Wilderness Preserve.

Community	Cover (ha)	Proportion of Cover	Carbon (kg)	Proportion of Total Site Carbon
Bay Swamp	271	7.5%	155,277,580	22.3%
Cypress Swamp	239	6.6%	89,443,360	12.8%
Marsh	287	7.9%	79,660,400	11.4%
Uplands (Becker 2011)	2823	78.0%	371,861,000	53.4%
Total	3620		696,242,340	

DISCUSSION

Hydrology and Soil Carbon

Results from this study showed mixed support for the prediction that greater mean water depth and longer mean hydroperiod would be associated with increased C storage in wetlands soils. Average water depth was an important explanatory factor for soil C concentration and total C stock, and its effect was comparable to or smaller than the effects of wetland community type. Hydroperiod was likewise a significant, yet weak, explanatory variable for soil C concentration and total C stock even though it was not included in the top models. As expected, wetlands had both higher soil C concentration and stock than the neighboring upland communities, which is consistent with literature findings that hydric wetland soils accumulate and store more soil C than drier upland soils (Mitra et al. 2005; Bridgham et al. 2006; Bernal and Mitsch 2008; Vasques et al. 2010; Ross, Grunwald, and Myers 2013; Xiong et al. 2014). Also, soil C concentration and stock was higher in cypress swamps, which had higher mean water levels and longer mean hydroperiods, than in marshes, with lower mean water levels and shorter mean hydroperiods. However, bay swamps, which had by far the greatest C stocks, did not have higher water levels than the other wetland types. Furthermore, due to high variability in soil C stock within wetlands, there was not always a strong relationship between water depth and soil C storage within wetland types, indicating that local factors other than water depth had an equally or more important influence than average water depth.

Another recent study in Florida showed that shorter hydroperiod swamps held 50-60% less C than longer hydroperiod wetlands (Lewis and Feit 2015). However, the effect of hydroperiod on soil C stock in that study disappeared when hydroperiod was calculated over longer time

frames (> 2 years) and water elevation was interpolated to daily values from 1-2 readings per month, which may have introduced significant error into hydroperiod estimates. Results from my study give general support for the finding that more saturated locations within wetlands have higher soil C content (Bernal and Mitsch 2008; Sahuquillo et al. 2012; Hunt et al. 2014; Nyamadzawo et al. 2015), but they also demonstrate that local and site factors in complex landscapes can make it difficult to predict soil C storage from water level or hydroperiod data alone.

For soil C storage, the degree of soil saturation could be as important, if not more important, than duration of inundation based on the fact that water depth was a better predictor of soil C concentration and stock than hydroperiod. Oxygen diffuses about 10,000 times more slowly through water than through air and under saturated conditions soil pore space becomes waterlogged and anoxic (Reddy and DeLaune 2008). Deeper water at a site creates a larger barrier for oxygen to reach the soil-water interface compared to shallower water, an effect that could be as important as prolonged inundation. Mean water depth also represents water level relative to the soil surface instead of a duration of inundation. Even if the soil is not completely inundated, the soil column could still be partially or C saturated, which may sufficiently impede oxygen diffusion and thus aerobic decomposition. Additionally, water depth may be a more robust variable than hydroperiod for this site. Variation in water depth is more evenly distributed across community types than variation in hydroperiod and local site conditions more greatly influenced variation in hydroperiod than in water depth.

Vegetative Community and Soil Carbon

There was strong support for the prediction that there would be a significant effect of wetland plant communities and the interactive effect of on hydrology and vegetative community on soil C storage. While the relationship between water depth and soil C storage was not significant in every community type, vegetative community alone was a significant predictor of both soil C stock and soil C concentration. The strong effect of vegetative community on soil C related to the fact that the current distribution of vegetative communities in the landscape is a response to long term ecological conditions, including hydrologic regime, soil conditions, and fire regime (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Reddy and DeLaune 2008; Taggart et al. 2011; Hu et al. 2016; Krishnaraj et al. 2016).

Soil C sequestration in wetlands is the result of a number of complex factors, many of which are influenced directly or indirectly by hydrology, that affect the input of organic matter into the soil system and the decomposition of this organic matter (Turetsky 2004; Wang et al. 2010; Bernal and Mitsch 2012; Peralta et al. 2014; Jiao et al. 2014; Medvedeff, Inglett, and Inglett 2015). Litter input is an important driver of soil C storage, which varies by community type and hydrology (Day and Megonigal 1993; Grant, Desai, and Sulman 2012; Sulman et al. 2013; Wang, Li, and Zhang 2015) and litter quality can directly affect biomass decomposition rates (Chimney and Pietro 2006; Fanin and Bertrand 2016; Gao, Kang, and Han 2016; Hu et al. 2016).

Decomposition is often slower for woody plants, with more recalcitrant chemical and physical composition, compared to herbaceous plants (Godshalk and Wetzel 1977; Gallagher 1978; DeBusk and Dierberg 1984; Janssen and Walker 1999). Older plants and perennial species also decompose more slowly than younger or annual plants (Brock et al. 1982; Morris and Lajtha 1986). Marshes, which had the lowest soil C concentration and stock of the observed wetlands,

are dominated by varied herbaceous cover that likely decomposes faster than woody swamp litter, leading to higher rates of organic matter turnover in marshes. A cypress community in the North Atlantic region produced significantly less litter compared to a mixed hardwood swamp dominated by broadleaf trees (*Quercus sp.*), and the cypress litter decayed faster than the mixed hardwood litter (Day 1979, 1982). Cypress litter had both higher P and N concentrations and a lower C:N ratio compared with mixed hardwood litter dominated by oak species. Oak litter also had higher concentrations of tannic acid and lignin, which are associated with slower decomposition. Bay tree species (*Magnolia virginiana*, *Gordonia lasianthus*, *Persea palustris*), which dominated bay swamps at DWP, also have waxy, broad leaves that may be more recalcitrant than litter in the cypress swamps or marshes. A study on different types of litter decomposing under common field conditions showed that decomposition rates were very similar for leaves *M. virginiana* (sweetbay) and *Q. virginiana* (live oak), another subtropical evergreen from more upland communities (Monk 1971). This slow litter decomposition could have contributed to more buildup of organic matter in the bay swamp systems, especially under flooded conditions.

Differences in decomposition rate are also supported by the varying organic soil depths in the different types of wetlands, because slower litter decomposition should translate to slower SOM turnover and accumulation of deeper organic soils over time. Marshes had the shallowest layers of organic matter, showing faster SOM turnover in these systems compared with other wetlands. Cypress swamps had more variable SOM depths that were often intermediary in depth between marsh and bay swamp soils. Bay swamps had the deepest organic layers and the highest soil C concentration and stock despite having the lowest mean water levels and shortest mean hydroperiod of the three wetland types. Accumulation of SOM could also have elevated the

ground surface over time, so that using old surveying data to relativize water elevation to the soil surface resulted in errors in water depth calculations, potentially explaining the weak connections between mean water depth and soil C storage in bay swamps.

Estimating Soil Carbon at the Landscape Scale

My final prediction that models based on hydrologic variables such as average water depth and hydroperiod could be used to predict soil C storage at both the local and landscape scales within wetland types was not well supported by this study. The model results suggest that vegetative community type is sufficient for predicting soil C concentration and stock in this landscape and that long-term, detailed water level data was not a good predictor of C storage within wetland types. More complicated hydrologic models could potentially show a stronger relationship between hydroperiod and soil C, but most sites lack the detailed hydrologic data that would be needed for such modelling. To estimate total wetlands soil C storage at the study site, I used the mean soil C stock values and the total cover of each community type on site with the assumption that incorporating hydrologic data into these estimates would not drastically change the soil C estimates.

The wetland soil C stock estimates in this study are slightly higher than, but comparable to, results from other Florida wetlands studies, which also showed that forested wetlands held more soil C than non-forested wetlands (Ross et al. 2013; Marín-Muñiz et al. 2014; Xiong et al. 2014). Estimates of soil C stock to 90 cm in wetlands in this study are higher than soil C stock estimates to 1 m depth for tropical wetlands by Köchy, Hiederer, and Freibauer (2015). Estimated soil C stock in DWP marshes (27.8 kg m^{-2}) was slightly higher than the 95th percentile of tropical freshwater marshes, floodplain marshes, and other marsh wetlands (24.2 kg m^{-2}). Estimated soil

C stock for DWP cypress swamps (37.4 kg m^{-2}) was also higher than the 95th percentile of tropical swamp forest, flooded forest, and wooded wet swamps (33.8), but estimates for DWP bay swamps far exceeded this measure (57.3 kg m^{-2}). However, projecting soil C stock further than a 50 cm depth may overestimate C storage to a certain extent. Observations from this study also support global observations of wetland storing a disproportionate amount of soil C compared to upland ecosystems (Mitra et al. 2005; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Bernal and Mitsch 2008; Vasques et al. 2010; Ross et al. 2013; Xiong et al. 2014).

Together, upland soils held the majority of soil C at DWP, but wetland soils stored a significant amount (47%) disproportionate to their cover. However, this study only measured soil C to a 50 cm depth and estimated soil C stock site-wide to a 90 cm depth. Mean SOM depths exceeded 50 cm in bay swamps ($1.72 \text{ m} \pm 5.70$), cypress swamps ($0.67 \text{ m} \pm 0.47$), and marshes (0.73 ± 1.02). Peat in swamps at DWP can be over 5 m deep, while upland soil organic layers tend to be relatively shallow ($< 50 \text{ cm}$) (Helton 1996). Accounting for the C stored in deeper organic soils could show that bay swamps (and cypress swamps to a lesser extent) alone represent an even larger pool of C in this landscape.

Wetland Restoration and Soil Carbon

Restoring degraded wetlands is becoming a more common approach to protect wetland cover and reinstate more natural ecological structure and functioning. Wetland restoration often involves re-flooding drained wetlands to meet historic or target hydropattern regimes. Drained wetland soils can lose soil C more easily through aerobic microbial respiration and therefore often store less soil C long term (Bridgham, Updegraff, and Pastor 1998; Zedler and Kercher 2005; Fenner and Freeman 2011; Gao et al. 2014; Mastný et al. 2016). Given the link between

hydrology and soil C storage in wetlands, re-flooding drained wetlands is often expected to restore soil C accumulation and storage.

Restoration ecology is a relatively young field and there are still many questions about the responses and success rates of wetland restoration. Responses of wetlands to restoration are highly variable, even at the regional scale (Bullinger-Weber et al. 2014). Increasing soil saturation can depress soil C mineralization rates (Lewis, Brown, and Jimenez 2014) and also protect soil C from mineralization through fire (Wade, Ewel, and Hofstetter 1980; Gunderson and Snyder 1994). In the short term, restored wetlands usually have less soil C than natural “reference” wetlands (Bishel-Machung et al. 1996; Kluber et al. 2014), but many show higher soil C stocks than degraded wetlands (Streeter and Schilling 2017).

Many studies observe relatively quick response of wetlands to restoration, noting slower C turnover and higher soil C storage within a few months or years (Tuittila et al. 1999; Waddington and Price 2000; Cagampan and Waddington 2008) or even restored wetland soil C matching reference wetlands within 8-10 years (Gao et al. 2014). But other studies observe that soil C in restored wetlands may not change significantly or catch up to natural wetlands in the short term (Theriot et al. 2013; Hunt et al. 2014). Longer time frames (> 10 years) may be needed to see significant changes in SOM quality and quantity (Mitsch and Wilson 1996; Moreno-Mateos et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2015; Mastný et al. 2016). Streeter and Schilling (2017) observed that SOC in restored wetlands still did not match SOC in natural wetlands 30 years after restoration. Soil C in the top 0-20 cm increased over 20 years after restoration, but SOC did not change in the deeper layers, demonstrating the slow process of accumulating organic soils in wetlands. Soil recovery also may not follow a linear trajectory towards reference conditions. Several studies observed significant soil OM increases in the first few years following restoration, with slower rates of

SOM increase after 15-20 years (Nair et al. 2001; Campbell, Cole, and Brooks 2002; Spieles, Coneybeer, and Horn 2006; Hernandez and Mitsch 2007; Ballantine and Schneider 2009)

Although restoration project success or satisfactory results are not guaranteed (Zedler and Callaway 1999; Zedler 2000; Ballantine et al. 2012).

The restoration of DWP was in agreement with the goals for CERP. Some have speculated that increasing water storage in the landscape will lead to an increase in soil C storage. Based on the fact that water depth had a stronger relationship with soil C storage in marshes than swamps, increasing water storage in marshes at DWP could have resulted in a significant increase in soil C storage, but the impact of altered hydrology on swamp soils is less clear. Wetlands clearly store a disproportionately large amount of soil C at the landscape scale, however predicting soil C outcomes from altering water levels in any wetland system may prove difficult. The lack of pre-restoration data at DWP also makes assessing how much SOM was lost during drainage difficult. This site was drained and ranched for over 100 years, yet land use was not intensive compared to other degraded wetlands that are ranched or farmed and therefore may not have deviated greatly from current conditions in some less impacted wetlands. However, hydrologic restoration could have also increased the footprint of wetlands at DWP, increasing inundation of wetland-upland ecotone regions, leading to more soil C storage across the site.

Wetland Soil Carbon and Climate Change

The role of wetlands in the global C cycle continues to be elucidated and the fate of wetlands and their soil C stocks is uncertain in the face of global climate change. Wetlands are large C pools that can act as both sinks of CO₂ in vegetation and soil and sources of CH₄ from anaerobic respiration (Mitsch and Gosselink 2007, Reddy and DeLaune 2008). Climate change

brings a suite of changes to drivers of soil C dynamics in wetlands including increasing temperatures, altered precipitation patterns, sea level rise and salt water intrusion, increased CO₂ concentrations, and increasing evapotranspiration (Wagner et al. 1996; Mitsch and Gosselink 2007; Chambers et al. 2014; Shand et al. 2017; Yao et al. 2017; Zhao et al. 2017). These drivers could indirectly impact water table levels, fire dynamics, and species composition patterns, which in turn will feed back into the other drivers. The response of wetlands across the globe to these varying drivers will be highly variable (Mitra et al. 2005; Erwin 2009).

Wetland soil C reserves are highly labile and will quickly decompose under drier conditions, meaning higher temperatures and lower water tables can result in faster SOC loss (Sulman et al. 2013; Lewis et al. 2014; Xiong et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2016). Increased primary productivity from could initially compensate for soil carbon loss, possibly even leading to net carbon gains in wetland ecosystems or at the landscape scale in the short term (up to 100 years) (Sulman et al. 2013). Xiong et al. (2014) found that Florida soils have been a net C sink over past 40 years and estimate that Florida soils will continue to be a C sink given climate projections. However, if precipitation decreases, the combination of less rainfall and higher evapotranspiration (from increase primary productivity) could cause “catastrophic” soil C losses, working against goals to store more C in wetland soils (Orem et al. 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

Average water depth was an important explanatory factor for soil C concentration and total C stock, and its effect was comparable to or smaller than the effects of wetland community type. However, due to high variability in soil C stock within wetlands, there was not always a strong relationship between water depth and soil C storage within wetland types, indicating that local factors other than water depth had an equally or more important influence than average water depth. Water depth was a better predictor variable of soil C than hydroperiod, suggesting soil saturation is important for soil C storage and not just length of inundation. The influence of vegetative community type was comparable to or more powerful than that of water depth, likely due to differences in litter inputs among other factors, yet vegetative community distribution is also not independent of hydrologic regime. Wetlands at the study site stored approximately 47% of C to 90 cm depth while representing 22% of analyzed land cover. Among the wetland types, bay swamps stored the most C to 50 cm depth, holding over 20% DWP's soil C while representing approximately 7.5% of the area of interest. This does not account for the fact that bay swamps have the deepest average peat layers of the communities in this study and therefore are likely to hold a much larger proportion of the total soil C than was represented in this study. Future studies and better accounting for soils stocks in these systems should consider total depths of organic layers. Re-flooding the drained wetlands at DWP likely increased soil C storage within wetland boundaries, especially in marsh and bay swamps (which showed significant relationship between water depth and soil C), and also could have increased soil C storage across the site by expanding wetland boundaries and increasing wetland coverage across DWP, relative to pre-restoration wetlands.

**APPENDIX A:
ORGANIC MATTER TO CARBON CONVERSION REGRESSION AND
EQUATION**

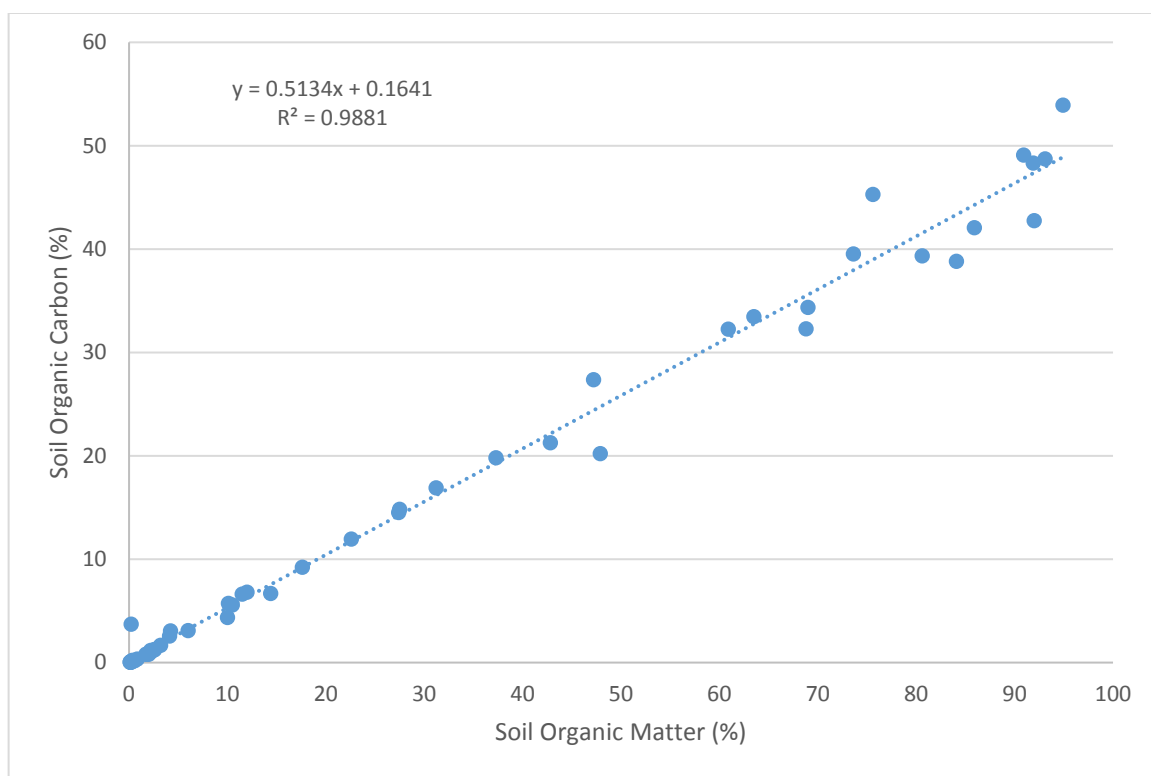


Figure A- 1. Relationship between soil organ matter and soil carbon and conversion equation.

**APPENDIX B:
MANUAL MONITORING WELL AND CONTINUOUS RECORDER
REGRESSIONS AND CONVERSION EQUATIONS**

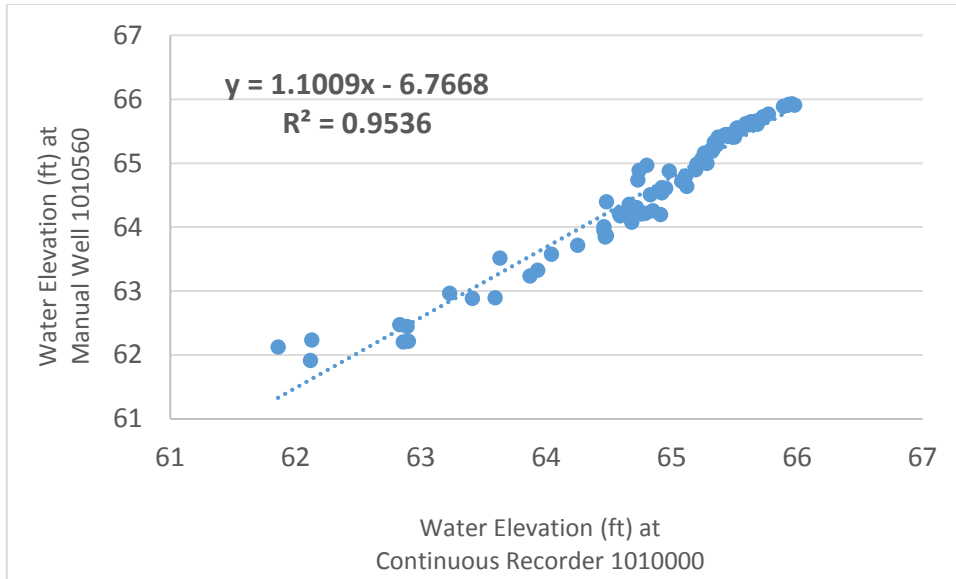


Figure B- 1. Water elevation regression of manual well 1010560 vs. continuous recorder 1010000.

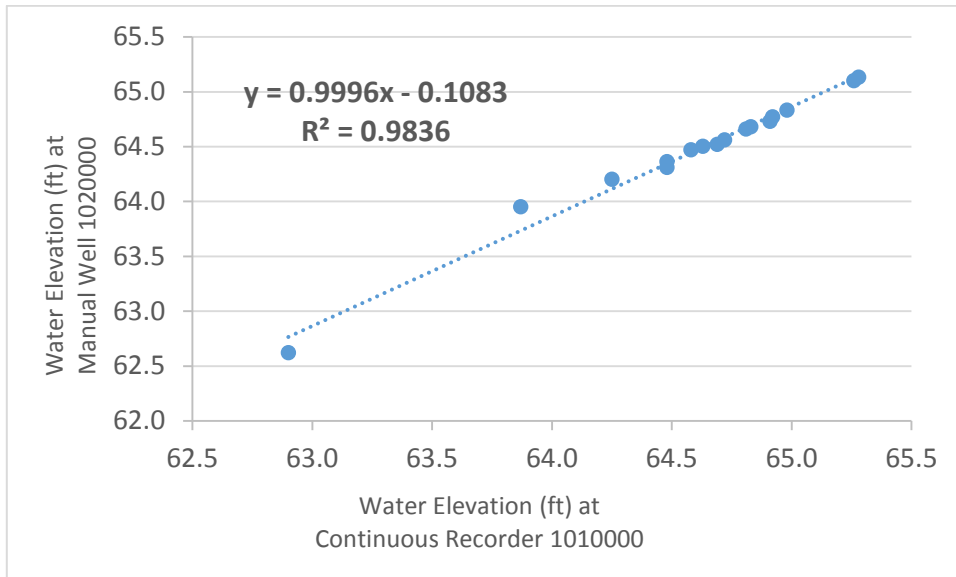


Figure B- 2. Water elevation regression of manual well 1020000 vs. continuous recorder 1010000.

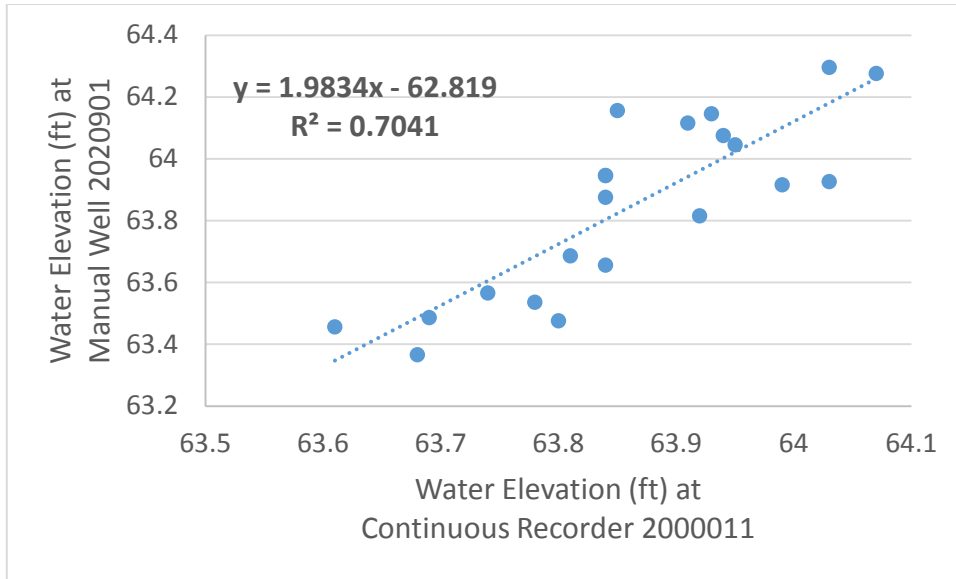


Figure B- 3. Water elevation regression of manual well 2020901 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

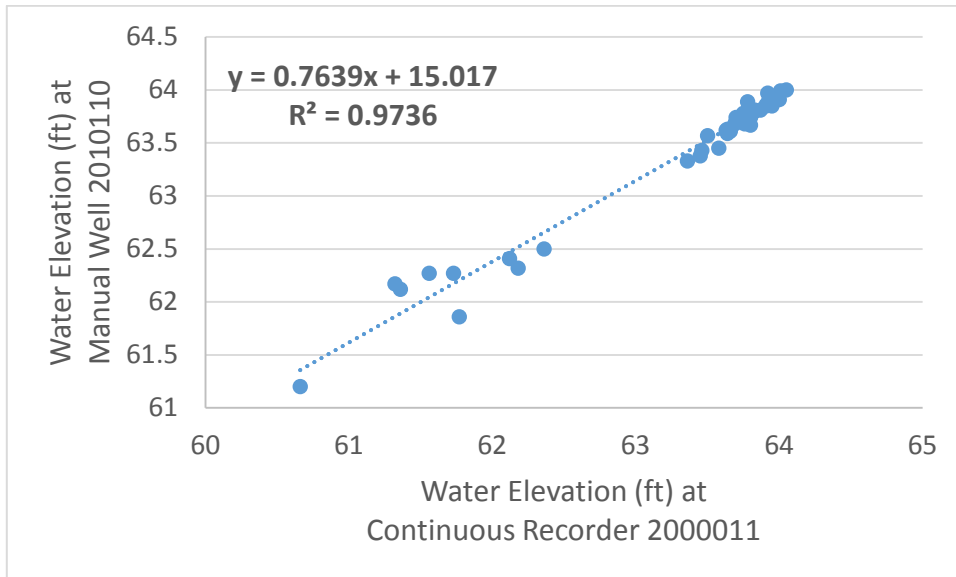


Figure B- 4. Water elevation regression of manual well 2010110 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

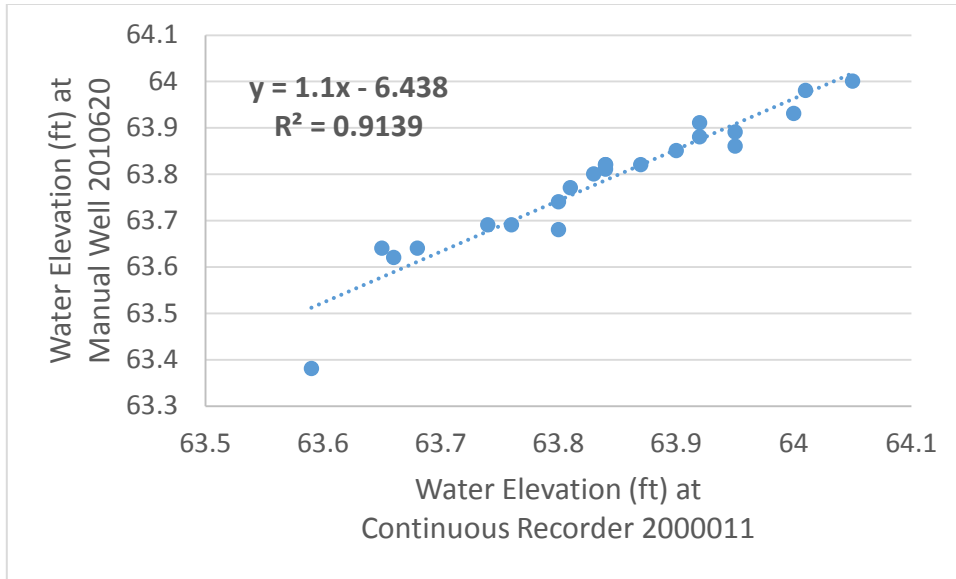


Figure B- 5. Water elevation regression of manual well 2010620 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

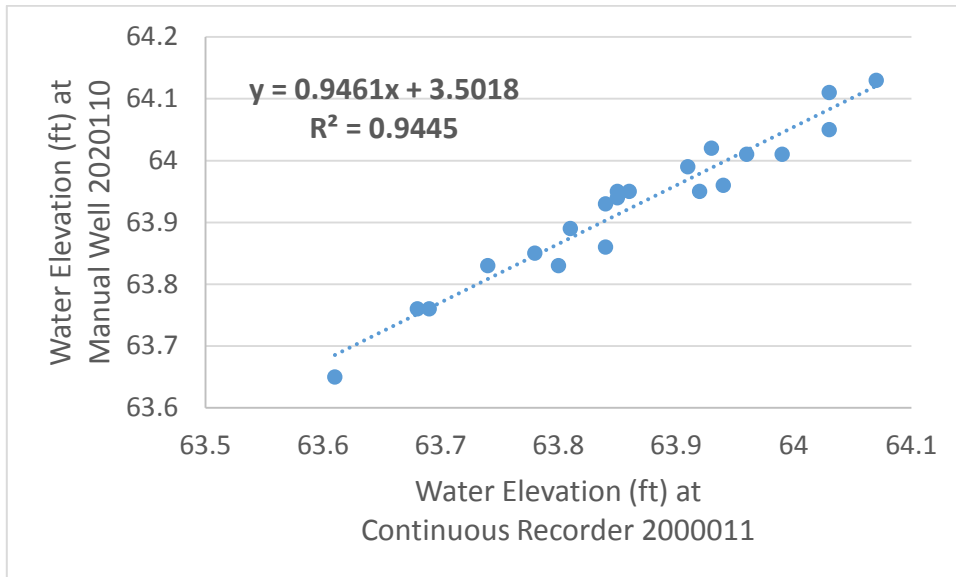


Figure B- 6. Water elevation regression of manual well 2020110 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

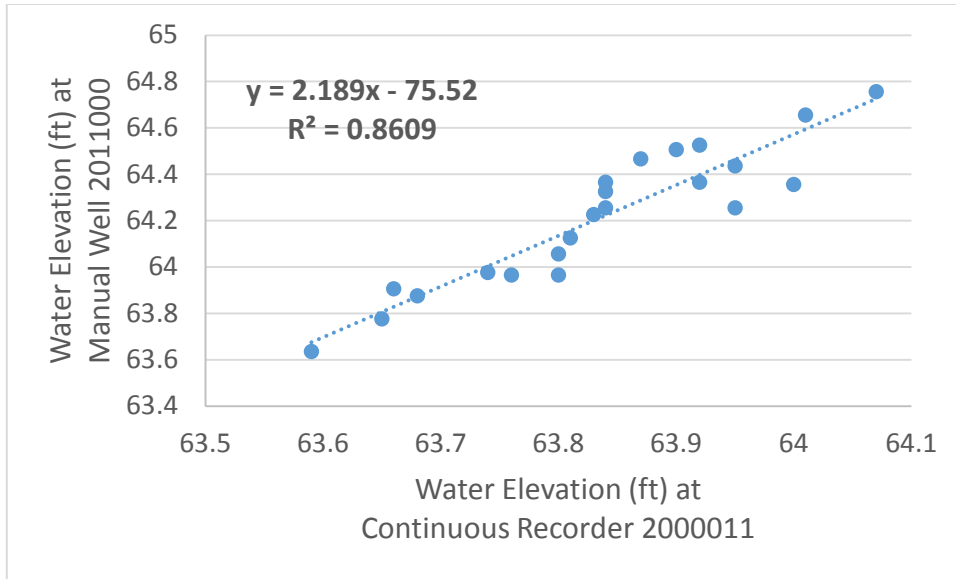


Figure B- 7. Water elevation regression of manual well 2011000 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

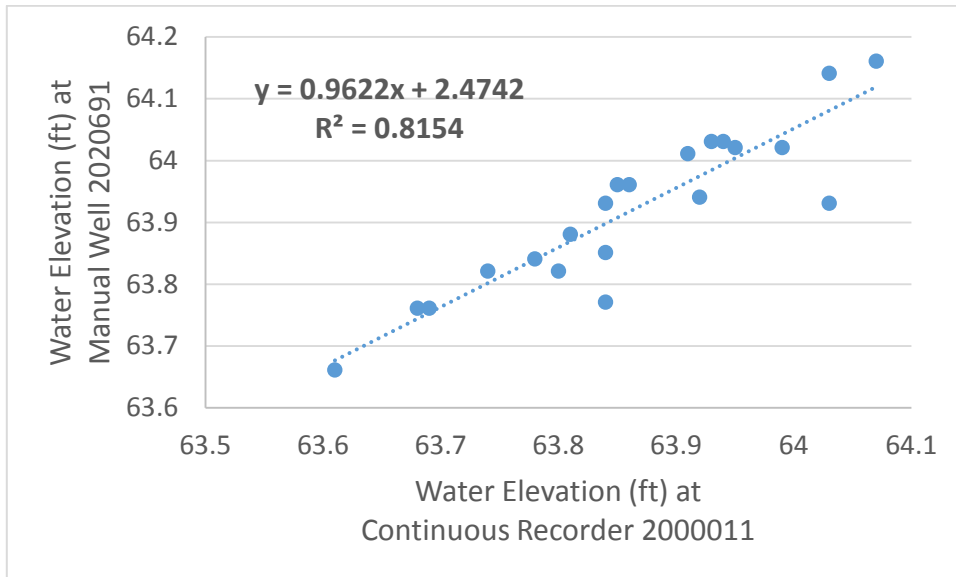


Figure B- 8. Water elevation regression of manual well 2020691 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

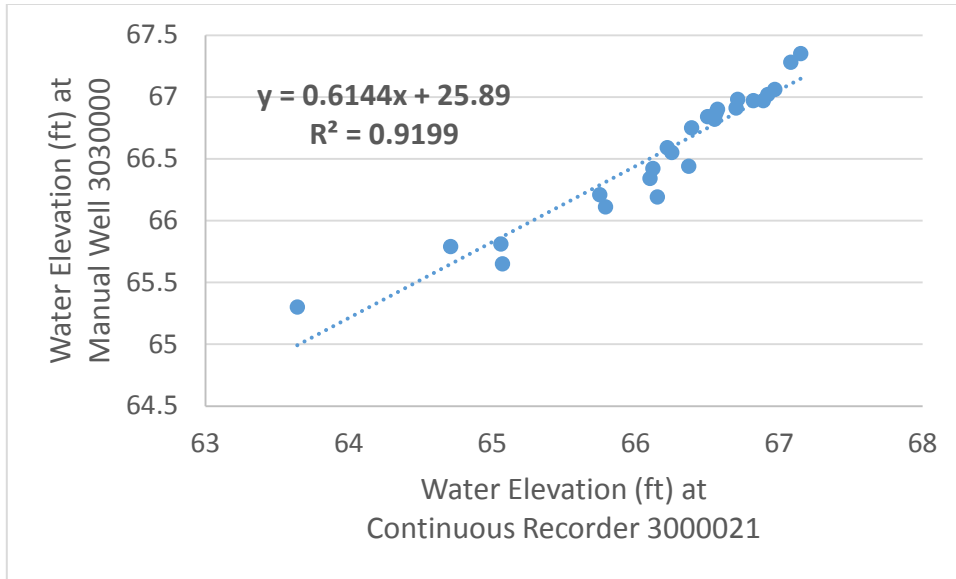


Figure B- 9. Water elevation regression of manual well 3030000 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

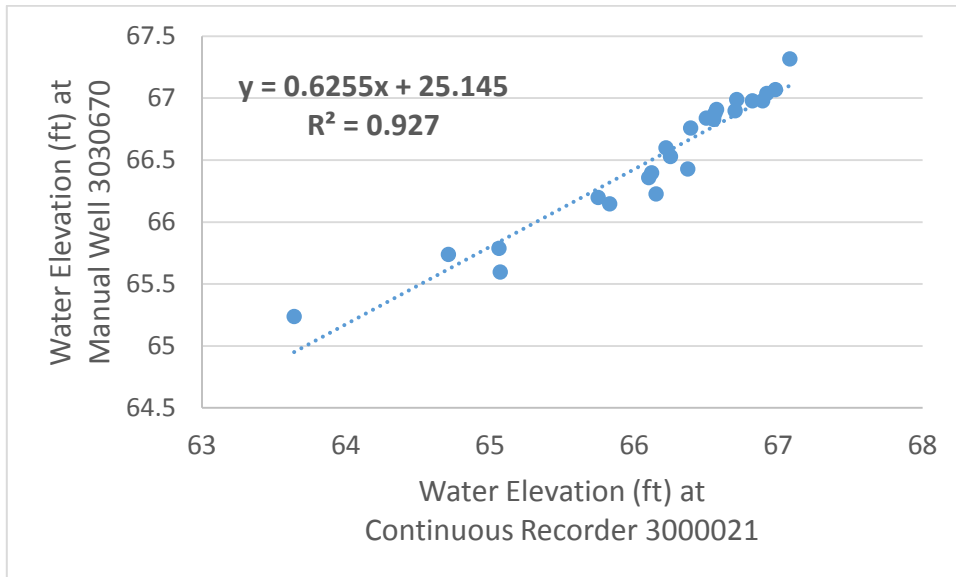


Figure B- 10. Water elevation regression of manual well 3030670 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

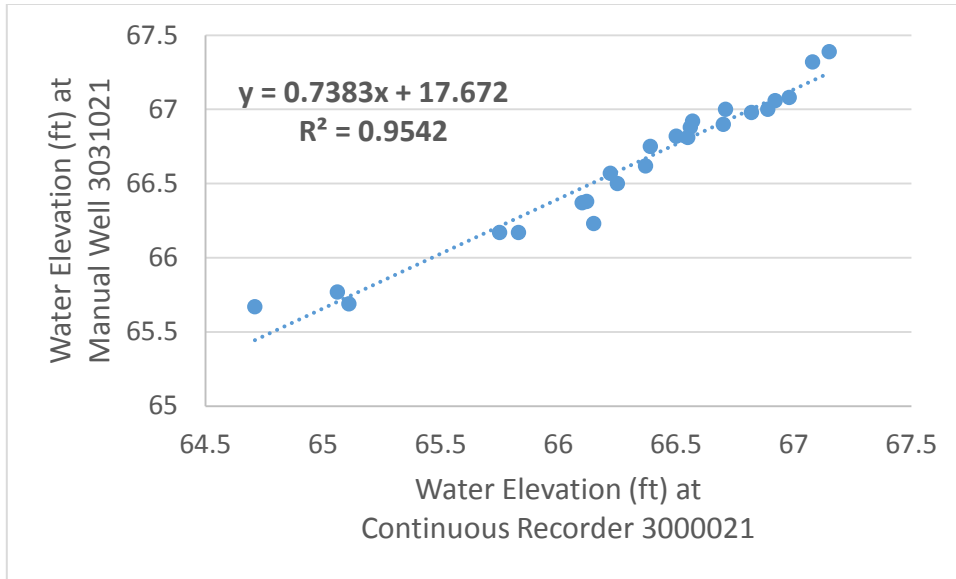


Figure B- 11. Water elevation regression of manual well 3031021 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

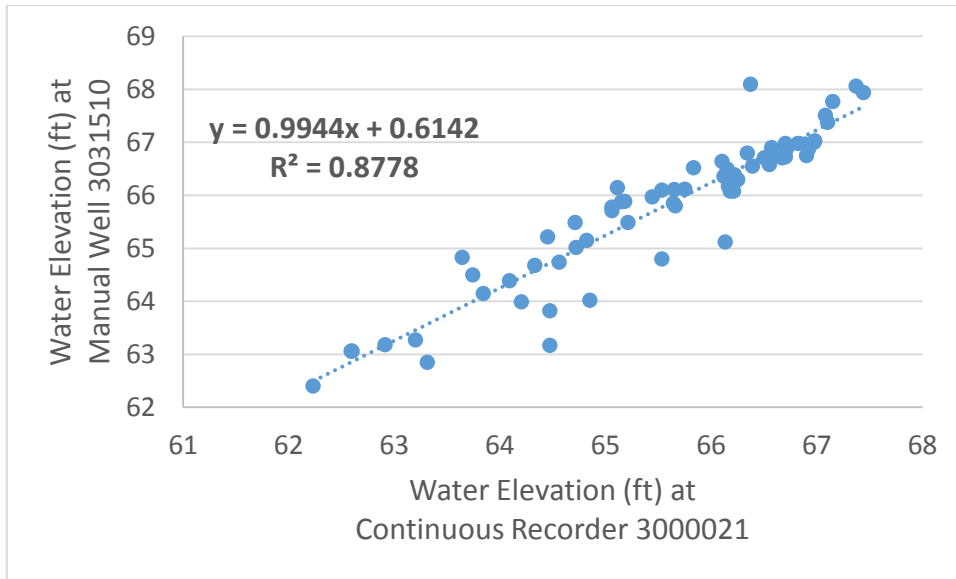


Figure B- 12. Water elevation regression of manual well 3031510 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

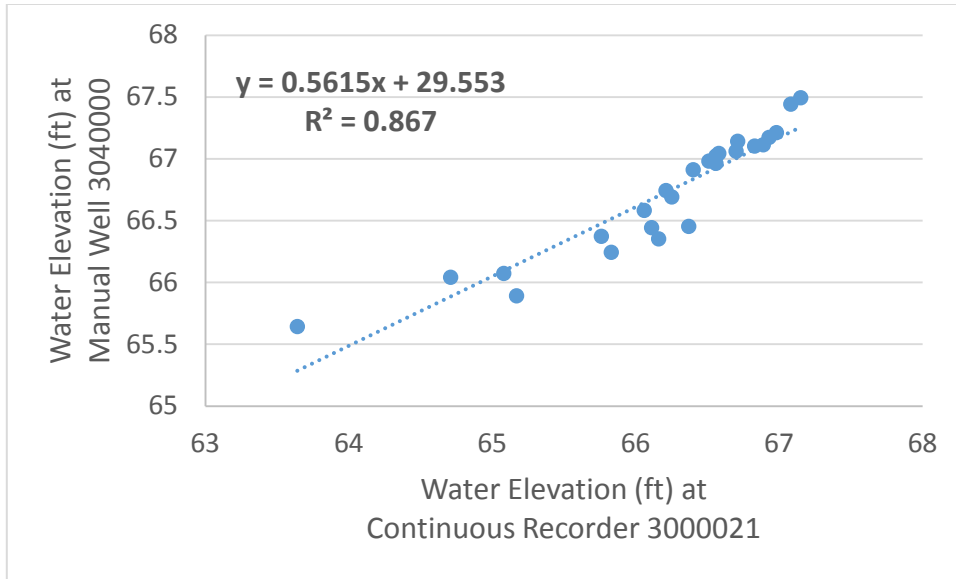


Figure B- 13. Water elevation regression of manual well 3040000 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

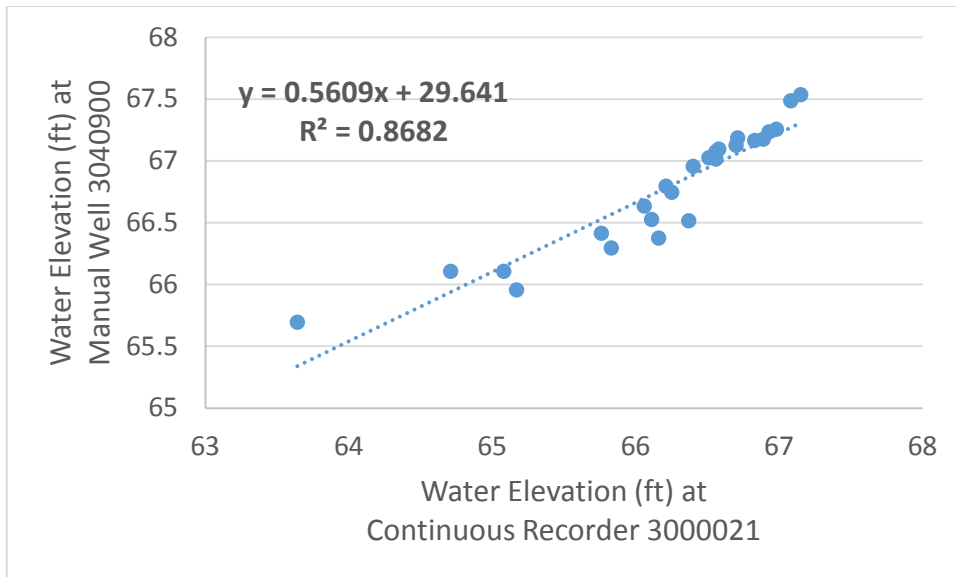


Figure B- 14. Water elevation regression of manual well 3040900 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

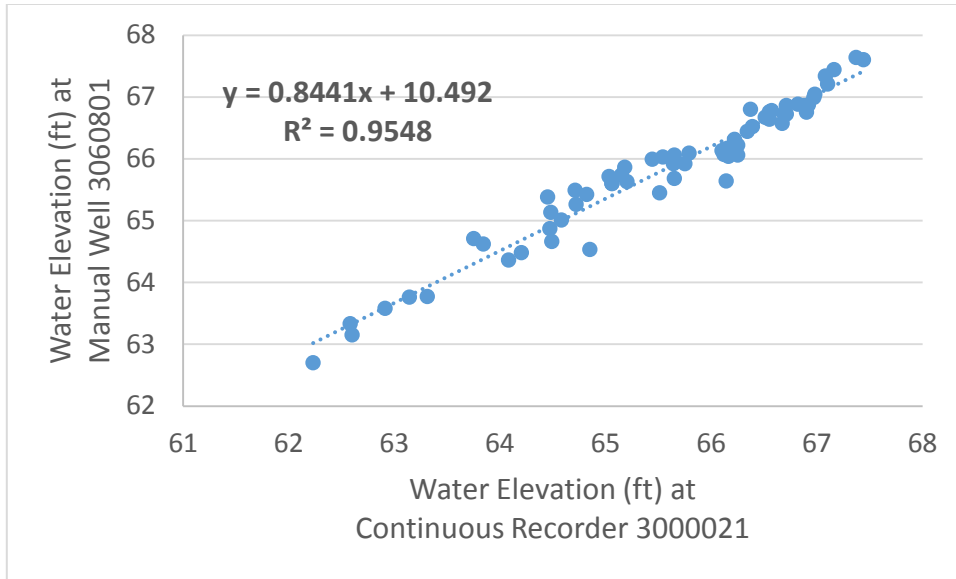


Figure B- 15. Water elevation regression of manual well 3060801 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

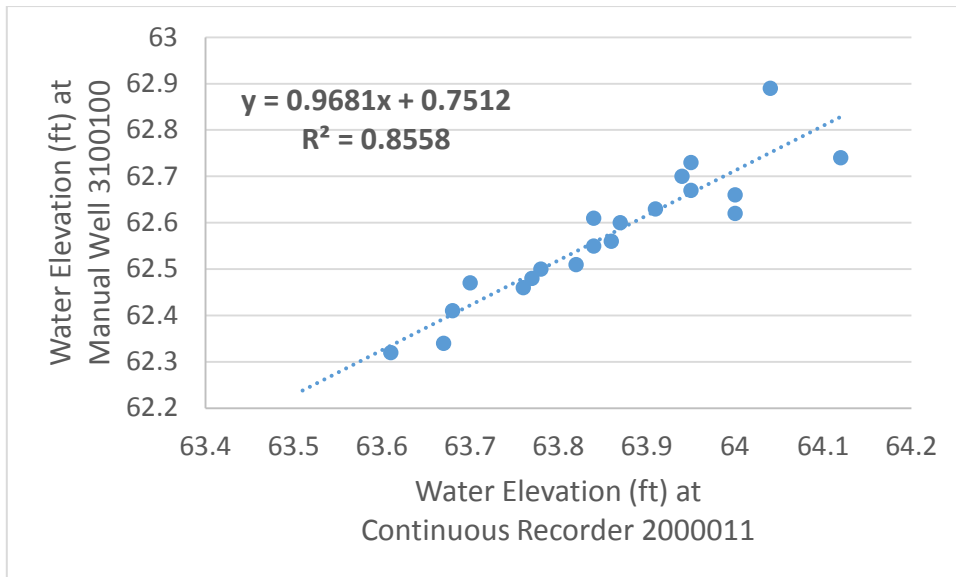


Figure B- 16. Water elevation regression of manual well 3100100 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

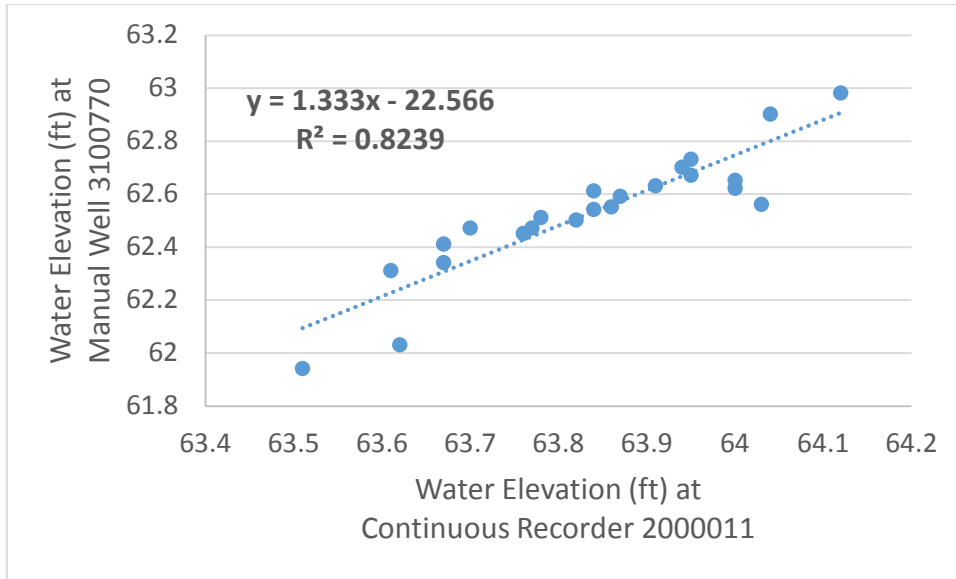


Figure B- 17. Water elevation regression of manual well 3100770 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

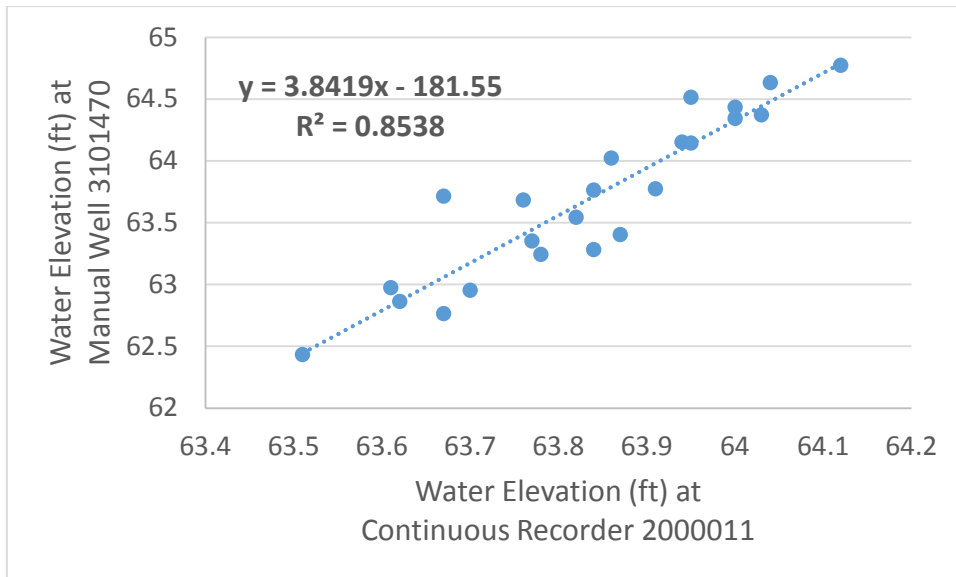


Figure B- 18. Water elevation regression of manual well 3101470 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

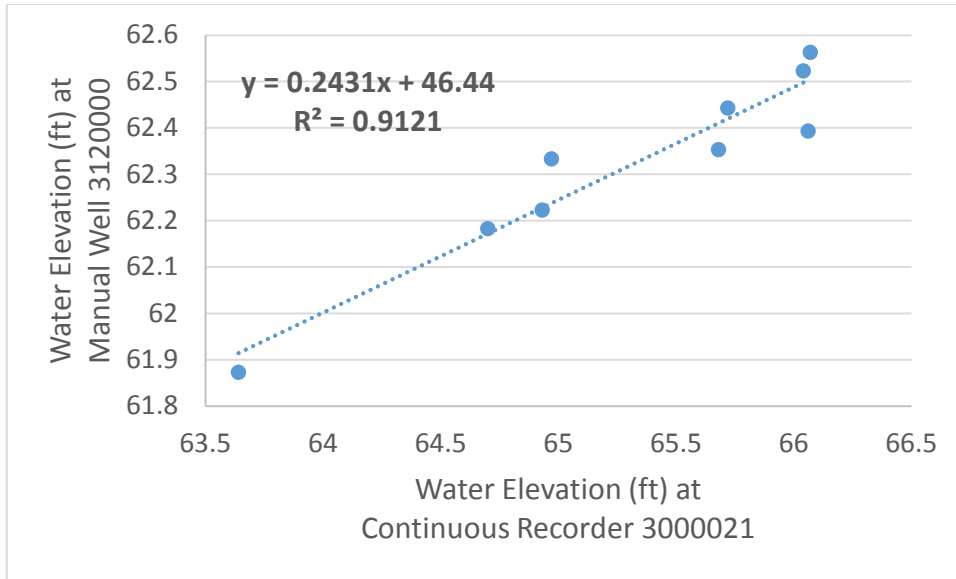


Figure B- 19. Water elevation regression of manual well 3120000 vs continuous recorder 3000021.

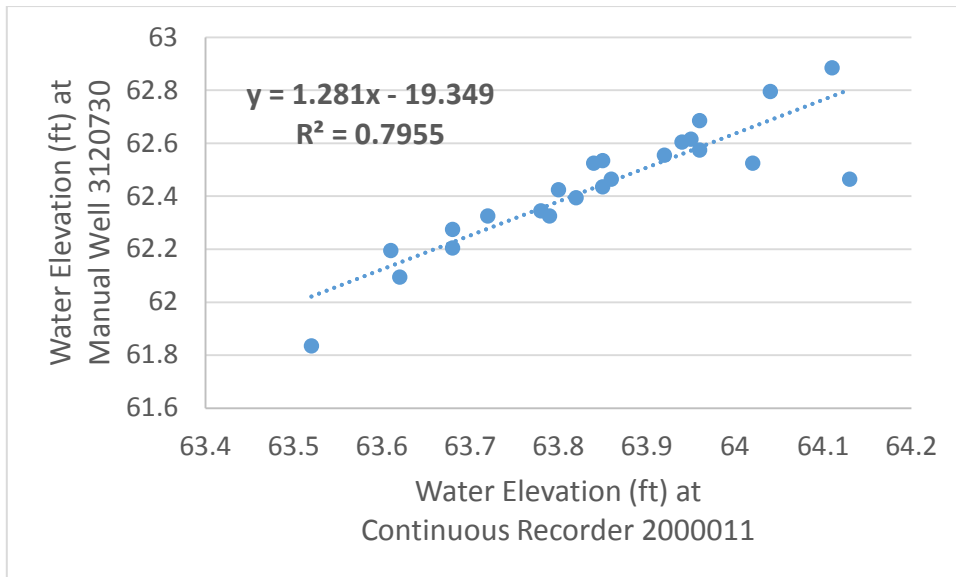


Figure B- 20. Water elevation regression of manual well 3120730 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

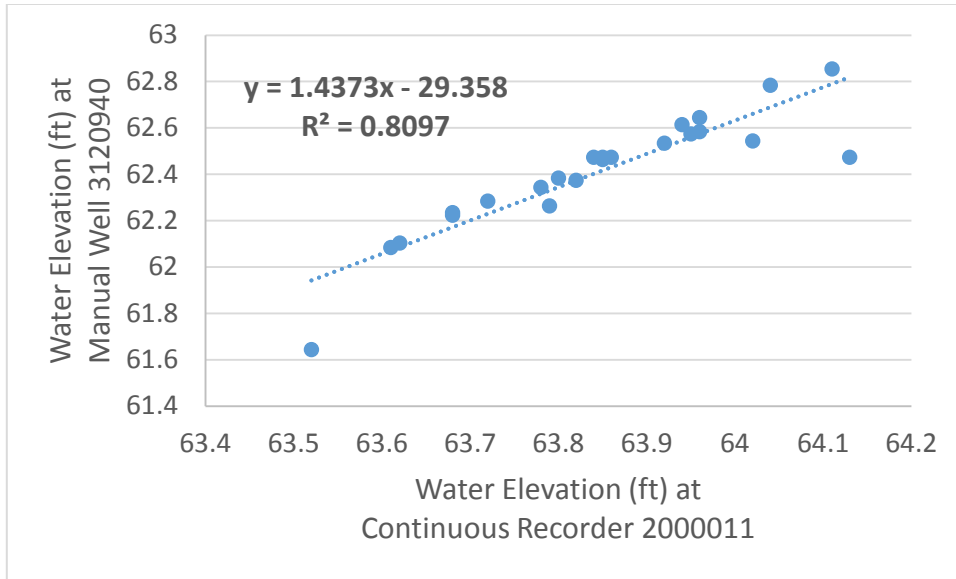


Figure B- 21. Water elevation regression of manual well 3120940 vs. continuous recorder 2000011.

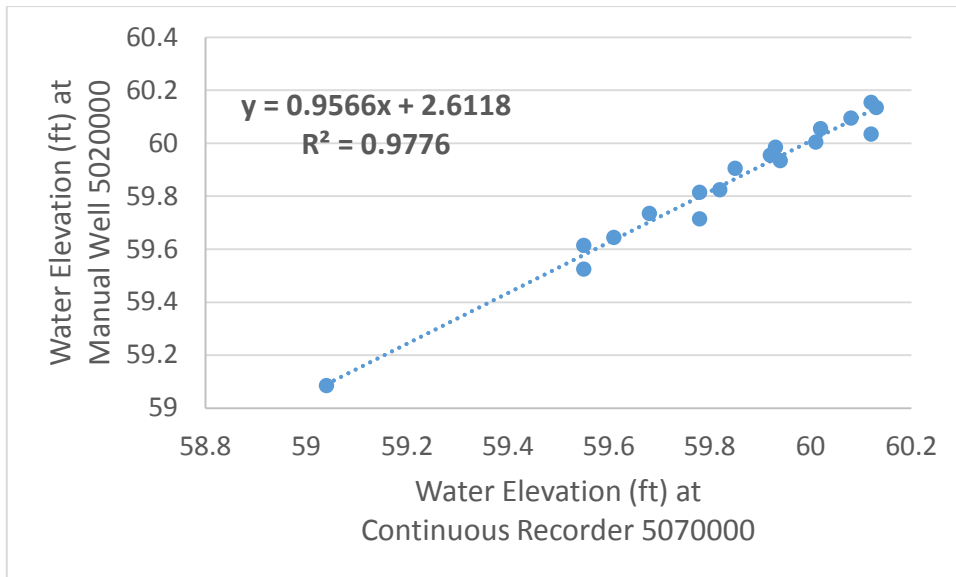


Figure B- 22. Water elevation regression of manual well 5020000 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

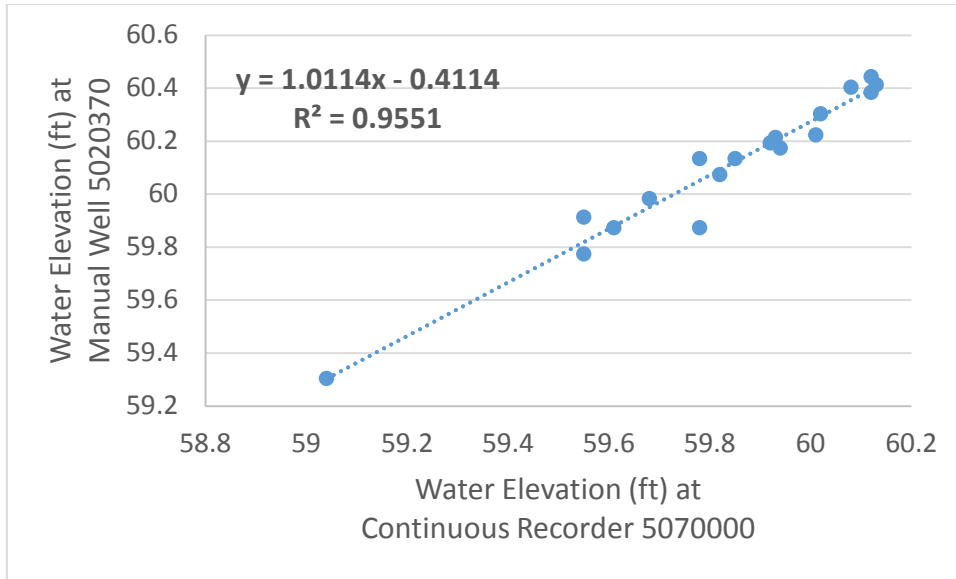


Figure B- 23. Water elevation regression of manual well 5020370 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

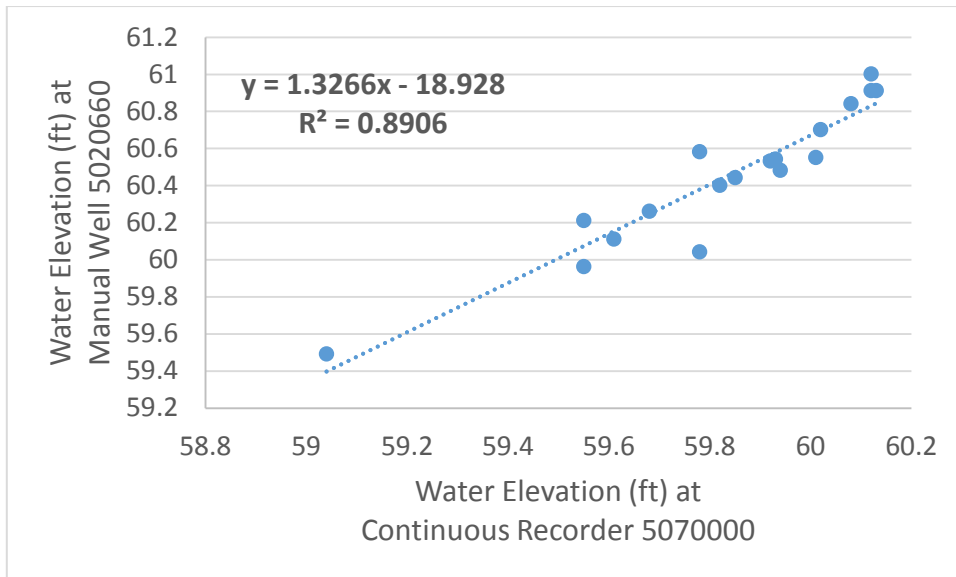


Figure B- 24. Water elevation regression of manual well 5020660 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

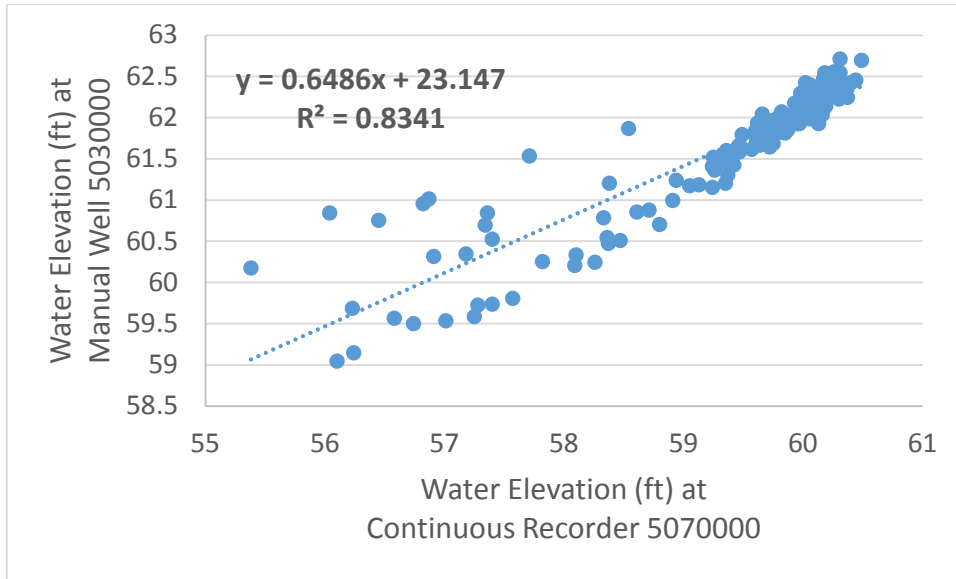


Figure B- 25. Water elevation regression of manual well 5030000 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

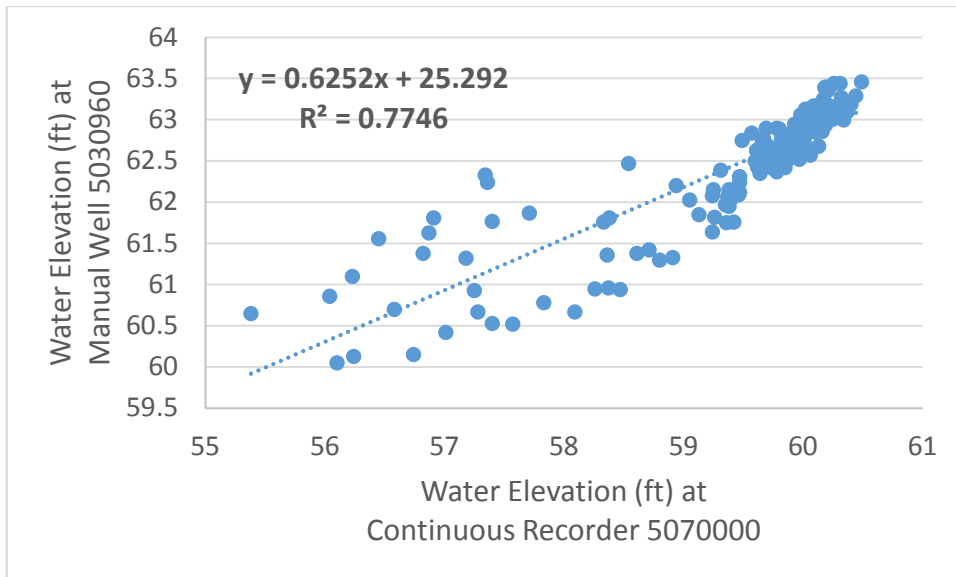


Figure B- 26. Water elevation regression of manual well 5030960 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

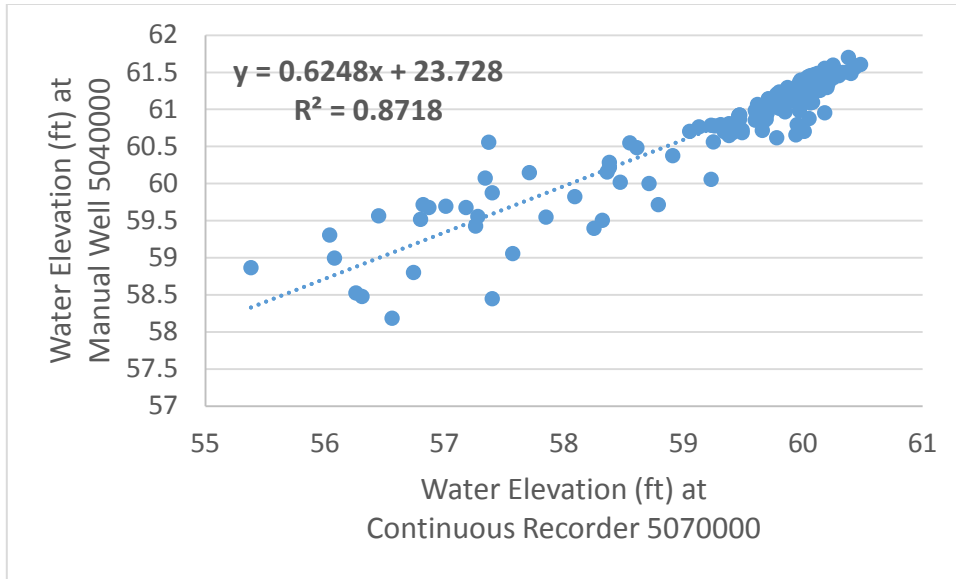


Figure B- 27. Water elevation regression of manual well 5040000 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

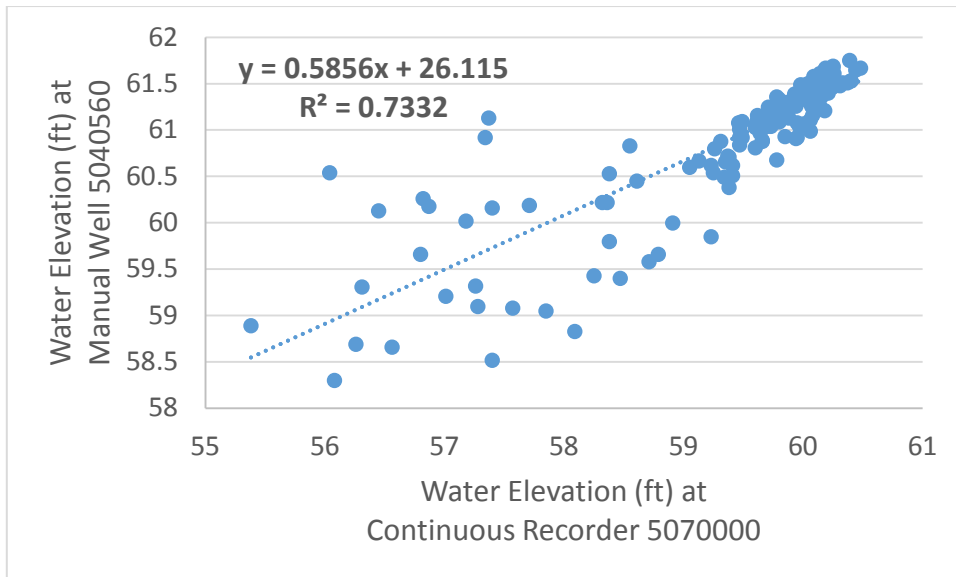


Figure B- 28. Water elevation regression of manual well 5040560 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

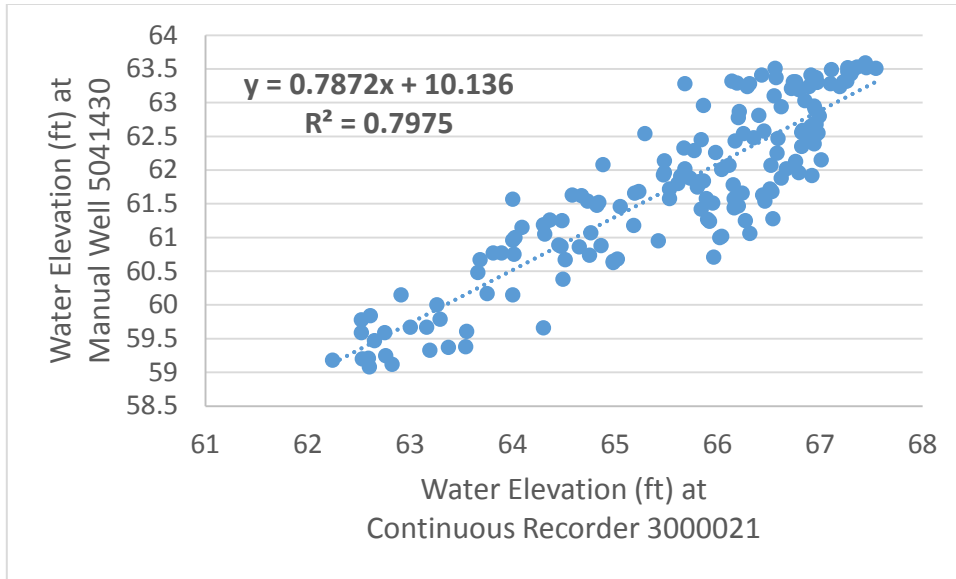


Figure B- 29. Water elevation regression of manual well 5041430 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

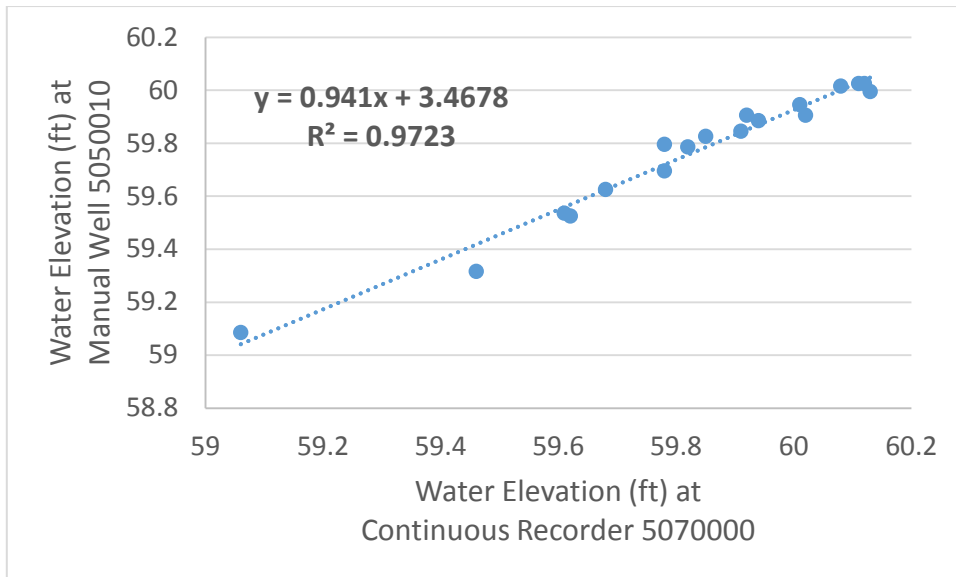


Figure B- 30. Water elevation regression of manual well 5050010 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

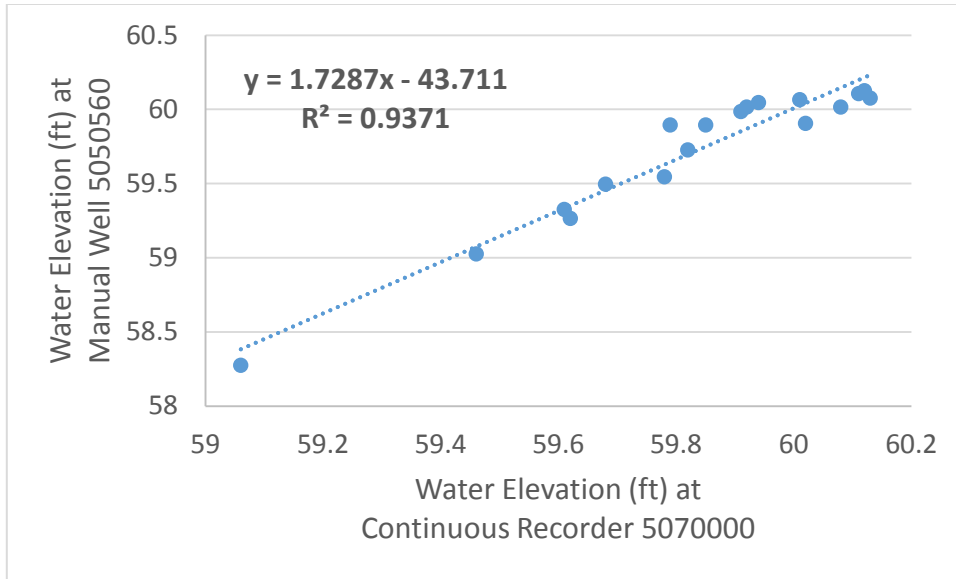


Figure B- 31. Water elevation regression of manual well 5050560 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

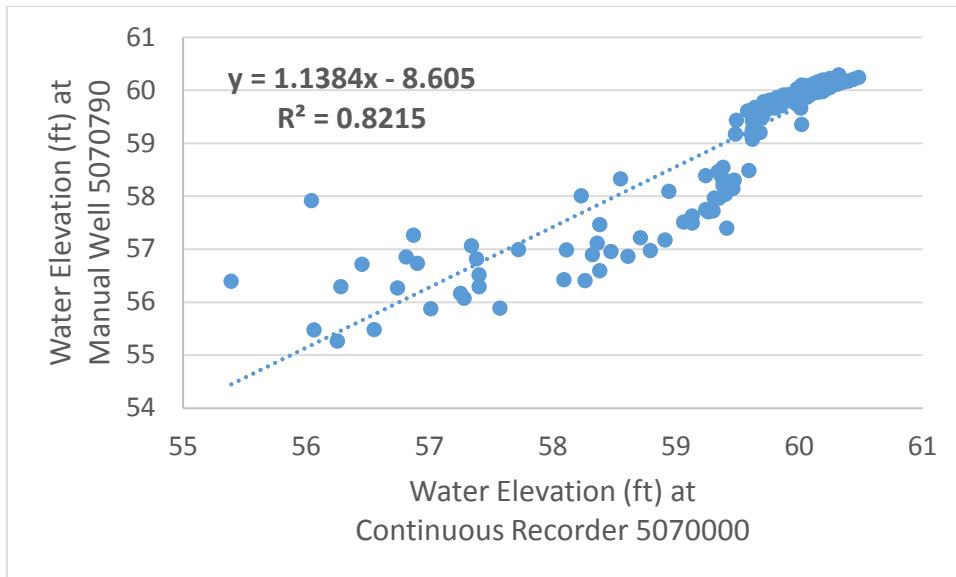


Figure B- 32. Water elevation regression of manual well 5070790 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

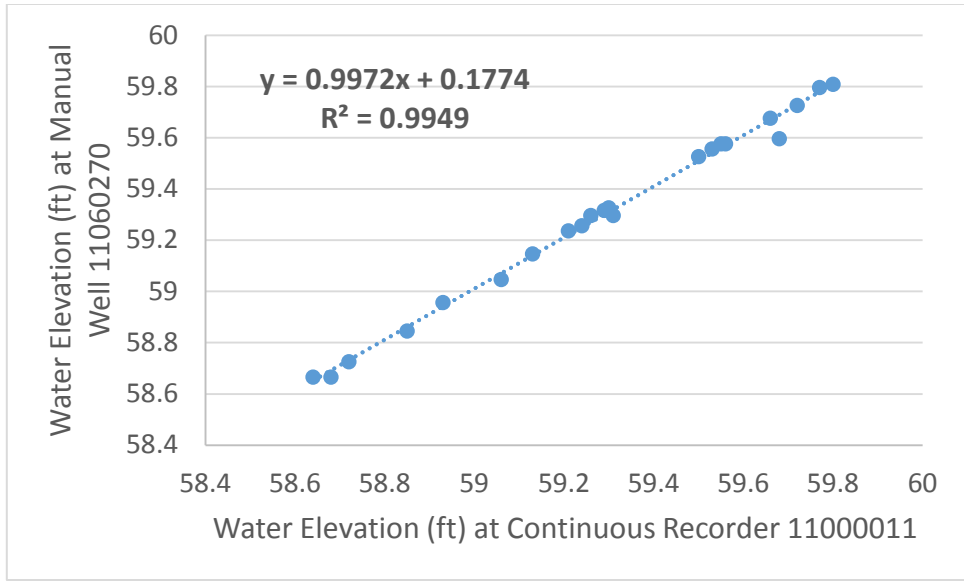


Figure B- 33. Water elevation regression of manual well 11060270 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

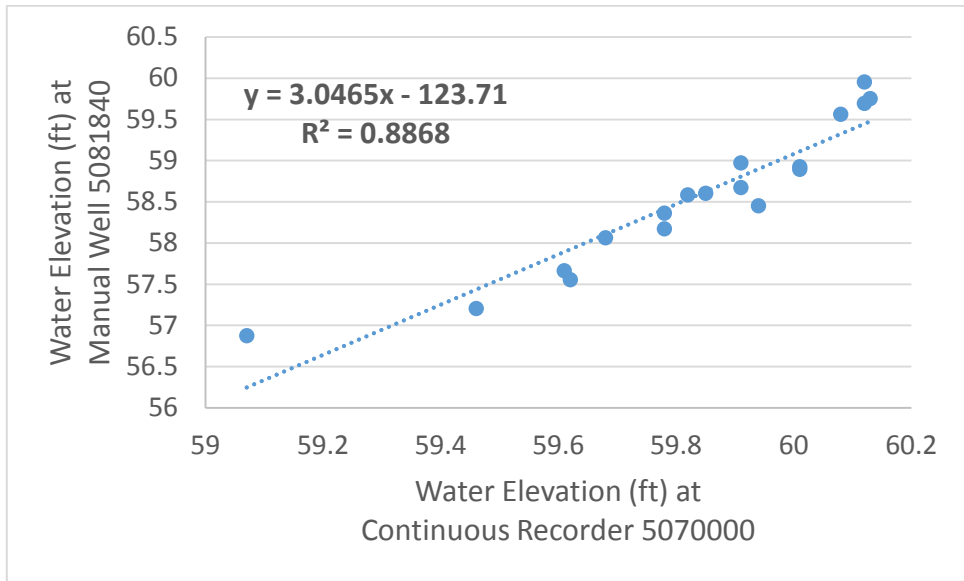


Figure B- 34. Water elevation regression of manual well 5081840 vs. continuous recorder 5070000.

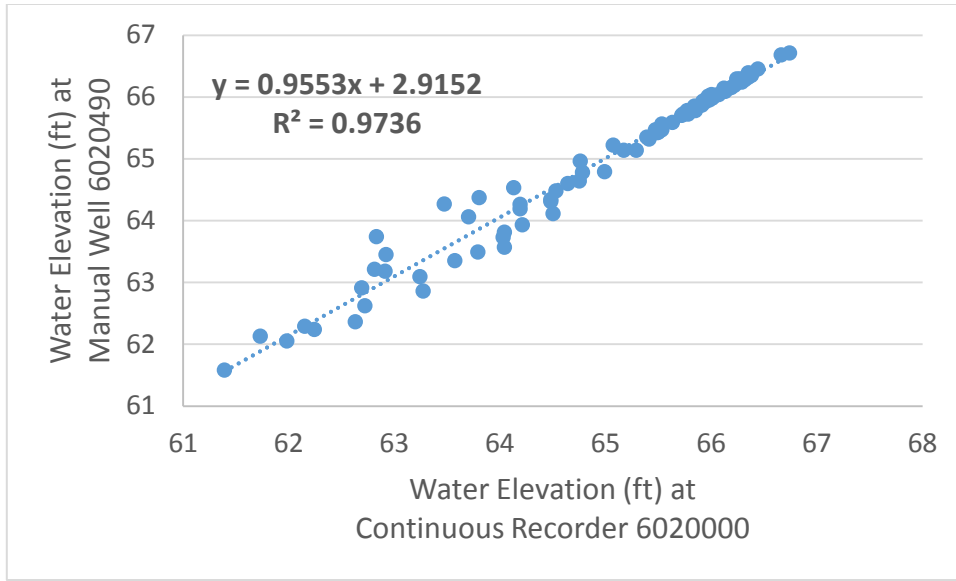


Figure B- 35. Water elevation regression of manual well 6020490 vs. continuous recorder 6020000.

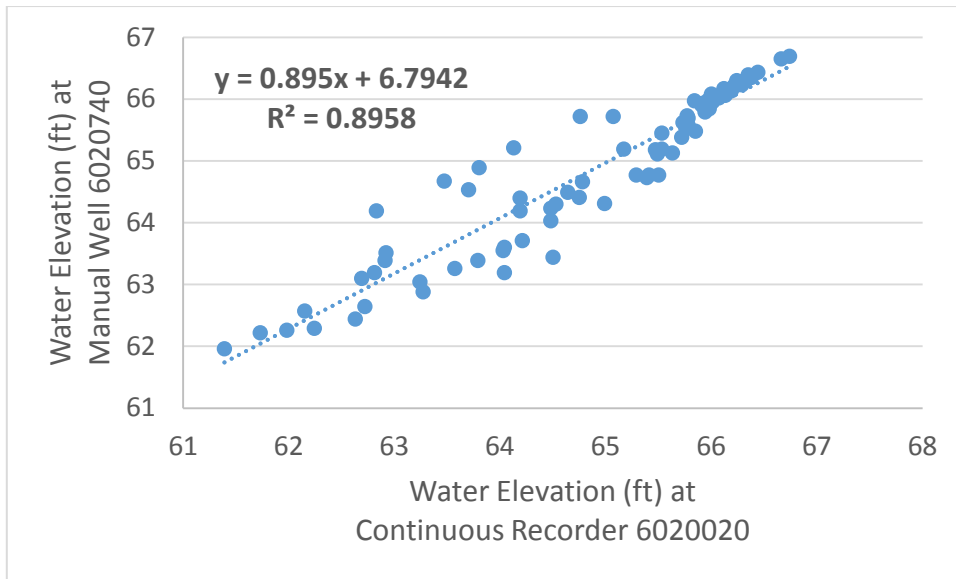


Figure B- 36. Water elevation regression of manual well 6020740 vs. continuous recorder 6020020.

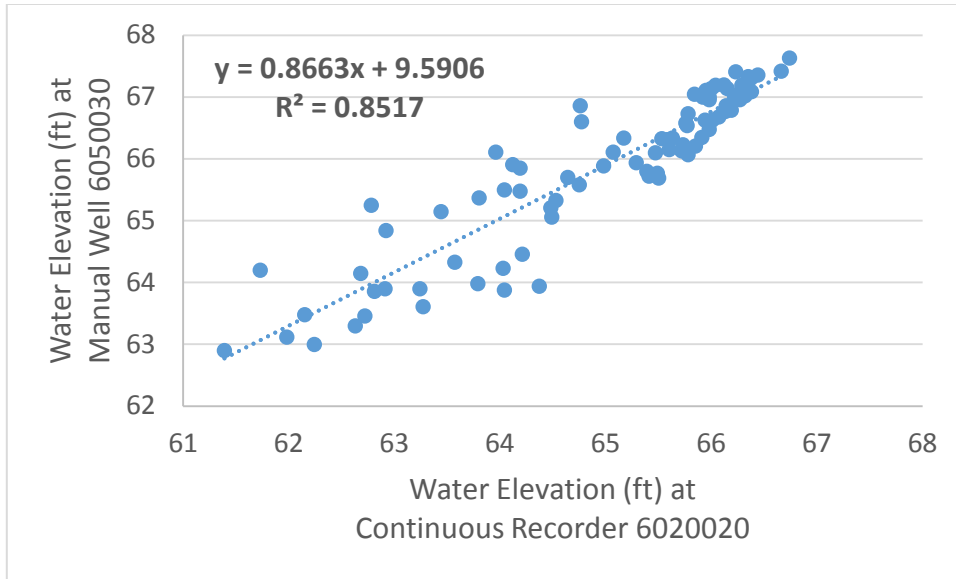


Figure B- 37. Water elevation regression of manual well 6050030 vs. continuous recorder 6020020.

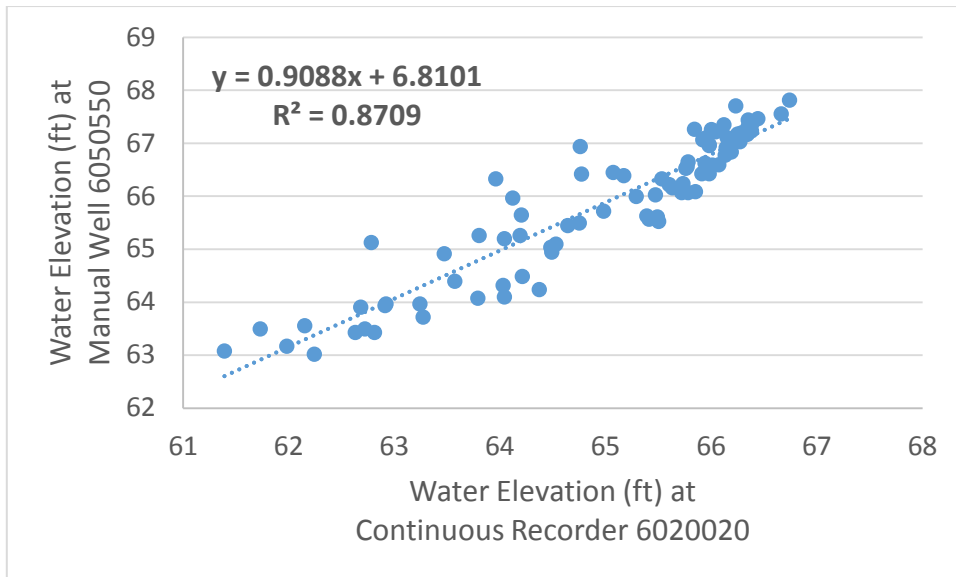


Figure B- 38. Water elevation regression of manual well 6050550 vs. continuous recorder 6020020.

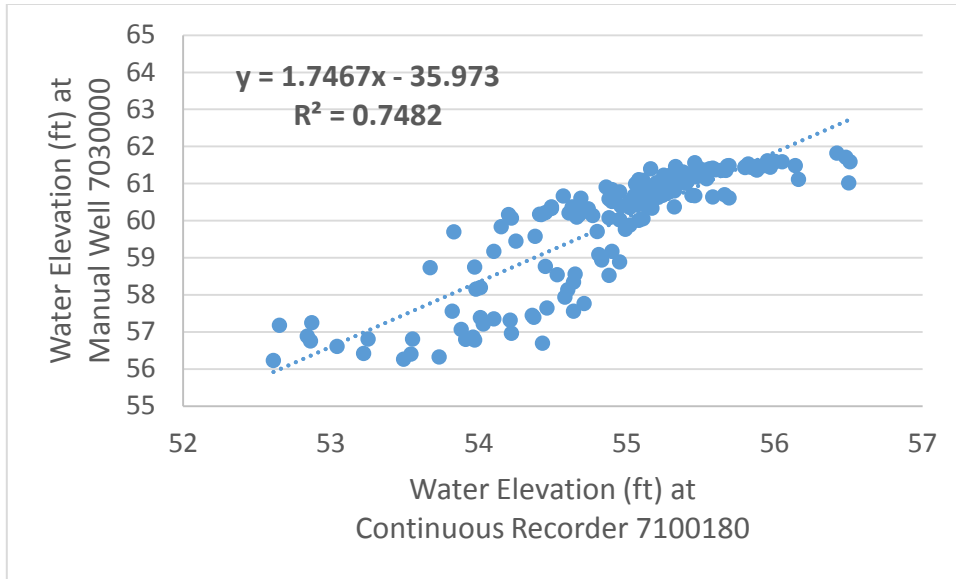


Figure B- 39. Water elevation regression of manual well 7030000 vs. continuous recorder 7100180.

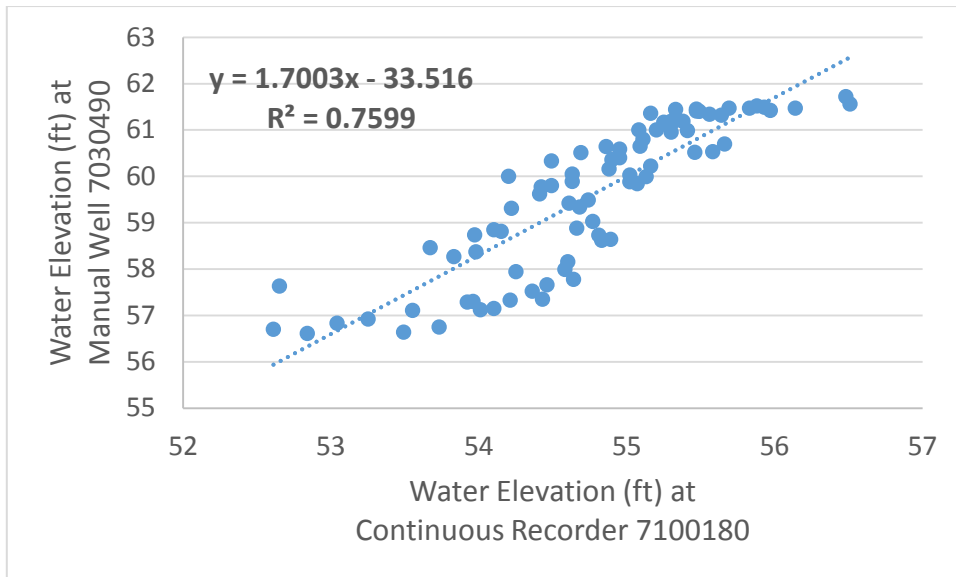


Figure B- 40. Water elevation regression of manual well 7030490 vs. continuous recorder 7100180.

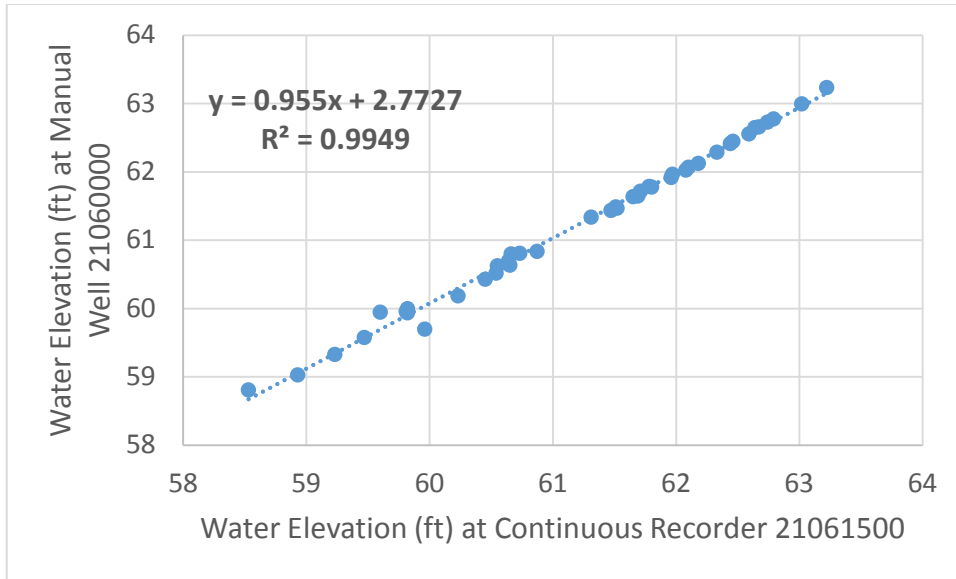


Figure B- 41. Water elevation regression of manual well 21060000 vs. continuous recorder 21061500.

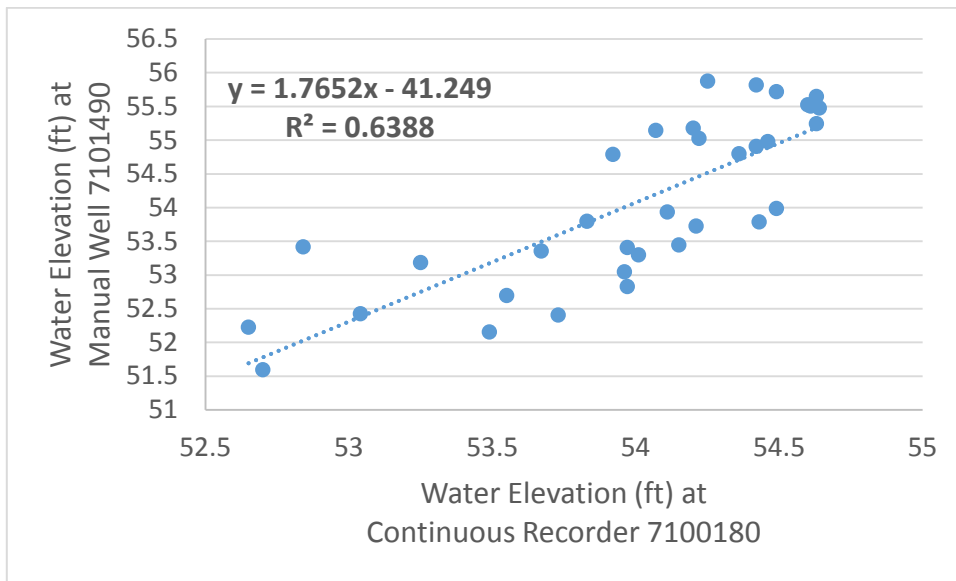


Figure B- 42. Water elevation regression of manual well 7101490 vs. continuous recorder 7100180.

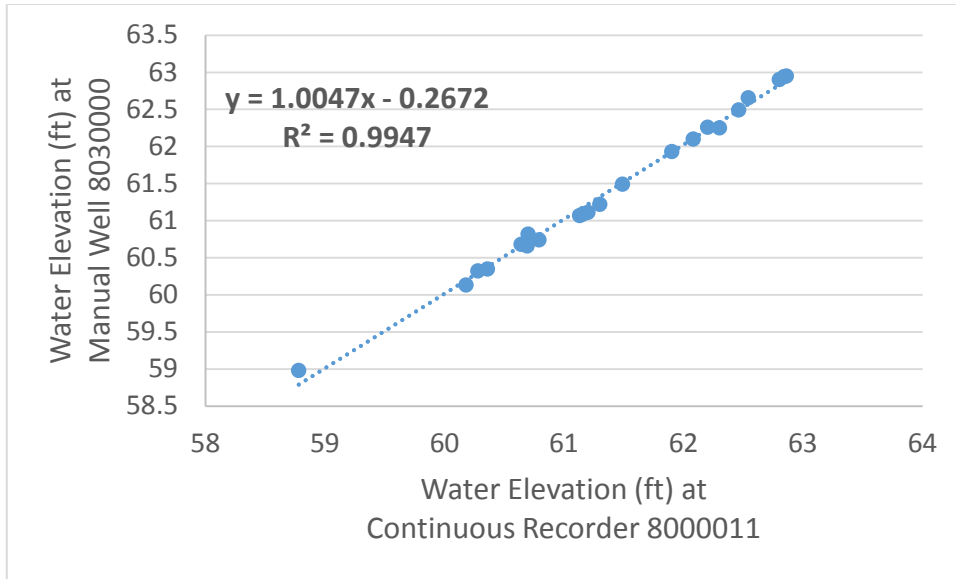


Figure B- 43. Water elevation regression of manual well 8030000 vs. continuous recorder 8000011.

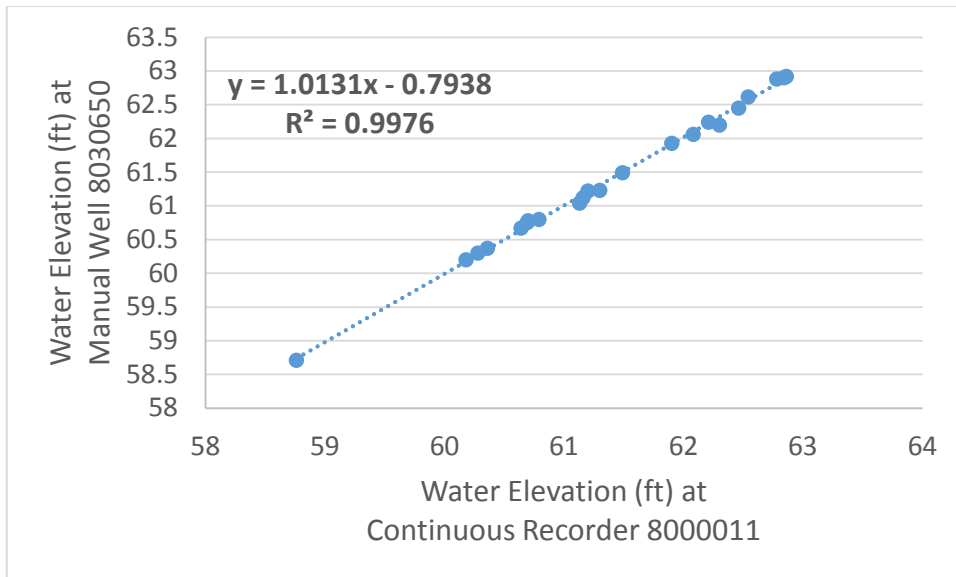


Figure B- 44. Water elevation regression of manual well 8030650 vs. continuous recorder 8000011.

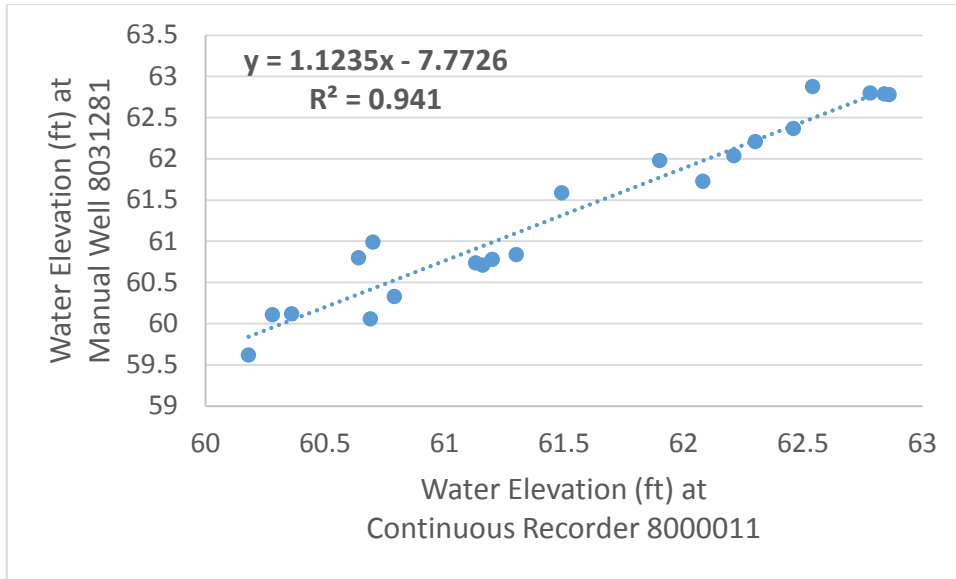


Figure B- 45. Water elevation regression of manual well 8031281 vs. continuous recorder 8000011.

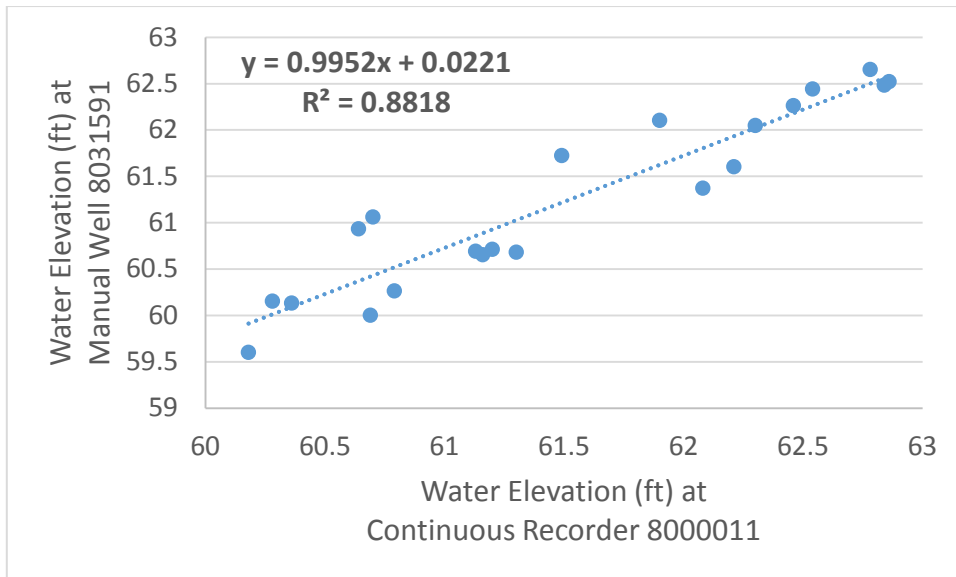


Figure B- 46. Water elevation regression of manual well 8031591 vs. continuous recorder 8000011.

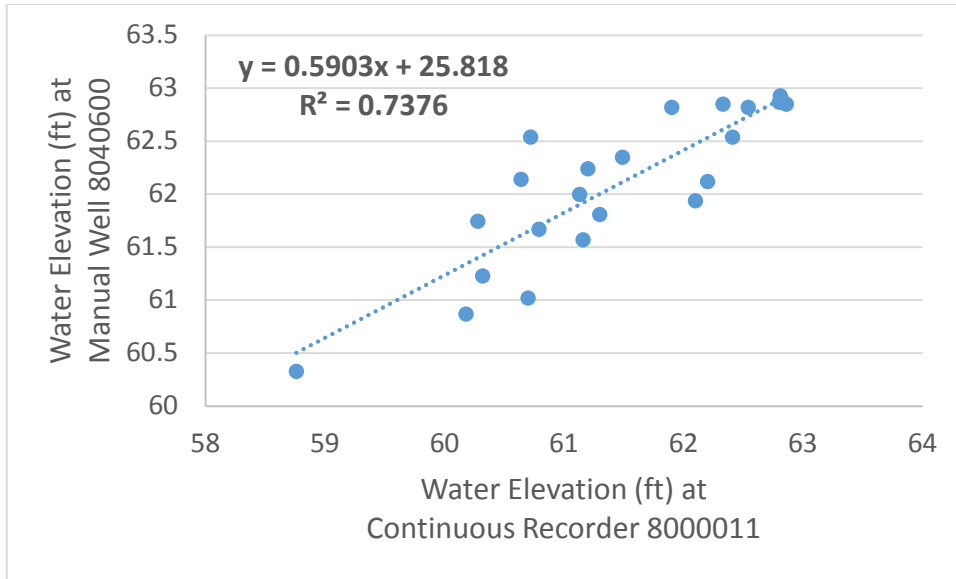


Figure B- 47. Water elevation regression of manual well 8040600 vs. continuous recorder 8000011.

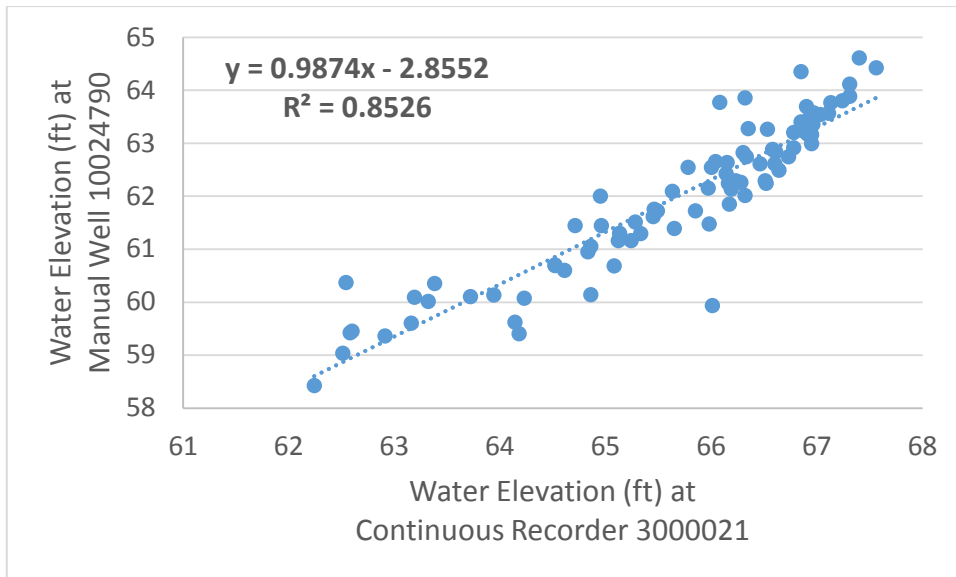


Figure B- 48. Water elevation regression of manual well 10024790 vs. continuous recorder 3000021.

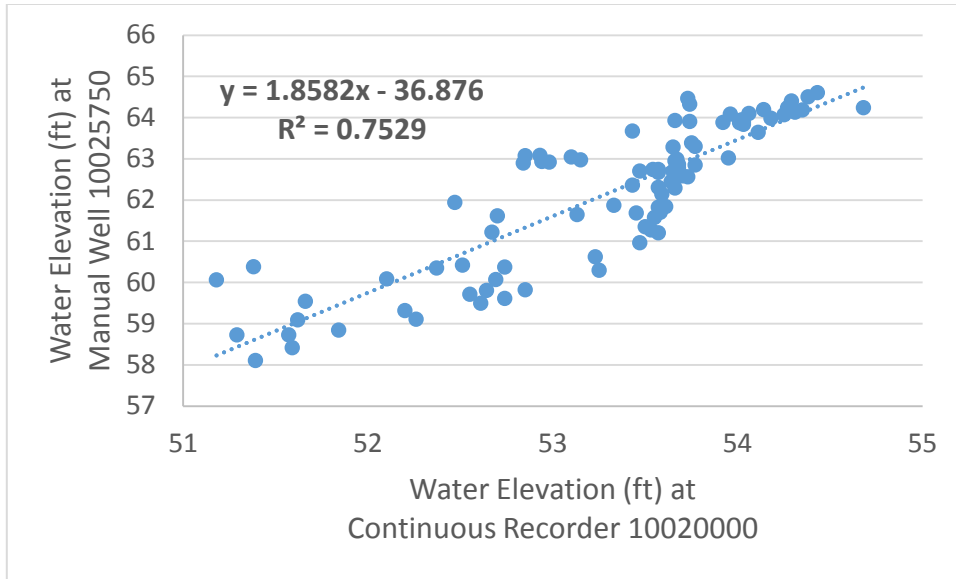


Figure B- 49. Water elevation regression of manual well 10025750 vs. continuous recorder 10020000.

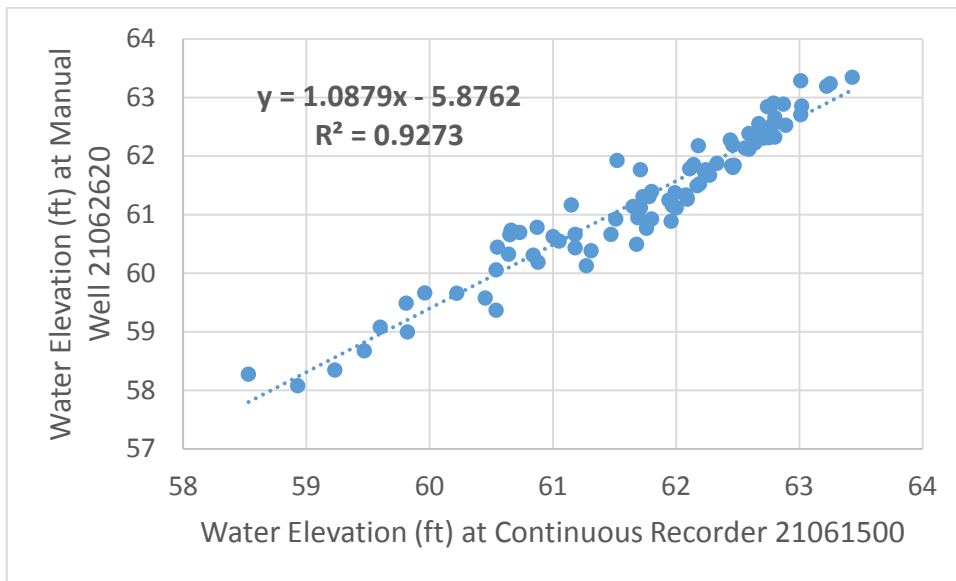


Figure B- 50. Water elevation regression of manual well 21062620 vs. continuous recorder 21061500.

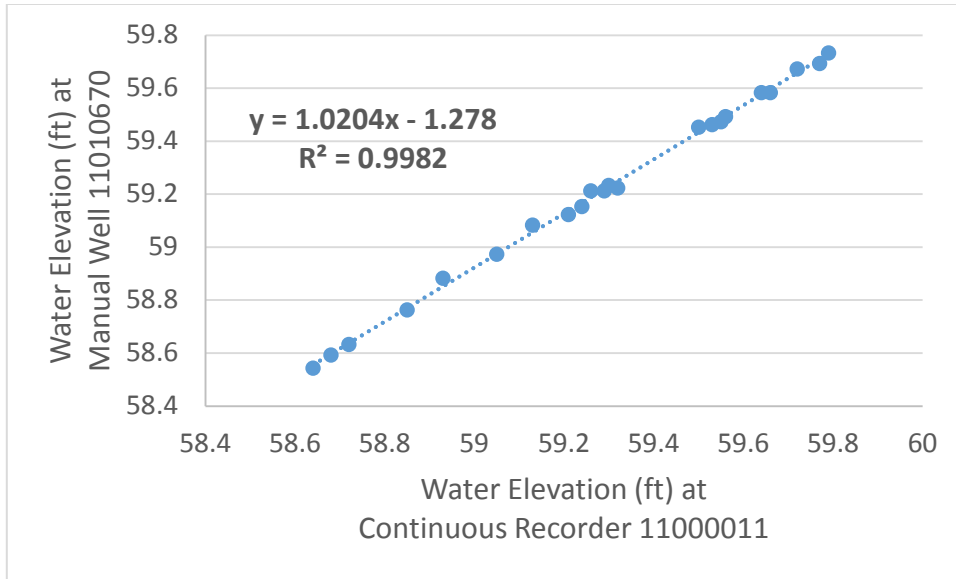


Figure B- 51. Water elevation regression of manual well 11010670 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

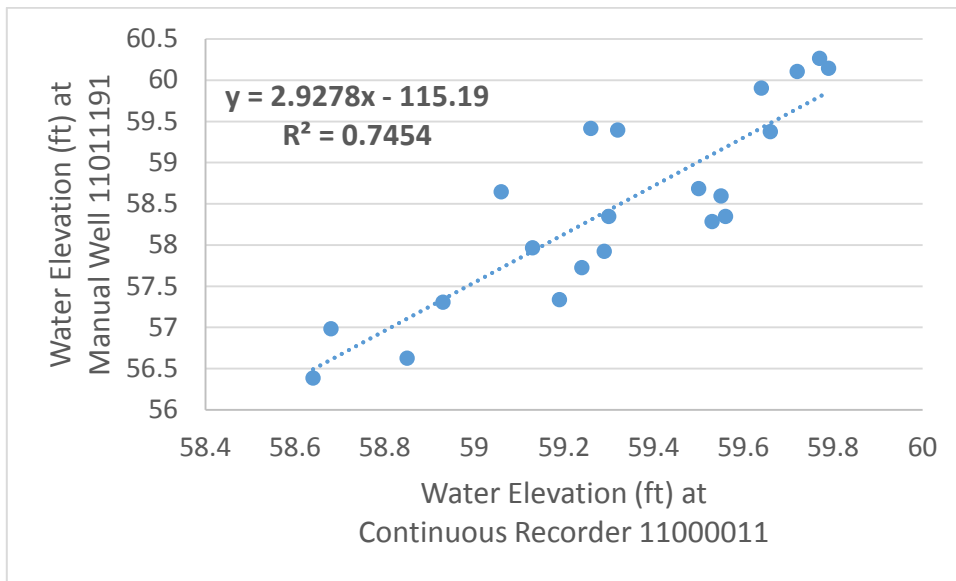


Figure B- 52. Water elevation regression of manual well 11011191 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

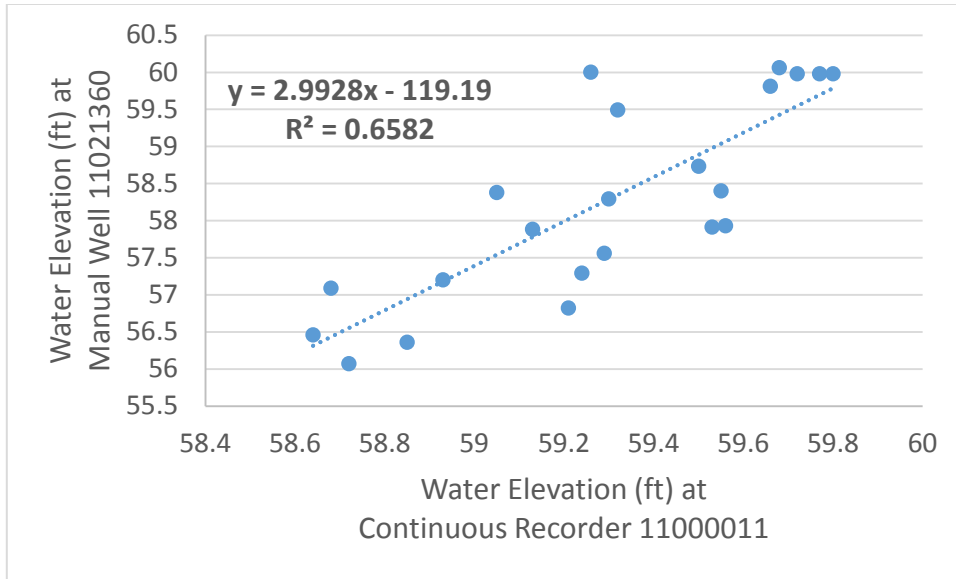


Figure B- 53. Water elevation regression of manual well 11021360 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

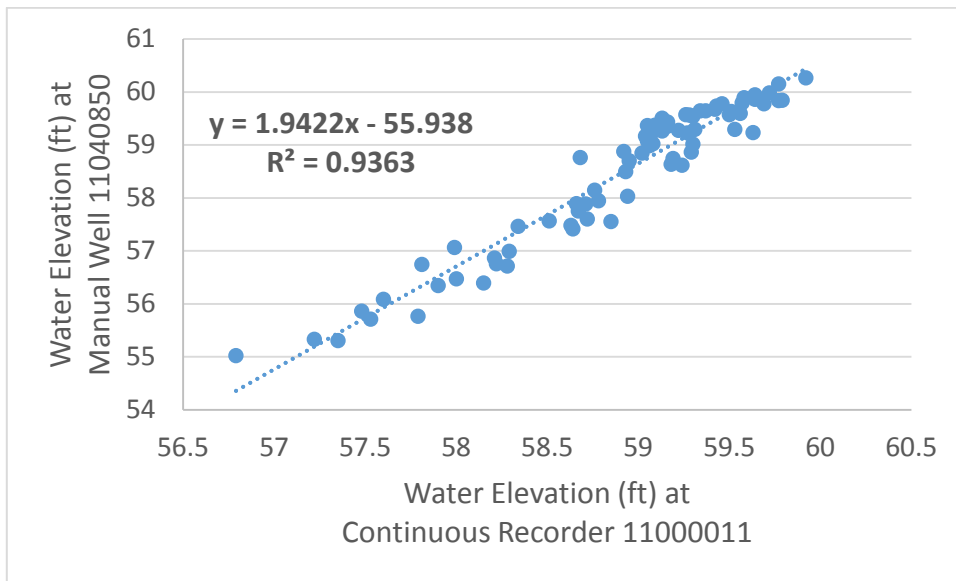


Figure B- 54. Water elevation regression of manual well 11040850 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

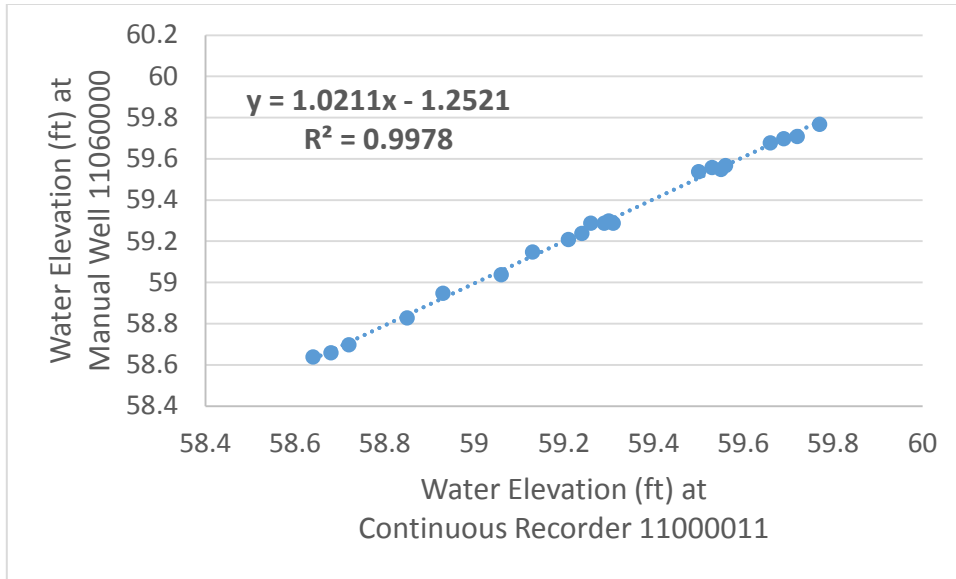


Figure B- 55. Water elevation regression of manual well 11060000 vs. continuous recorder 11000011.

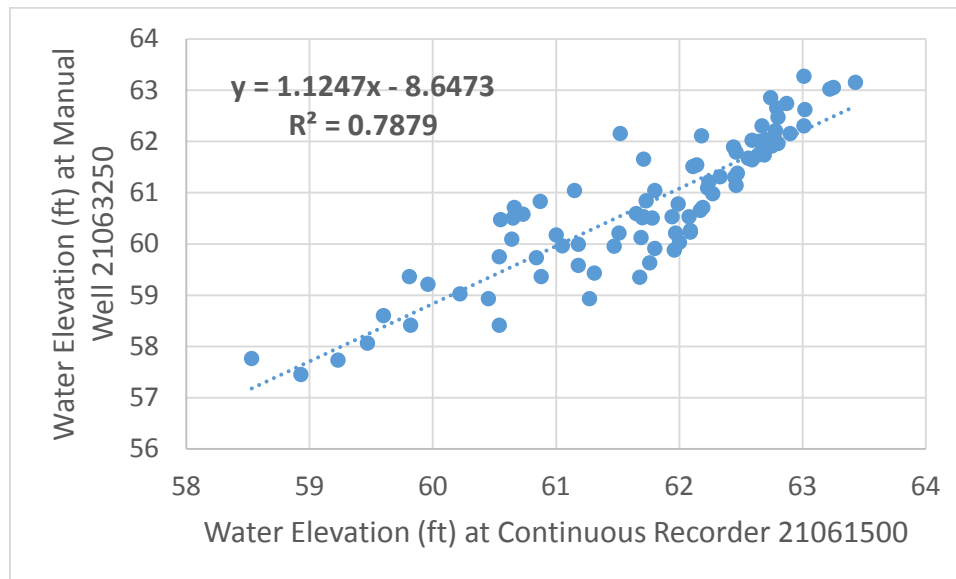


Figure B- 566. Water elevation regression of manual well 21063250 vs. continuous recorder 21061500.

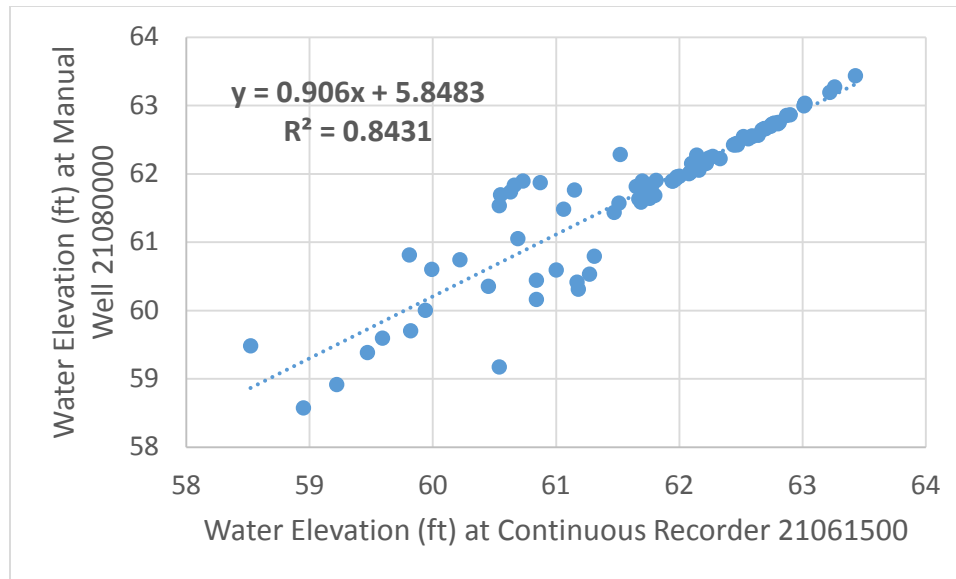


Figure B- 577. Water elevation regression of manual well 21080000 vs. continuous recorder 21061500.

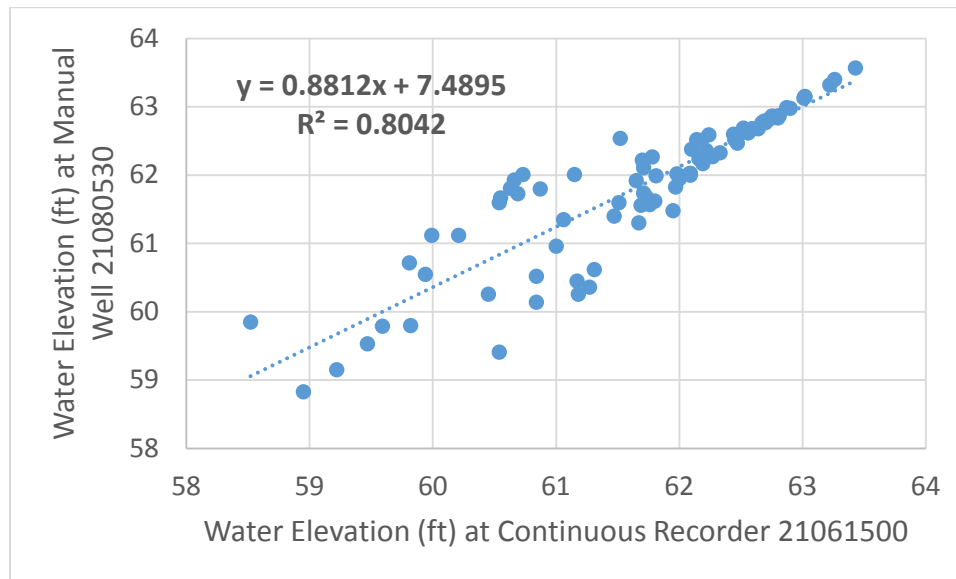


Figure B- 588. Water elevation regression of manual well 21080530 vs. continuous recorder 21061500.

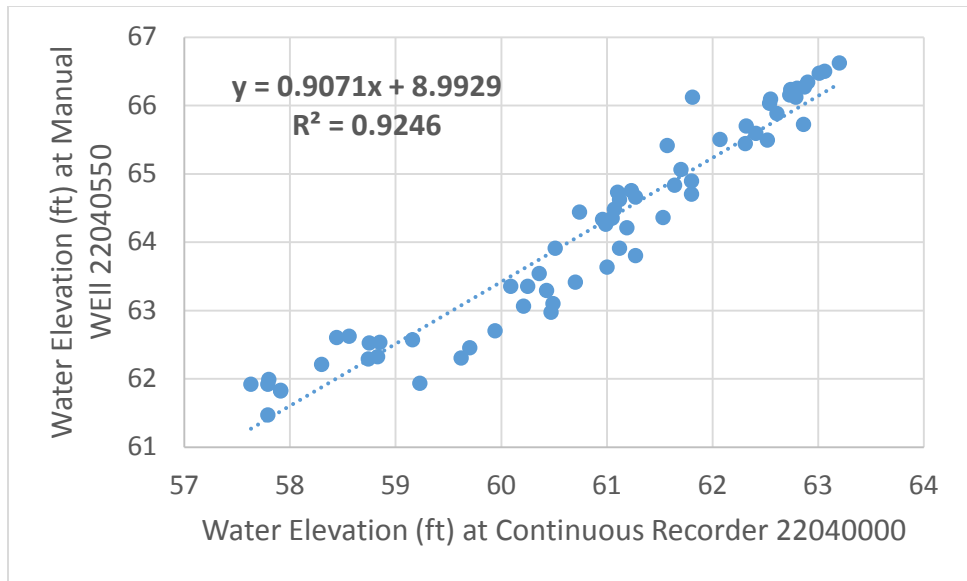


Figure B- 599. Water elevation regression of manual well 22040550 vs. continuous recorder 22040000.

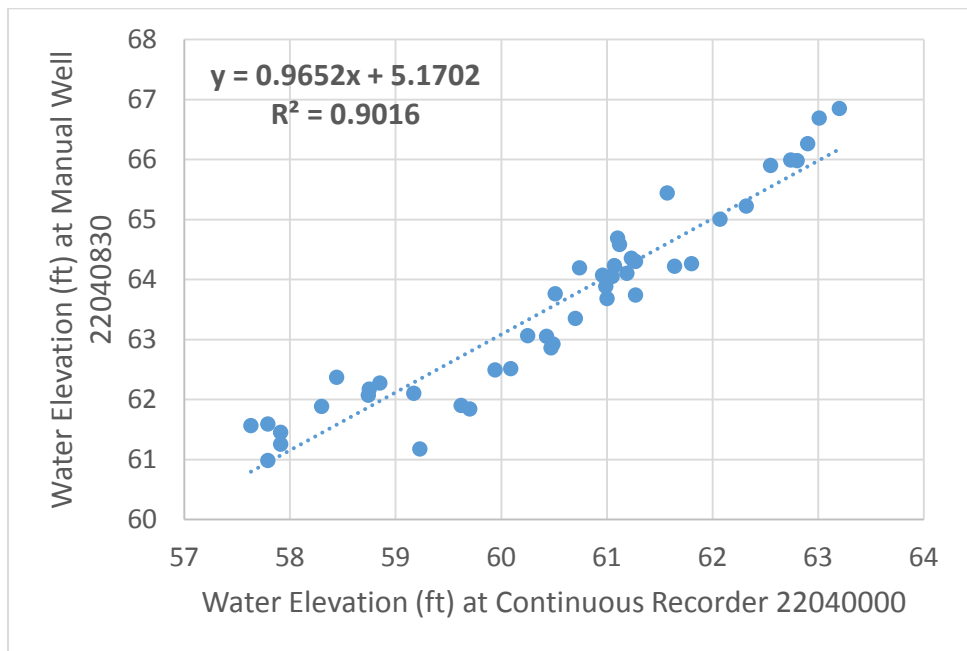


Figure B- 60. Water elevation regression of manual well 22040830 vs. continuous recorder 22040000.

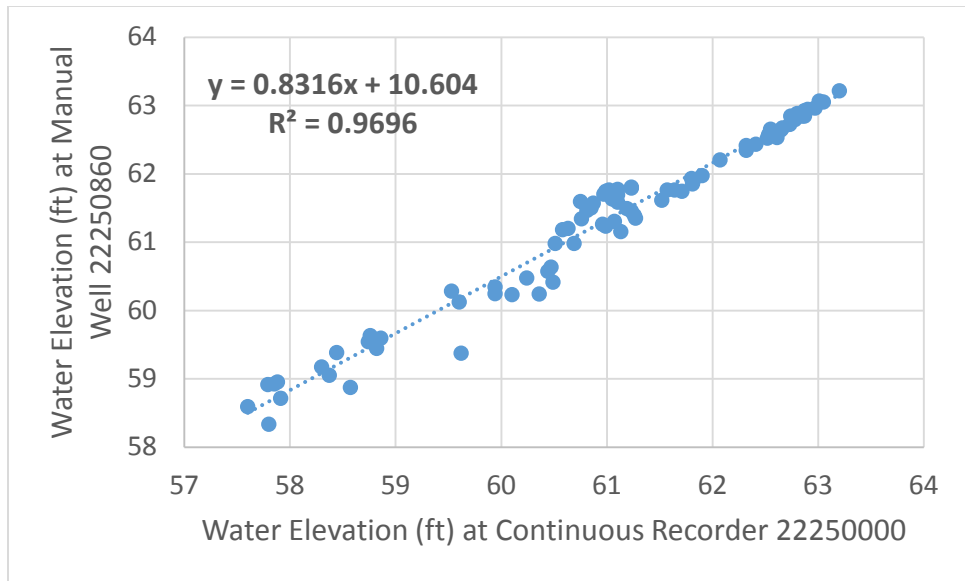


Figure B- 61. Water elevation regression of manual well 22250860 vs. continuous recorder 22250000.

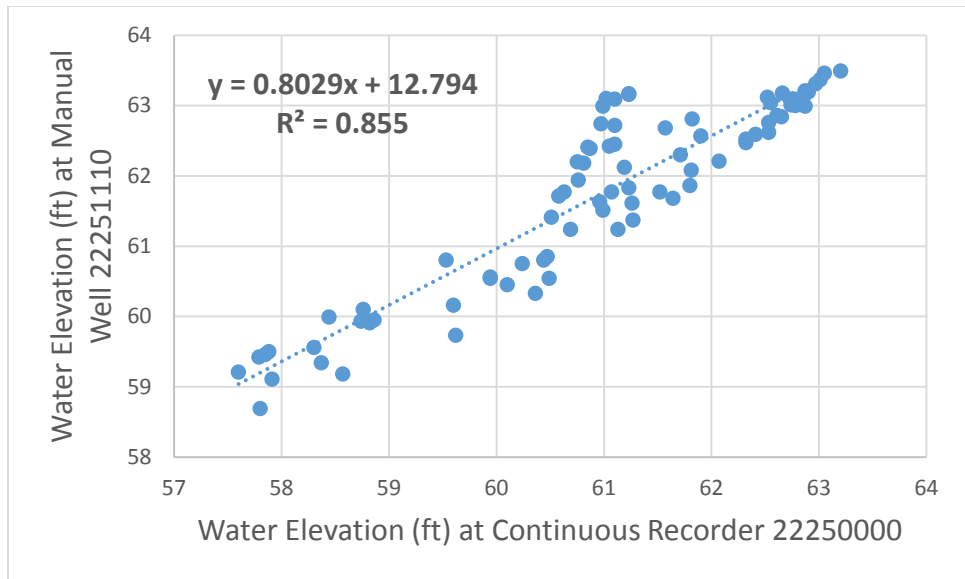


Figure B- 62. Water elevation regression of manual well 22251110 vs. continuous recorder 22250000.

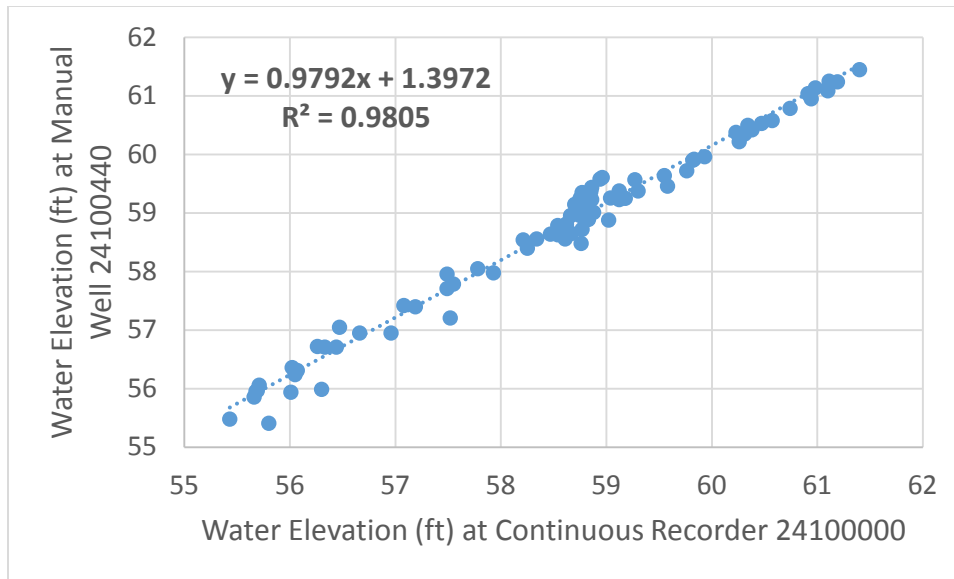


Figure B- 63. Water elevation regression of manual well 24100440 vs. continuous recorder 24100000.

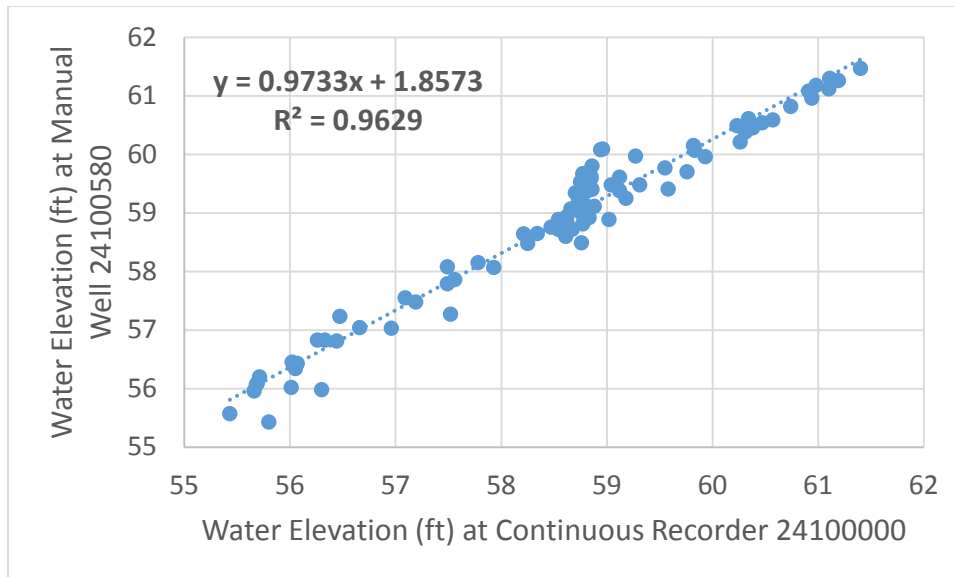


Figure B- 64. Water elevation regression of manual well 24100580 vs. continuous recorder 24100000.

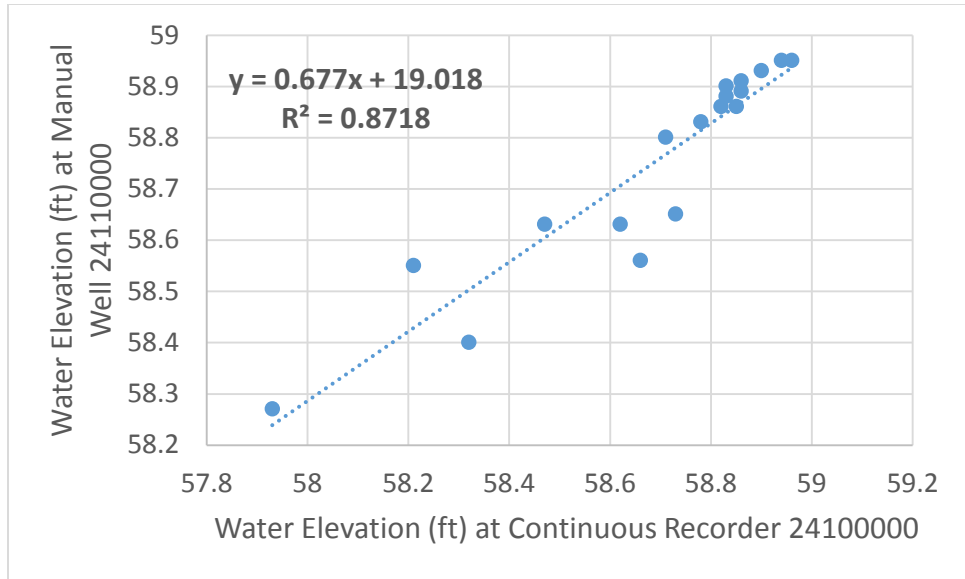


Figure B- 65. Water elevation regression of manual well 24110000 vs. continuous recorder 24100000.

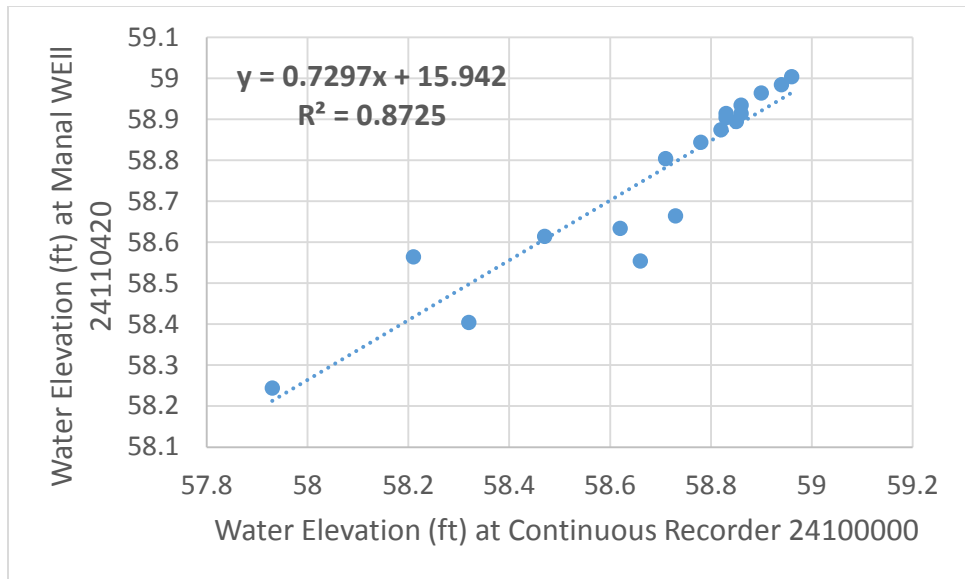


Figure B- 66. Water elevation regression of manual well 24110420 vs. continuous recorder 24100000.

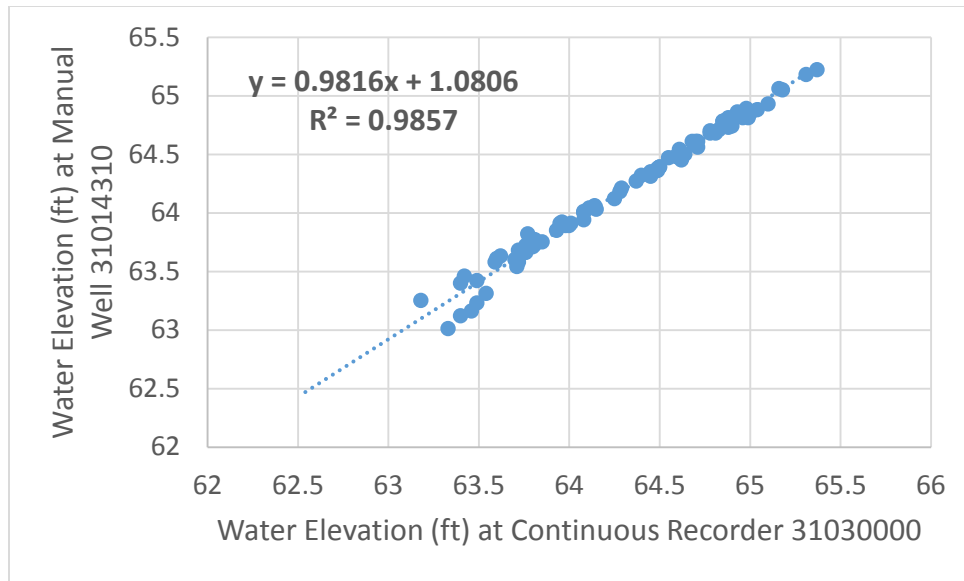


Figure B- 67. Water elevation regression of manual well 31014310 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

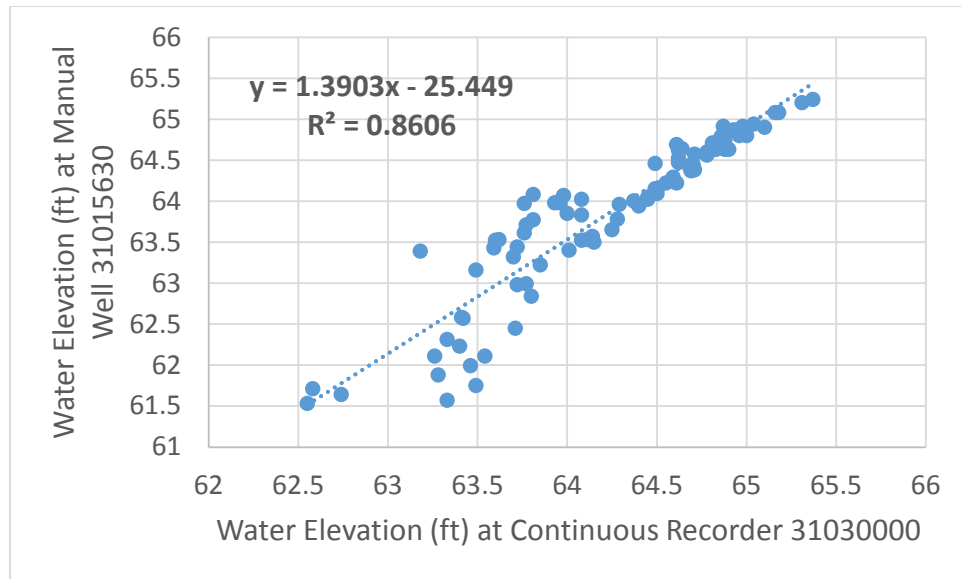


Figure B- 68. Water elevation regression of manual well 31015630 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

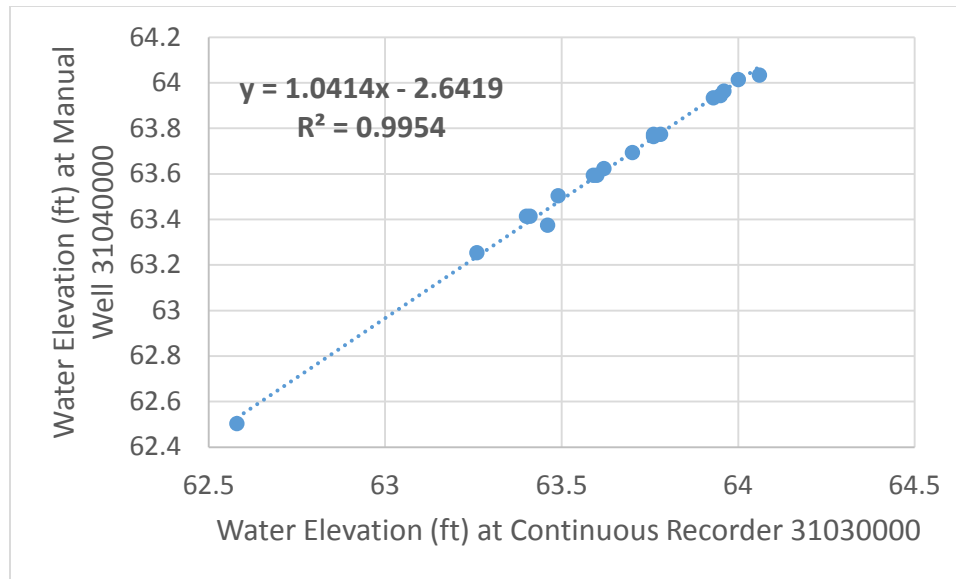


Figure B- 69. Water elevation regression of manual well 31040000 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

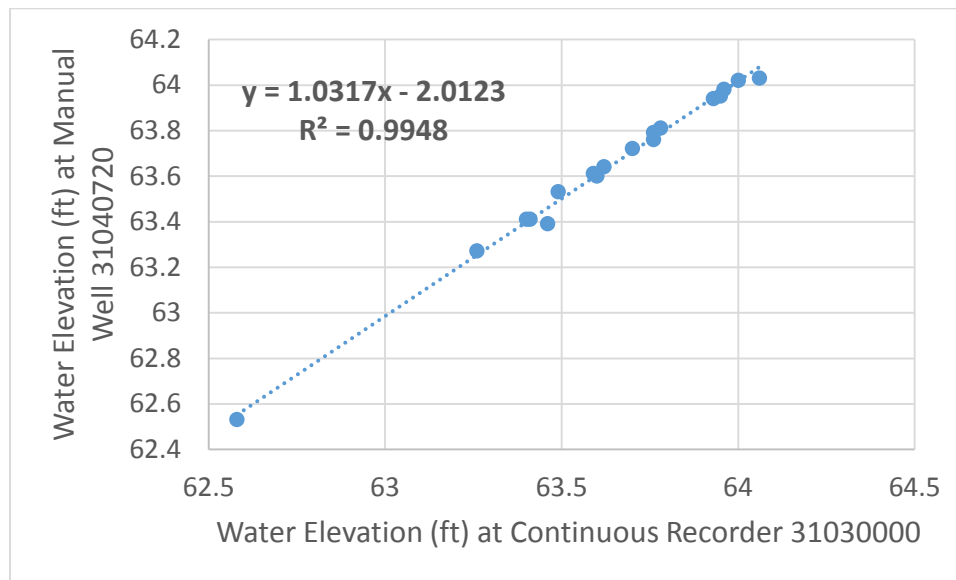


Figure B- 70. Water elevation regression of manual well 31040720 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

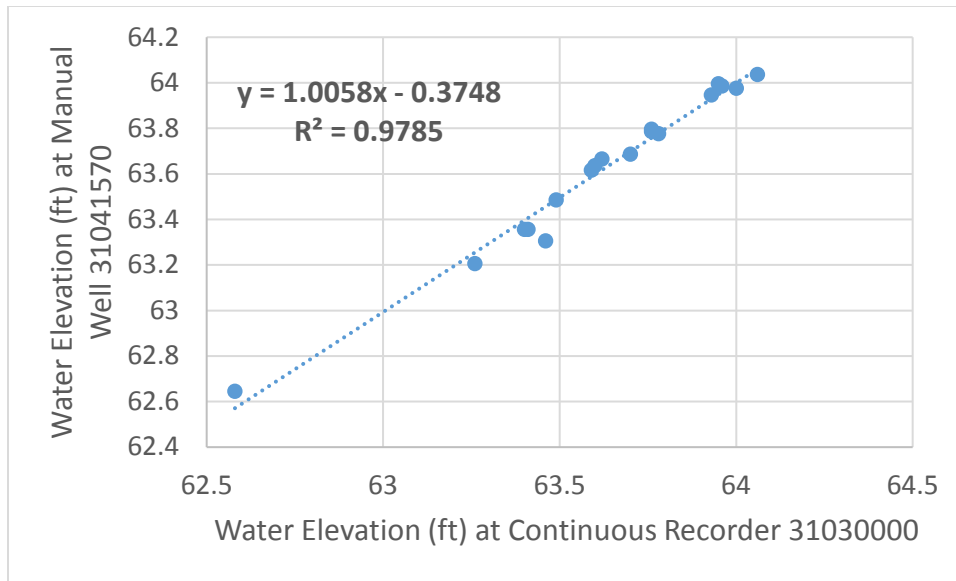


Figure B- 71. Water elevation regression of manual well 31041570 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

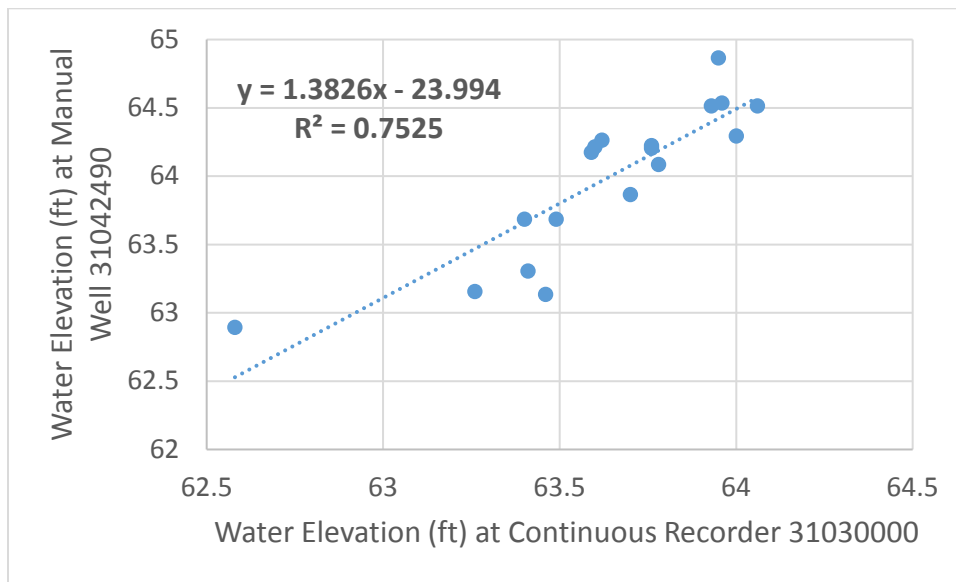


Figure B- 72. Water elevation regression of manual well 31042490 vs. continuous recorder 31030000.

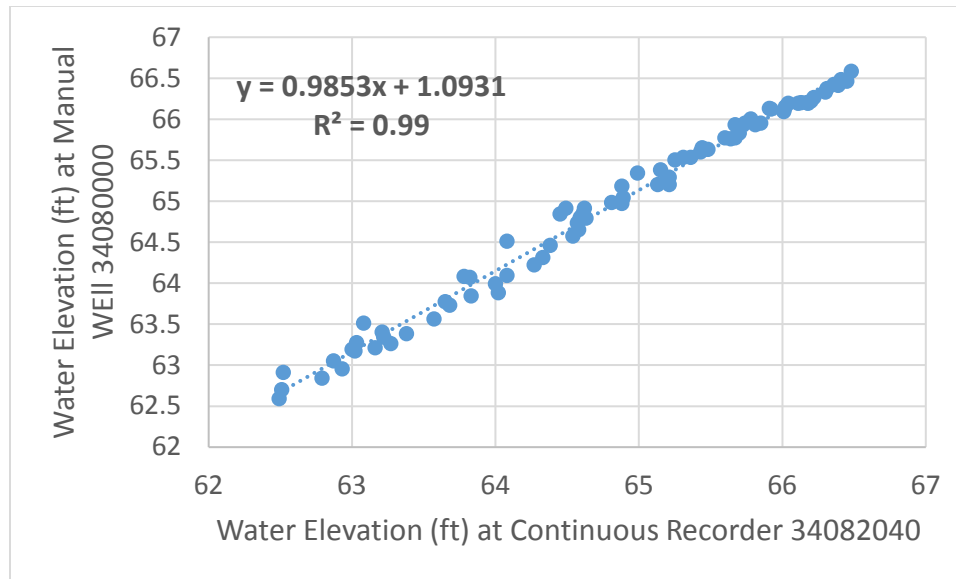


Figure B- 73. Water elevation regression of manual well 34080000 vs. continuous recorder 34082040.

**APPENDIX C:
DISTRIBUTION PLOTS OF MODEL RANDOM EFFECTS**

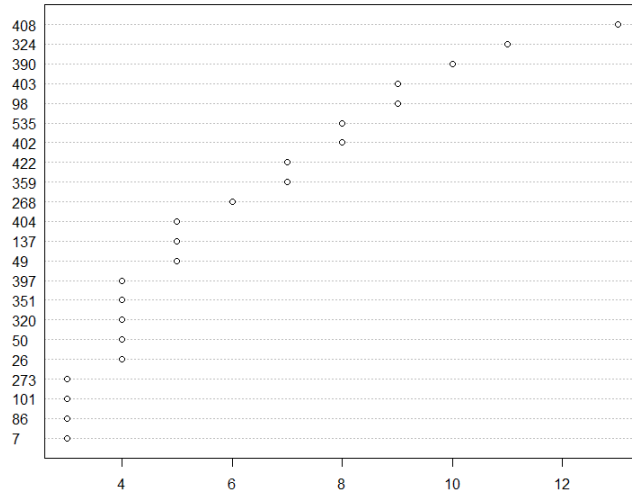


Figure C- 1. Distribution of soil sampling points across individual wetlands.

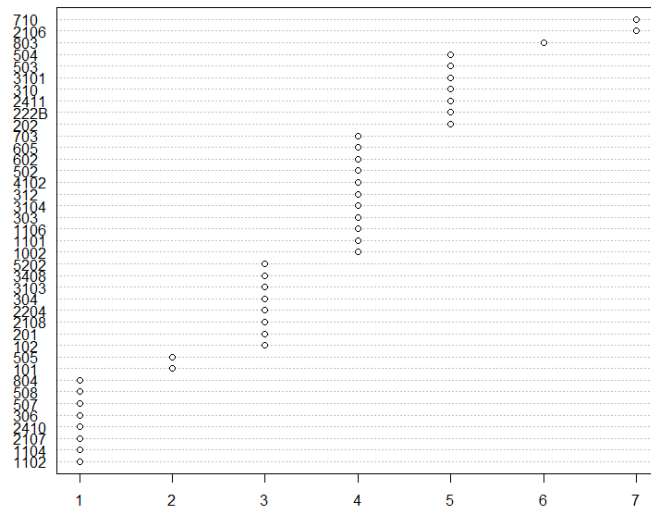


Figure C- 2. Distribution of soil sampling across individual transects.

**APPENDIX D:
HYDROPERIOD ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUPUT AND RESIDUAL
PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmmlamb(formula = HP_mean2 ~ Pt_Com + (1 | fWL_ID2/HU_T), data = Data.hydro.whole, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 1713.9

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	3.417	0.296	11.53	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead	1.702	0.311	5.47	4.5e-08	***
Pt_Comcypress	1.573	0.327	4.81	1.5e-06	***
Pt_Commarsh	2.983	0.494	6.04	1.6e-09	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=137, fWL_ID2=22, fWL_ID2:HU_T=39

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID2

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.2595	0.5094

Group=fWL_ID2:HU_T

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	1.193	1.092

Gamma shape parameter: 1.6295 (std. err.: 0.23272)

Log-likelihood: -849.947

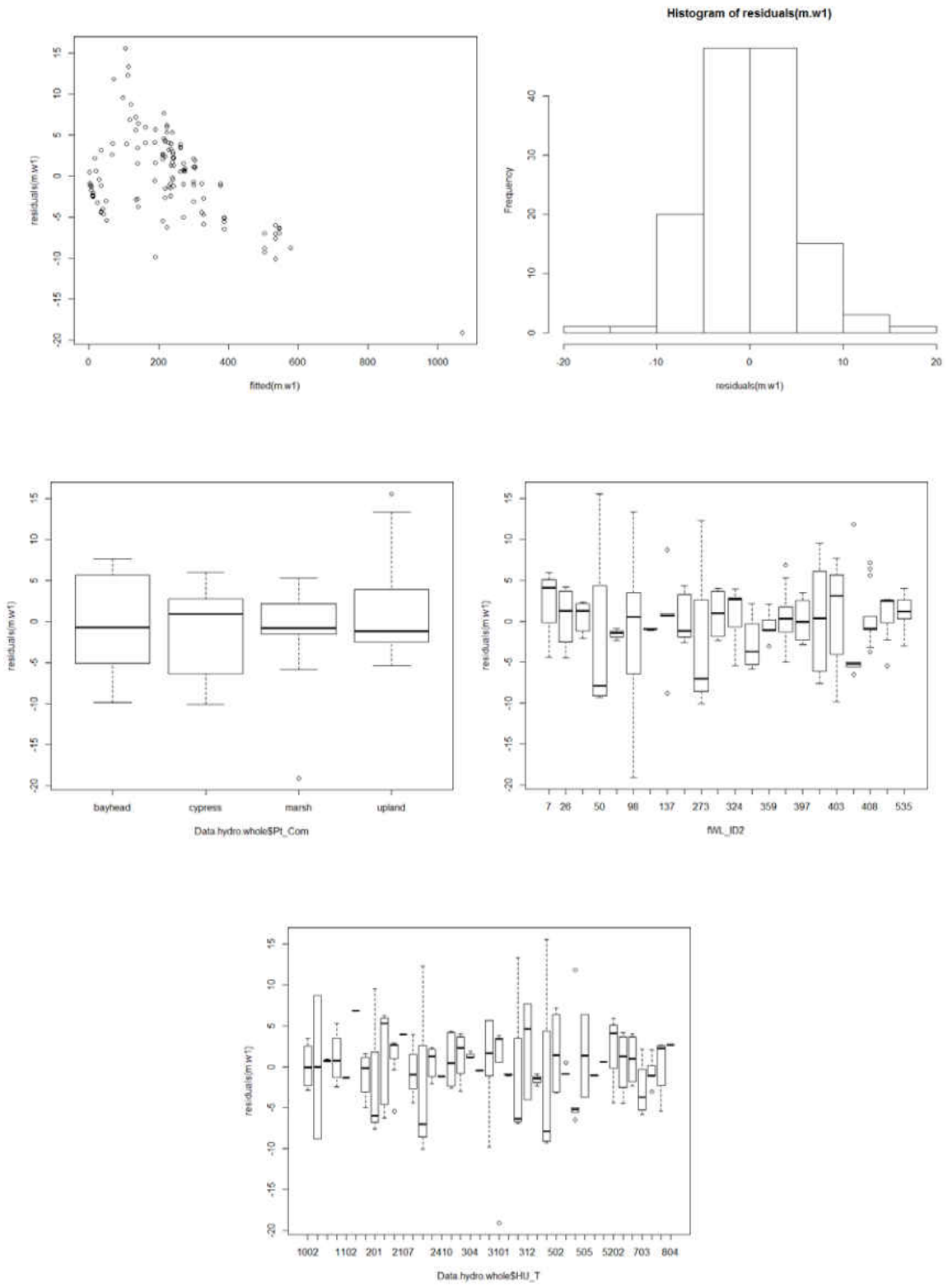


Figure D- 1. Residual plots of mean hydroperiod ~ vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX E:
WATER DEPTH ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL
PLOTS**


```
Call:
glmLambdabeta(formula = WD_avg2 ~ Pt_Com + (1 | fWL_ID2/HU_T), data = Data.hydr
o.whole, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 122.3

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	0.8960	0.0330	27.13	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Commarsh	0.3164	0.0331	9.56	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead	0.1761	0.0316	5.57	2.6e-08	***
Pt_Comcypress	0.2020	0.0331	6.11	1.0e-09	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=137, fWL_ID2=22, fWL_ID2:HU_T=39

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID2

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.00466	0.06826

Group=fWL_ID2:HU_T

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.02106	0.1451

Gamma shape parameter: 133.43 (std. err.: 21.099)

Log-likelihood: -54.1457

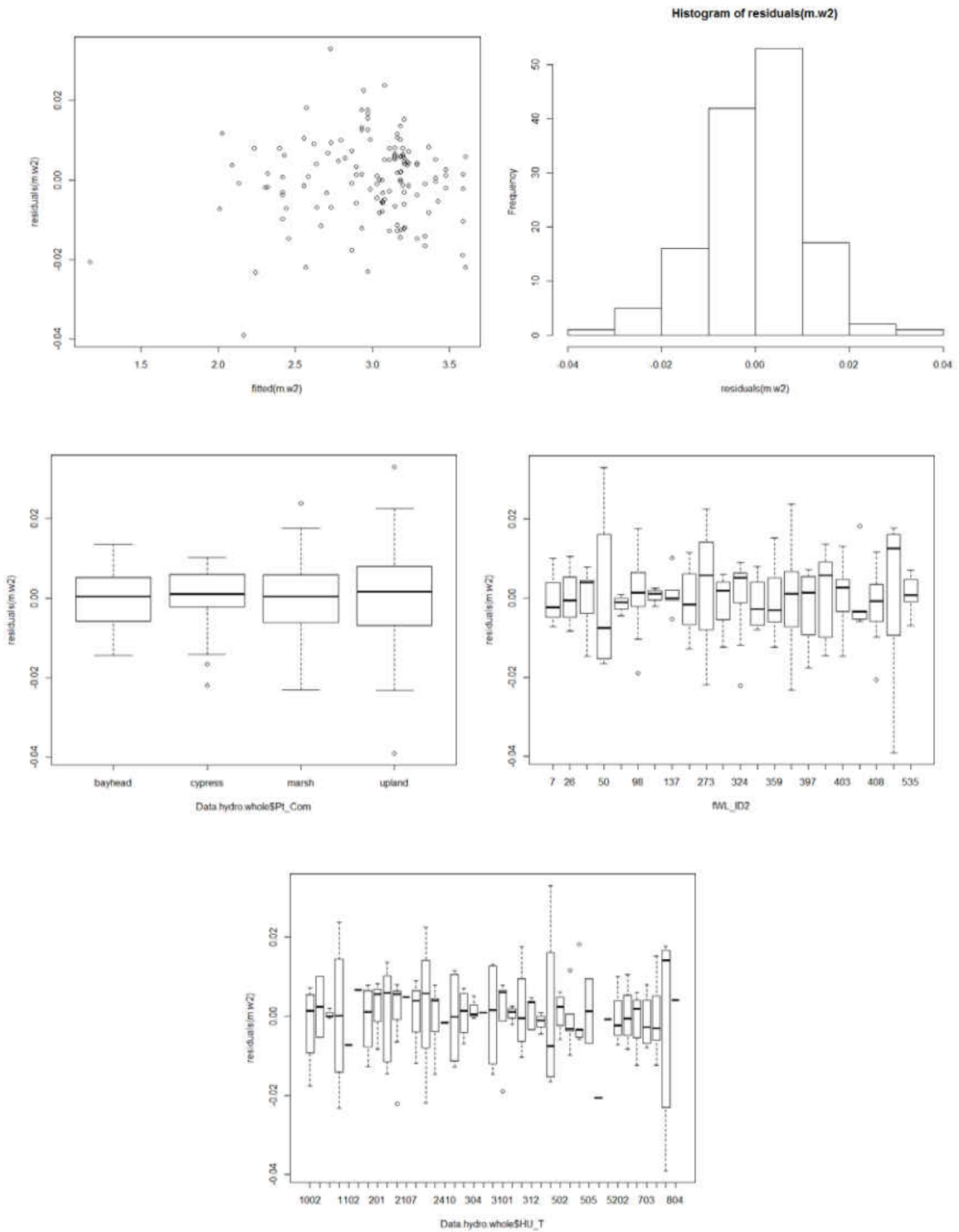


Figure E- 1. Residual plots for mean water depth ~ vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX F:
SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT
AND RESIDUAL PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmmlamb(formula = C_Conc3 ~ Pt_Com + (1 | fWL_ID3/HU_T), data = Data.carb
on.whole, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 1643.6

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	2.923	0.218	13.40	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead	2.450	0.236	10.36	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress	1.749	0.269	6.51	7.6e-11	***
Pt_Commarsh	0.915	0.258	3.54	4e-04	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=149, fWL_ID3=22, fWL_ID3:HU_T=39

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID3

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.3145	0.5608

Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.3464	0.5885

Gamma shape parameter: 1.8124 (std. err.: 0.2192)

Log-likelihood: -814.822

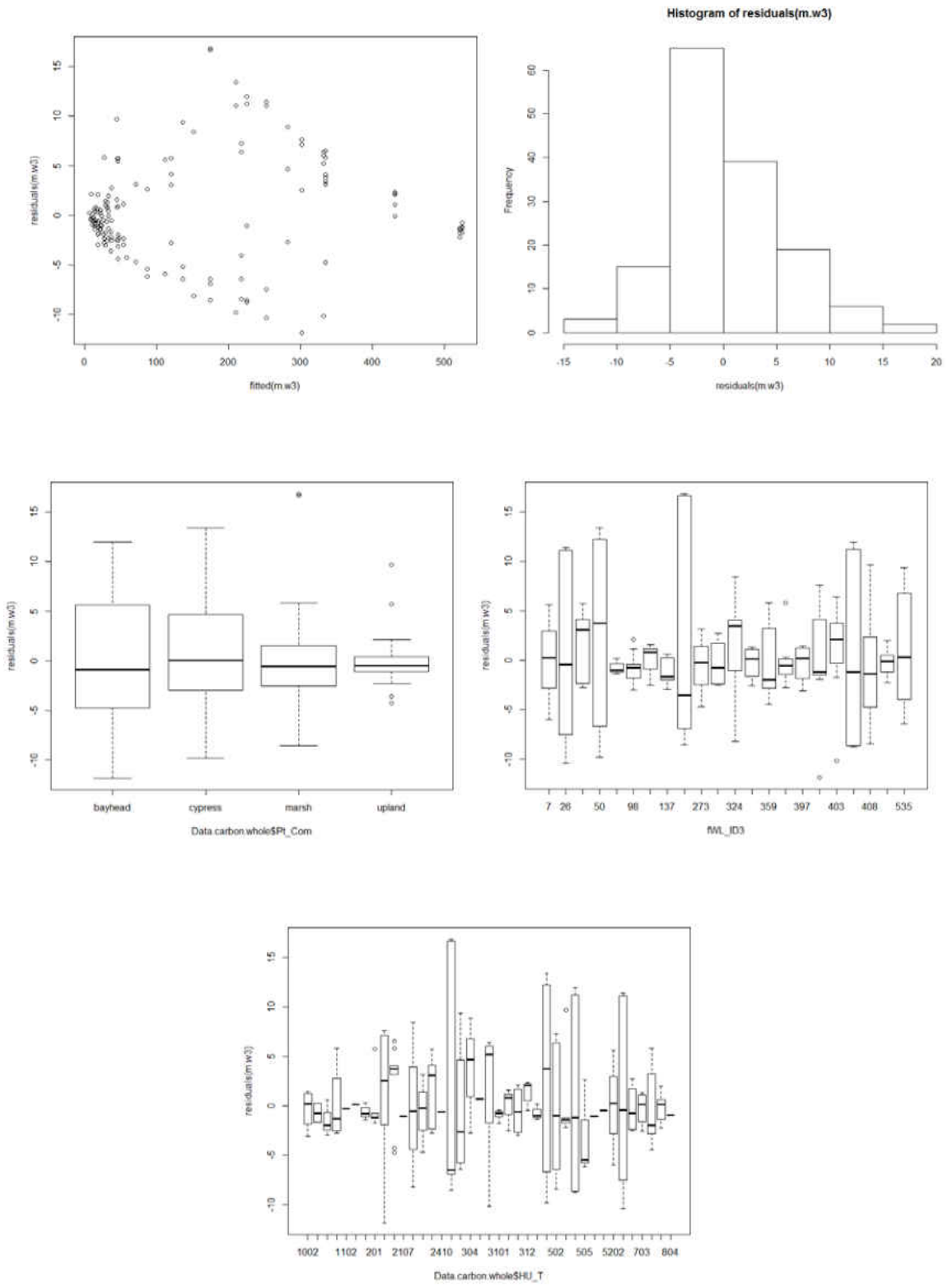


Figure F- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon concentration ~ vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX G:
SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ COMMUNITY AND SOIL DEPTH
MODEL OUTPUT AND RESIDUAL PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmMAdmb(formula = C_Conc ~ Pt_Com * Seg_Code + (1 | fWL_ID3/HU_T/fPt_ID3,
data = Data.C.seg, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 9579.9

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	4.48633	0.24104	18.61	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead	1.16614	0.29472	3.96	7.6e-05	***
Pt_Comcypress	1.38311	0.31034	4.46	8.3e-06	***
Pt_Commarsh	0.62721	0.30046	2.09	0.03684	*
Seg_CodeB	-0.86568	0.15166	-5.71	1.1e-08	***
Seg_CodeC	-1.76555	0.15382	-11.48	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeD	-2.35990	0.15544	-15.18	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeE	-2.42863	0.15773	-15.40	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeF	-2.31062	0.15895	-14.54	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeB	0.76463	0.20465	3.74	0.00019	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeB	0.27574	0.21199	1.30	0.19336	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeB	0.07531	0.19976	0.38	0.70617	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeC	1.51453	0.20764	7.29	3.0e-13	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeC	0.53644	0.21570	2.49	0.01288	*
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeC	0.41506	0.20301	2.04	0.04090	*
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeD	1.85917	0.20965	8.87	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeD	0.72061	0.21967	3.28	0.00104	**
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeD	0.53592	0.20496	2.61	0.00893	**
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeE	1.80715	0.21222	8.52	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeE	0.57630	0.22281	2.59	0.00970	**
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeE	0.33839	0.20697	1.63	0.10205	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeF	1.59215	0.21380	7.45	9.6e-14	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeF	0.33930	0.22491	1.51	0.13141	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeF	-0.00619	0.20876	-0.03	0.97636	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=898, fWL_ID3=22, fWL_ID3:HU_T=39, fWL_ID3:HU_T:fPt_ID3=150

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID3

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.2872 0.5359

Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.3212 0.5668

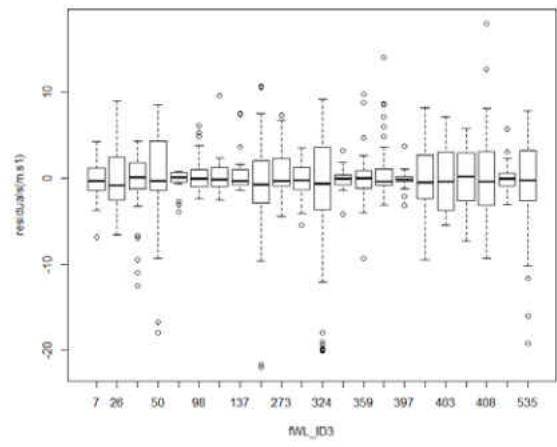
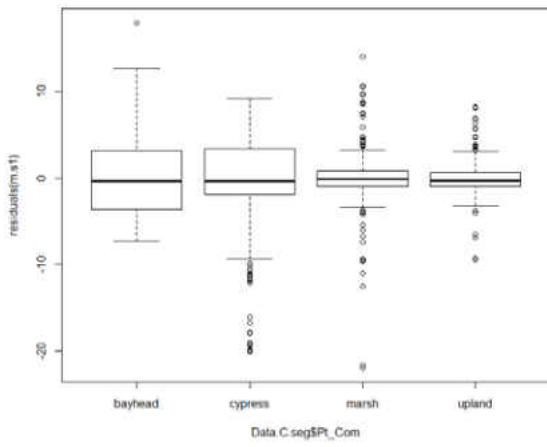
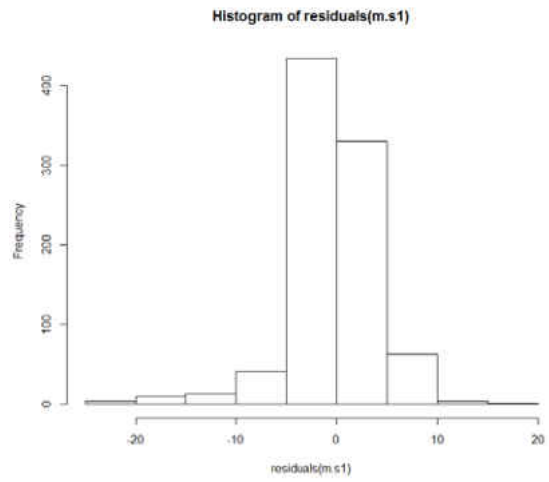
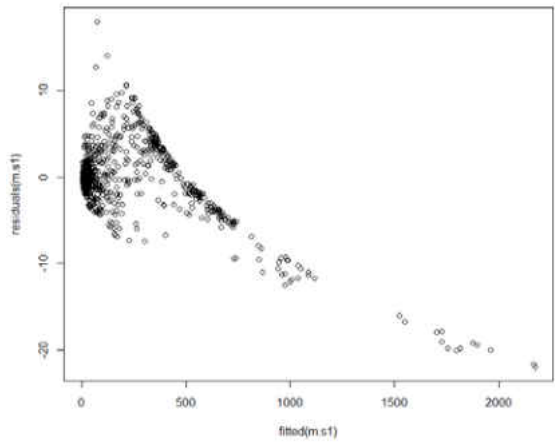
Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T:fPt_ID3

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.6397 0.7998

Gamma shape parameter: 2.8025 (std. err.: 0.13606)

Log-likelihood: -4761.94



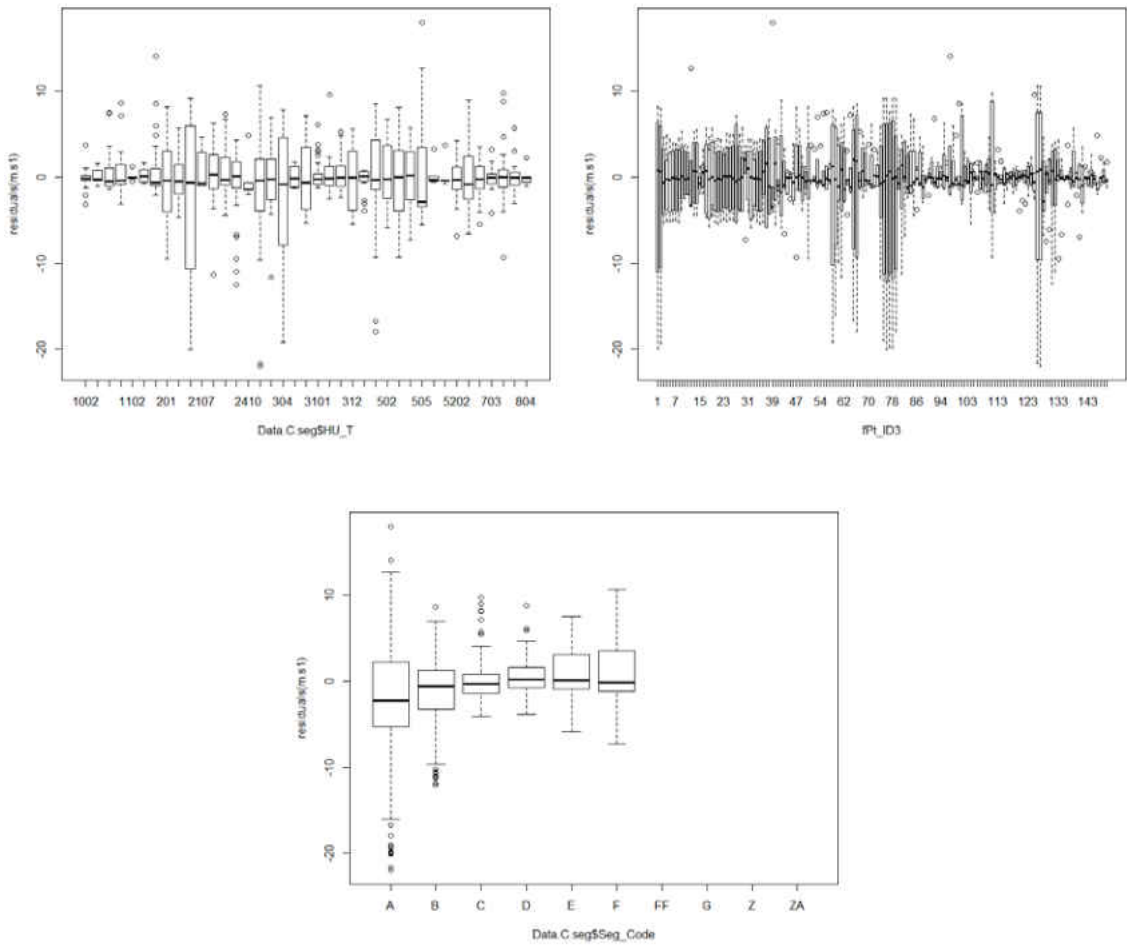


Figure G- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon concentration ~ vegetative community*soil depth model.

**APPENDIX H:
SOIL CARBON CONCENTRATION ~ WATER DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT
AND RESIDUAL PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmLambdamb(formula = C_Conc ~ WD_avg * Pt_Com + Seg_Code * Pt_Com +
(1 | fWL_ID/HU_T/fPt_ID), data = SegData, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 8329.1

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	4.6341	0.2878	16.10	< 2e-16	***
WD_avg	0.4095	0.3280	1.25	0.21179	
Pt_Combayhead	0.8263	0.3467	2.38	0.01714	*
Pt_Comcypress	0.9525	0.3910	2.44	0.01486	*
Pt_Commarsh	0.0290	0.3542	0.08	0.93472	
Seg_CodeB	-0.8892	0.1547	-5.75	9.0e-09	***
Seg_CodeC	-1.7462	0.1569	-11.13	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeD	-2.3340	0.1585	-14.73	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeE	-2.4126	0.1593	-15.15	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeF	-2.2910	0.1604	-14.28	< 2e-16	***
WD_avg:Pt_Combayhead	1.3409	0.6871	1.95	0.05098	.
WD_avg:Pt_Comcypress	1.0321	0.9144	1.13	0.25905	
WD_avg:Pt_Commarsh	2.7393	0.6187	4.43	9.5e-06	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeB	0.8366	0.2263	3.70	0.00022	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeB	0.2865	0.2176	1.32	0.18793	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeB	0.0947	0.2024	0.47	0.63981	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeC	1.5310	0.2290	6.68	2.3e-11	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeC	0.4805	0.2213	2.17	0.02993	*
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeC	0.3874	0.2057	1.88	0.05963	.
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeD	1.7626	0.2313	7.62	2.5e-14	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeD	0.6280	0.2252	2.79	0.00529	**
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeD	0.5025	0.2076	2.42	0.01546	*
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeE	1.6689	0.2335	7.15	8.8e-13	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeE	0.4725	0.2272	2.08	0.03758	*
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeE	0.3200	0.2084	1.53	0.12479	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeF	1.4313	0.2355	6.08	1.2e-09	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeF	0.2160	0.2293	0.94	0.34602	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeF	-0.0229	0.2102	-0.11	0.91305	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=810, fWL_ID=22, fWL_ID:HU_T=39, fWL_ID:HU_T:fPt_ID=135

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.312 0.5585

Group=fWL_ID:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.3674 0.6062

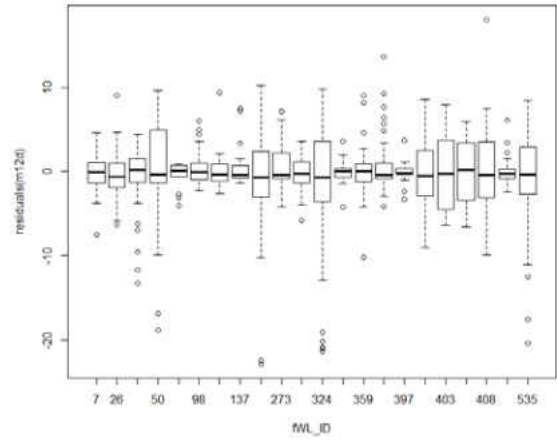
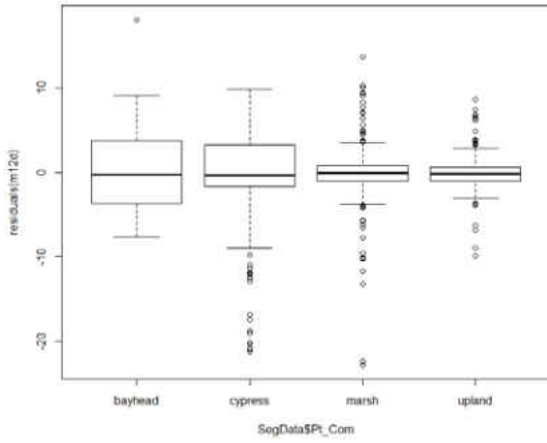
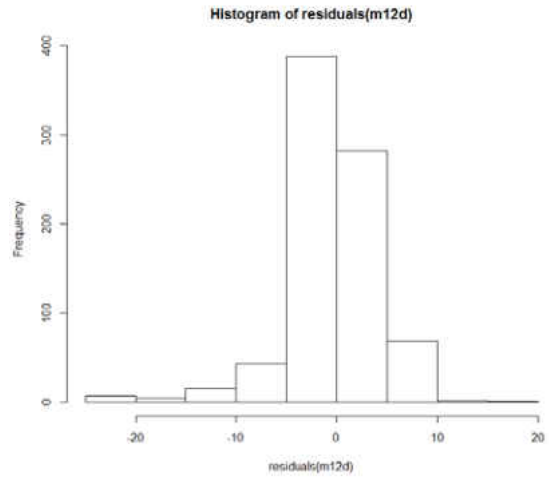
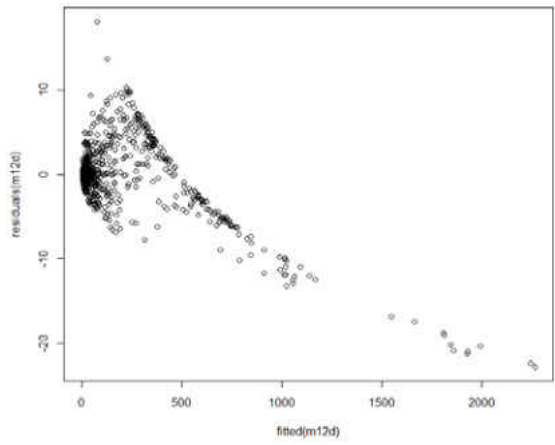
Group=fWL_ID:HU_T:fPt_ID

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.4513 0.6718

Gamma shape parameter: 2.7811 (std. err.: 0.14217)

Log-likelihood: -4132.55



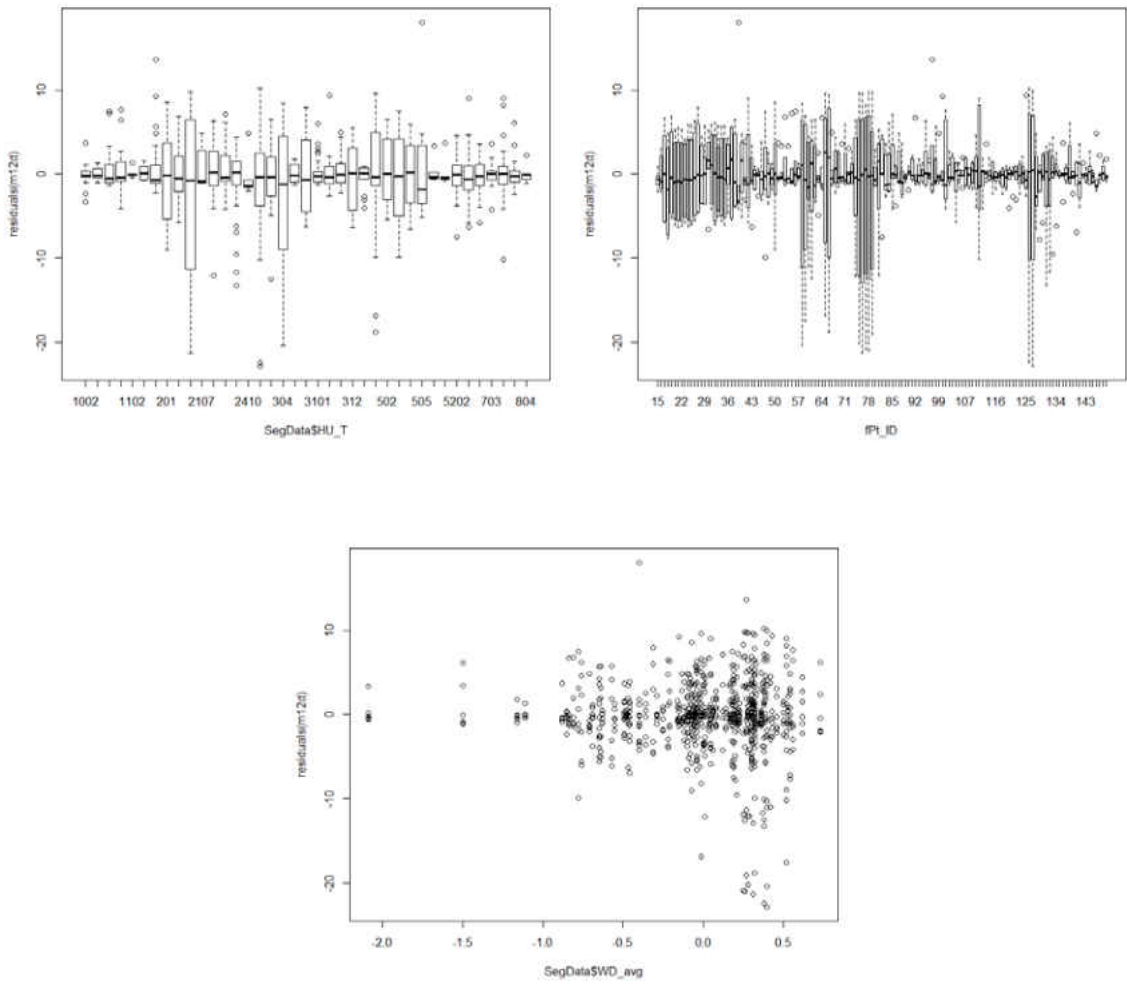


Figure H- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon concentration ~ mean water depth, soil depth, and vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX I:
SOIL BULK DENSITY ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND
RESIDUAL PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmLambdabeta(formula = Density ~ Pt_Com + (1 | fWL_ID4/HU_T), data = Data.density.whole, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 182.7

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	0.386	0.121	3.20	0.0014	**
Pt_Combayhead	-1.301	0.162	-8.01	1.2e-15	***
Pt_Comcypress	-0.783	0.163	-4.80	1.6e-06	***
Pt_Commarsh	-0.255	0.165	-1.54	0.1227	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=149, fWL_ID4=22, fWL_ID4:HU_T=39

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID4

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	8.661e-07	0.0009306

Group=fWL_ID4:HU_T

	Variance	StdDev
(Intercept)	0.1739	0.417

Gamma shape parameter: 3.4662 (std. err.: 0.43212)

Log-likelihood: -84.3353

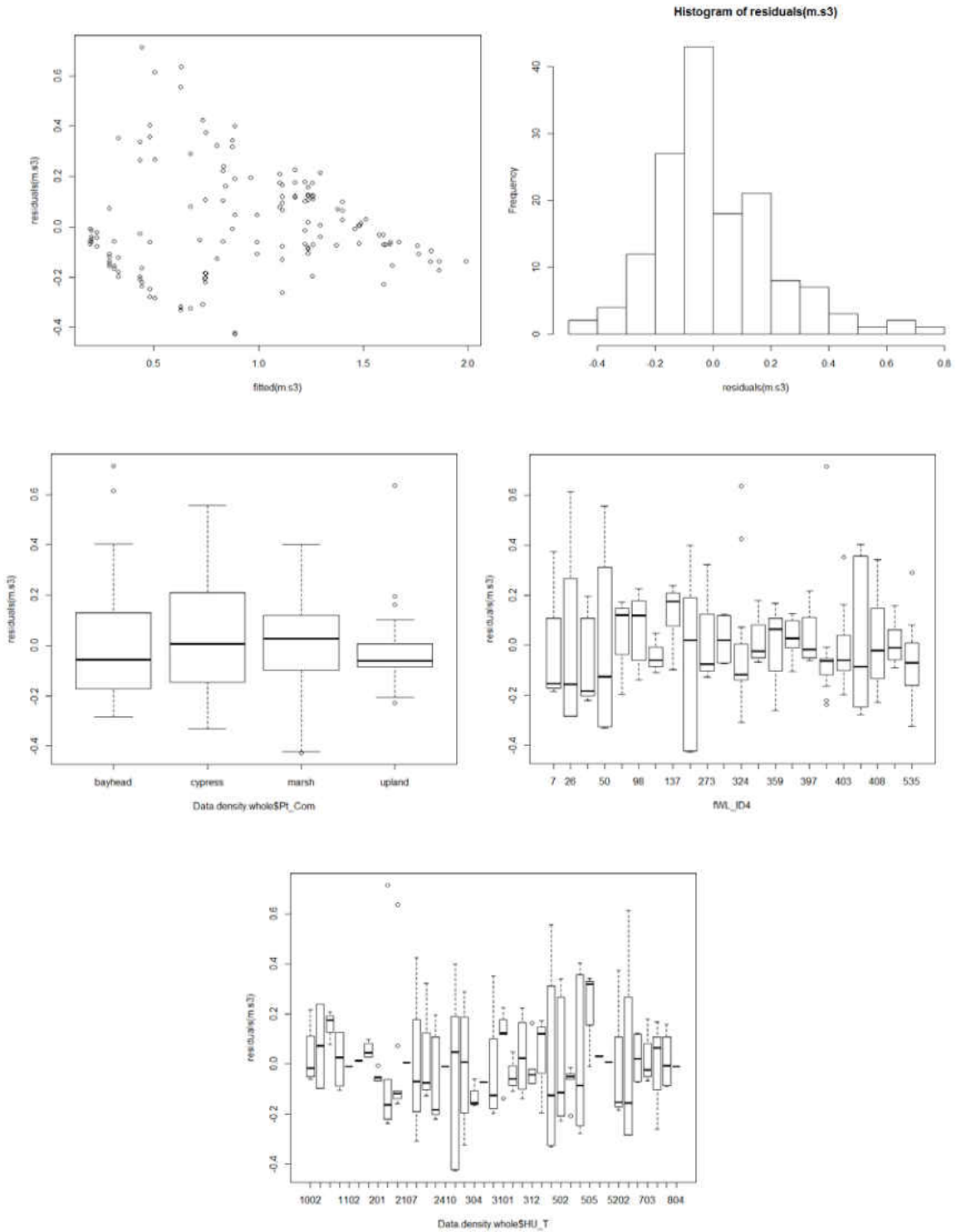


Figure I- 1. Residual plots for soil bulk density ~ vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX J:
SOIL BULK DENSITY ~ SOIL DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND
RESIDUAL PLOTS**

```
Call:
glmLambdabeta(formula = Density ~ Pt_Com * Seg_Code + (1 | fWL_ID5/HU_T/fPt_ID5
), data = Data.density.seg, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 37.6

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	-0.43515	0.12861	-3.38	0.00072	***
Pt_Combayhead	-1.35666	0.16819	-8.07	7.3e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress	-0.85012	0.17927	-4.74	2.1e-06	***
Pt_Commmarsh	-0.38108	0.17466	-2.18	0.02912	*
Seg_CodeB	0.52858	0.08189	6.45	1.1e-10	***
Seg_CodeC	0.77161	0.08213	9.39	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeD	0.86245	0.08210	10.50	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeE	0.92465	0.08296	11.15	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeF	0.93820	0.08293	11.31	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeB	-0.25723	0.10980	-2.34	0.01914	*
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeB	-0.17387	0.11416	-1.52	0.12776	
Pt_Commmarsh:Seg_CodeB	-0.00178	0.10768	-0.02	0.98681	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeC	-0.24758	0.11020	-2.25	0.02466	*
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeC	-0.16494	0.11459	-1.44	0.15004	
Pt_Commmarsh:Seg_CodeC	0.03742	0.10789	0.35	0.72872	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeD	-0.17428	0.11049	-1.58	0.11471	
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeD	-0.11306	0.11488	-0.98	0.32502	
Pt_Commmarsh:Seg_CodeD	0.06888	0.10794	0.64	0.52336	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeE	-0.06790	0.11152	-0.61	0.54264	
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeE	-0.04304	0.11570	-0.37	0.70990	
Pt_Commmarsh:Seg_CodeE	0.07453	0.10878	0.69	0.49327	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeF	-0.08060	0.11180	-0.72	0.47096	
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeF	-0.01975	0.11585	-0.17	0.86462	
Pt_Commmarsh:Seg_CodeF	0.13013	0.10888	1.20	0.23202	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=898, fWL_ID5=22, fWL_ID5:HU_T=39, fWL_ID5:HU_T:fPt_ID5=150

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID5

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.009345 0.09667

Group=fWL_ID5:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.1468 0.3831

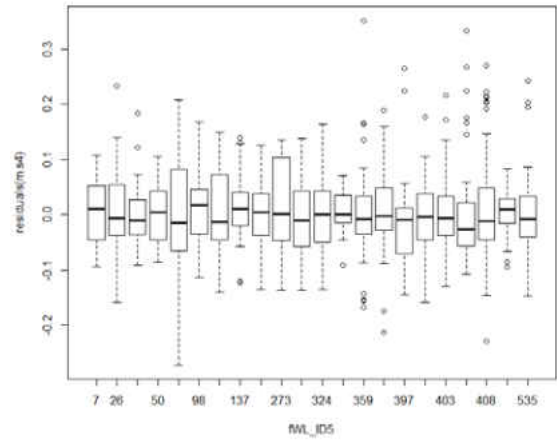
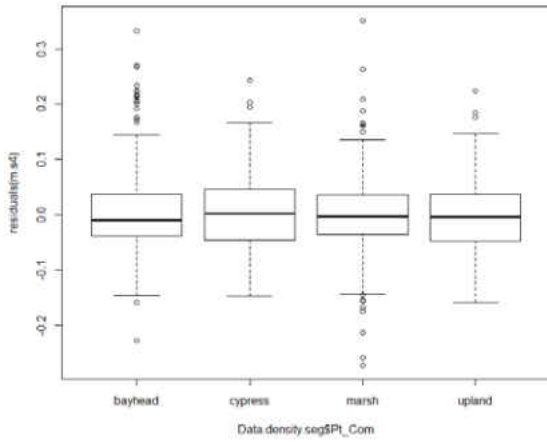
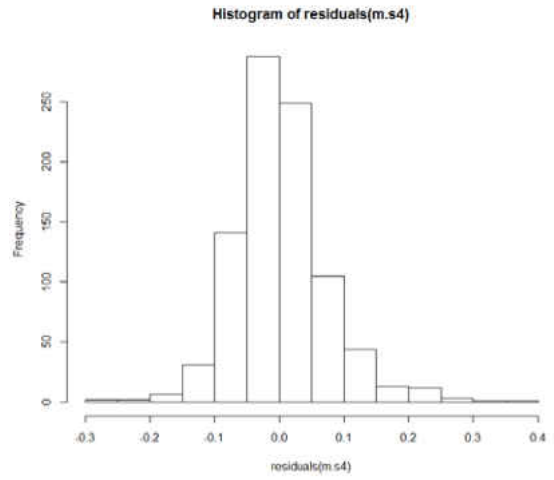
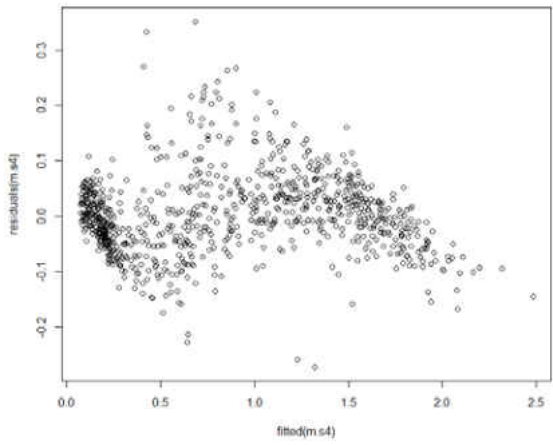
Group=fWL_ID5:HU_T:fPt_ID5

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.2602 0.5101

Gamma shape parameter: 9.401 (std. err.: 0.4763)

Log-likelihood: 9.20738



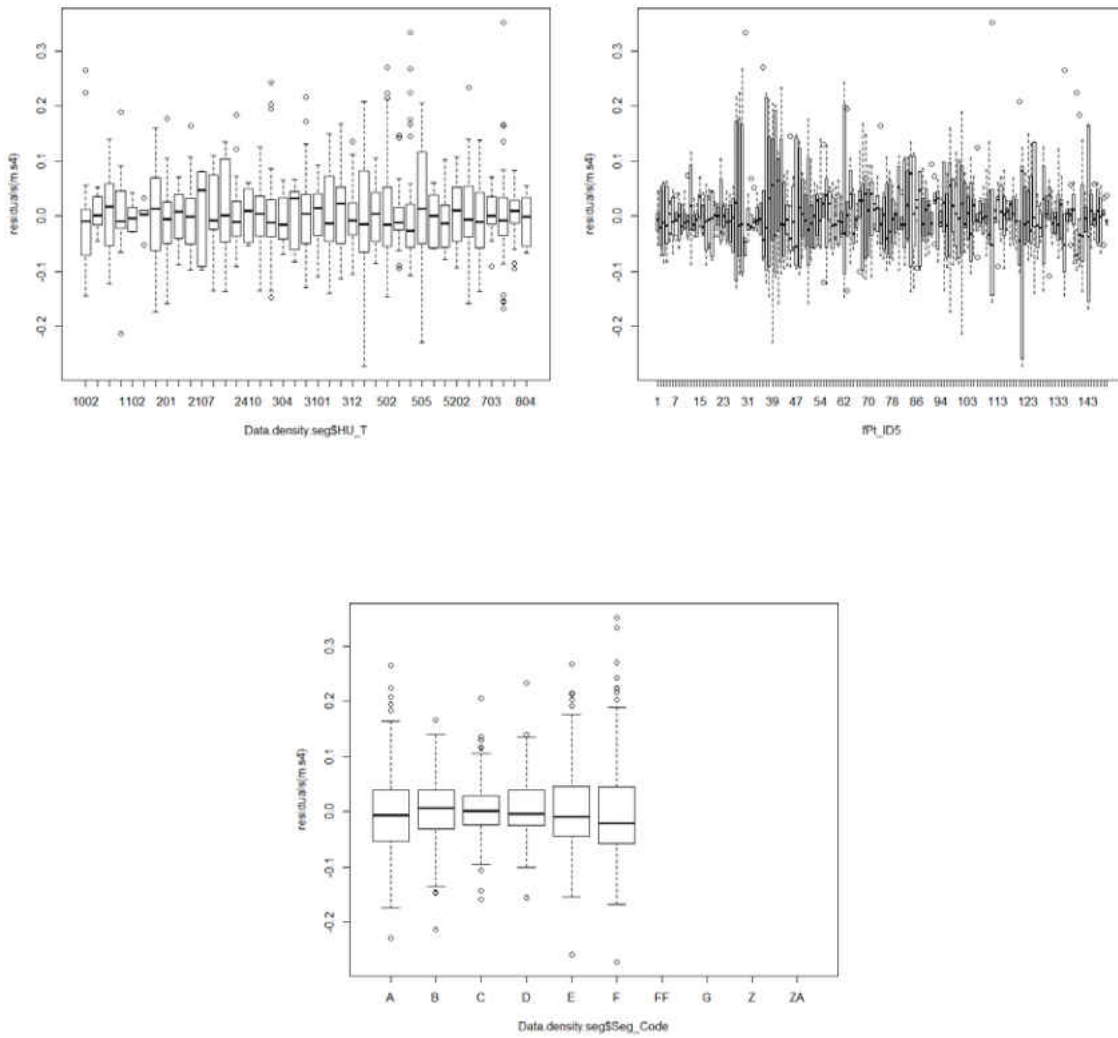


Figure J- 1. Residual plots for soil bulk density ~ vegetative community*soil depth model.

**APPENDIX K:
SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ COMMUNITY MODEL OUTPUT AND
RESIDUAL PLOTS**

Call:
glmmadmb(formula = C_Stock ~ Pt_Com + (1 | fWL_ID3/HU_T), data = Data.carbon.whole, family = "Gamma")

AIC: 1148

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	2.421	0.122	19.78	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Combayhead	1.004	0.153	6.57	5.1e-11	***
Pt_Comcypress	0.617	0.164	3.77	0.00016	***
Pt_Commarsh	0.522	0.157	3.33	0.00086	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=149, fWL_ID3=22, fWL_ID3:HU_T=39

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID3

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.06477 0.2545

Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.02883 0.1698

Gamma shape parameter: 3.3757 (std. err.: 0.42936)

Log-likelihood: -567.01

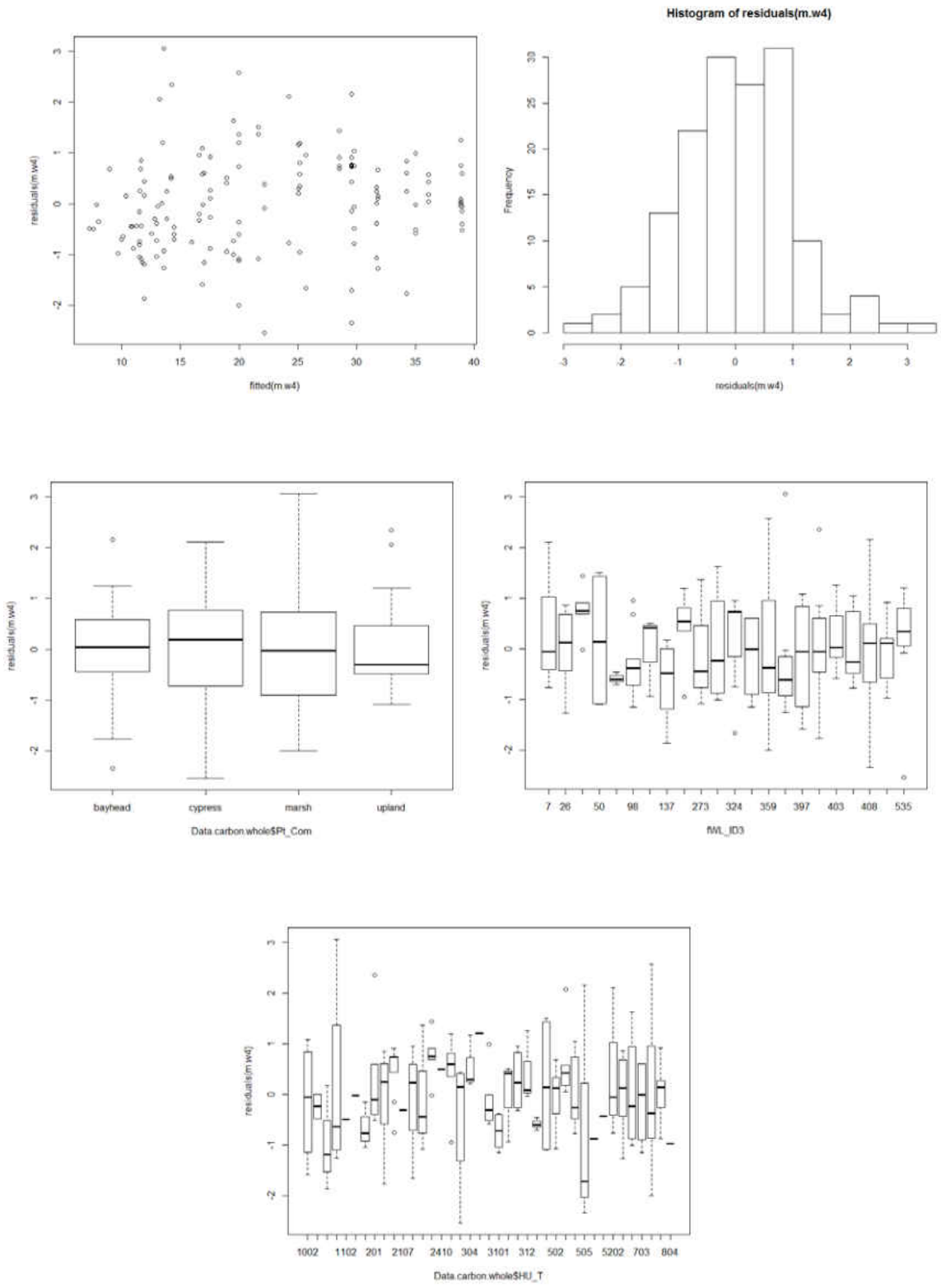


Figure K- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon stock ~ vegetative community model.

**APPENDIX L:
SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ SOIL DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND
RESIDUAL PLOTS**


```
Call:
glmLambdmb(formula = C_Stock ~ Pt_Com * Seg_Code + (1 | fWL_ID3/HU_T/fPt_ID3
), data = Data.C.seg, family = "Gamma")
```

AIC: 3418.8

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	0.742	0.165	4.50	6.7e-06	***
Pt_Comcypress	0.518	0.217	2.39	0.0167	*
Pt_Commarsh	0.357	0.204	1.75	0.0800	.
Pt_Comupland	0.177	0.172	1.02	0.3056	
Seg_CodeB	0.254	0.108	2.36	0.0184	*
Seg_CodeC	1.074	0.109	9.88	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeD	0.983	0.109	9.00	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeE	0.917	0.109	8.39	< 2e-16	***
Seg_CodeF	0.702	0.109	6.43	1.3e-10	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeB	-0.333	0.159	-2.09	0.0369	*
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeB	-0.377	0.149	-2.52	0.0117	*
Pt_Comupland:Seg_CodeB	-0.523	0.162	-3.23	0.0013	**
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeC	-0.732	0.161	-4.54	5.6e-06	***
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeC	-0.767	0.151	-5.08	3.9e-07	***
Pt_Comupland:Seg_CodeC	-1.323	0.163	-8.10	5.4e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeD	-0.949	0.162	-5.84	5.1e-09	***
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeD	-1.019	0.152	-6.70	2.0e-11	***
Pt_Comupland:Seg_CodeD	-1.697	0.164	-10.33	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeE	-0.994	0.163	-6.09	1.1e-09	***
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeE	-1.144	0.152	-7.52	5.7e-14	***
Pt_Comupland:Seg_CodeE	-1.625	0.166	-9.80	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeF	-0.959	0.163	-5.88	4.2e-09	***
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeF	-1.156	0.152	-7.58	3.4e-14	***
Pt_Comupland:Seg_CodeF	-1.295	0.166	-7.78	7.1e-15	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=898, fWL_ID3=22, fWL_ID3:HU_T=39, fWL_ID3:HU_T:fPt_ID3=150

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID3

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.09518 0.3085

Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.06454 0.254

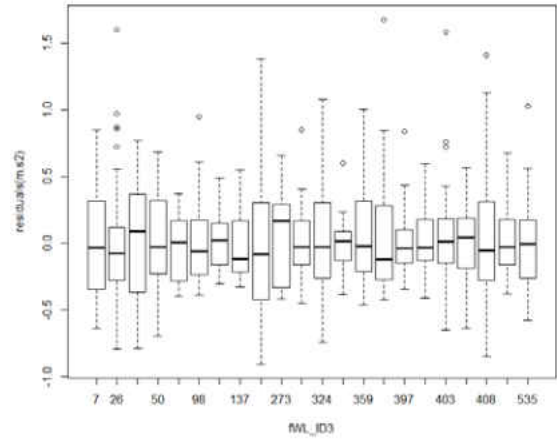
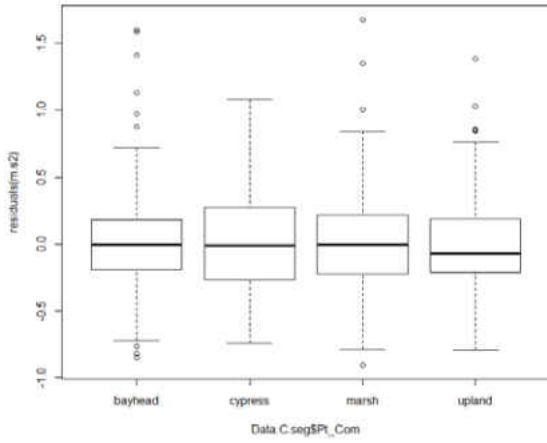
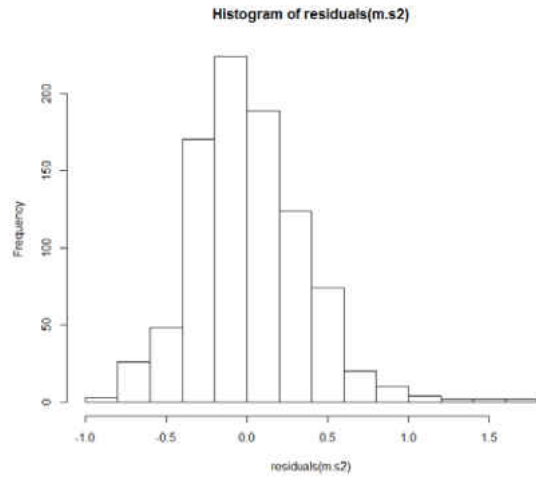
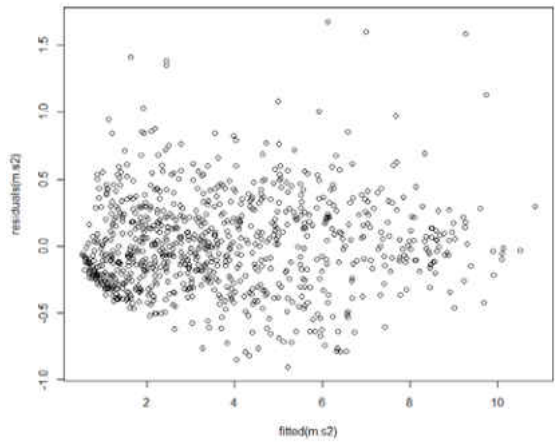
Group=fWL_ID3:HU_T:fPt_ID3

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.1465 0.3828

Gamma shape parameter: 4.3645 (std. err.: 0.21705)

Log-likelihood: -1681.42



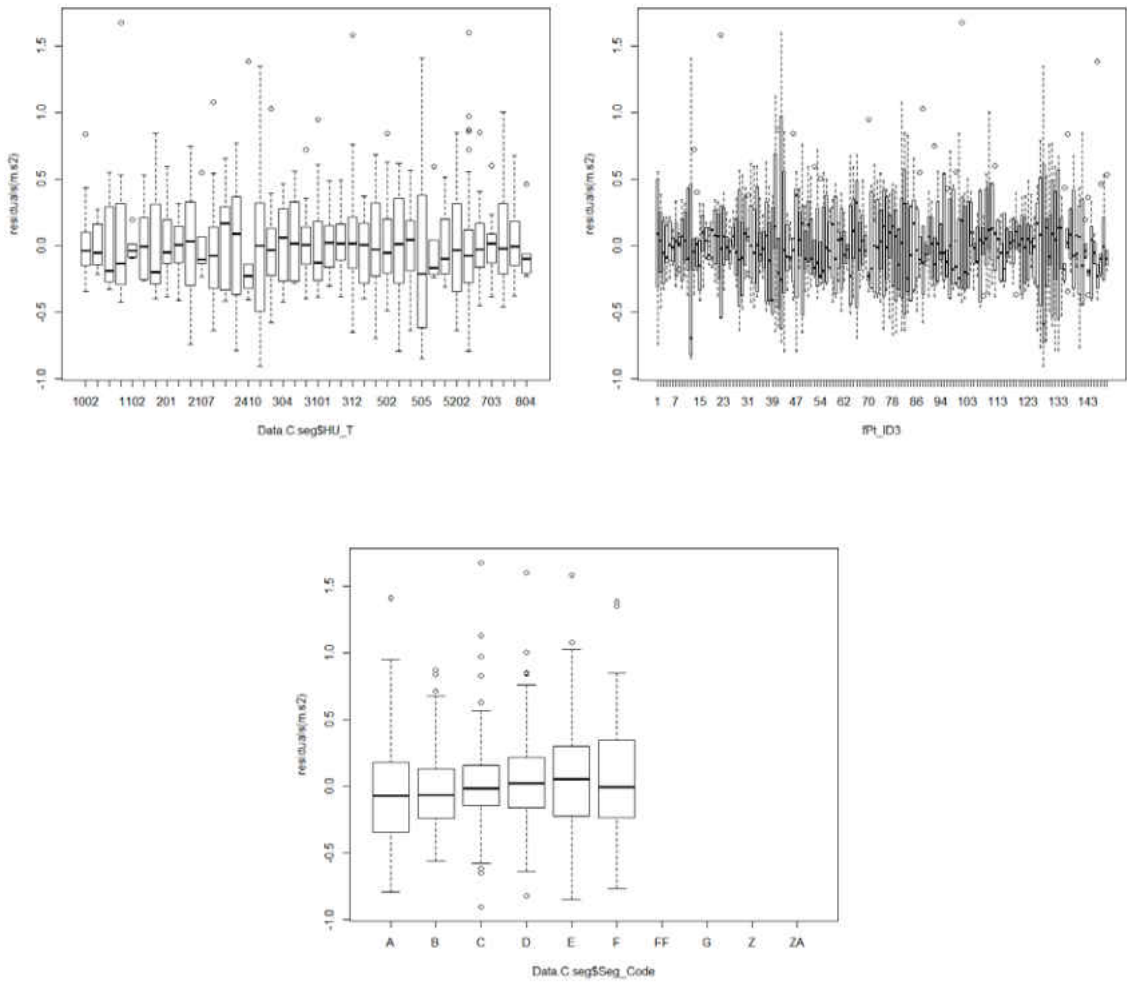


Figure L- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon stock ~ vegetative community*soil depth.

**APPENDIX M:
SOIL CARBON STOCK ~ WATER DEPTH MODEL OUTPUT AND
RESIDUAL PLOTS**

Call:
 glmmadmb(formula = C_Stock ~ WD_avg * Pt_Com + Seg_Code * Pt_Com +
 (1 | fWL_ID/HU_T/fPt_ID), data = SegData, family = "Gamma")

AIC: 2997.1

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	1.0080	0.1664	6.06	1.4e-09	***
WD_avg	0.2233	0.1776	1.26	0.20862	
Pt_Combayhead	-0.3360	0.2095	-1.60	0.10876	
Pt_Comcypress	0.2665	0.2343	1.14	0.25541	
Pt_Commarsh	-0.1193	0.2056	-0.58	0.56174	
Seg_CodeB	-0.2843	0.1238	-2.30	0.02172	*
Seg_CodeC	-0.2536	0.1248	-2.03	0.04207	*
Seg_CodeD	-0.7084	0.1258	-5.63	1.8e-08	***
Seg_CodeE	-0.7050	0.1266	-5.57	2.6e-08	***
Seg_CodeF	-0.5876	0.1274	-4.61	4.0e-06	***
WD_avg:Pt_Combayhead	0.3501	0.3705	0.94	0.34470	
WD_avg:Pt_Comcypress	-0.0452	0.5111	-0.09	0.92959	
WD_avg:Pt_Commarsh	1.2591	0.3439	3.66	0.00025	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeB	0.6114	0.1795	3.41	0.00066	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeB	0.1869	0.1736	1.08	0.28169	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeB	0.1536	0.1616	0.95	0.34201	
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeC	1.4507	0.1802	8.05	8.2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeC	0.5663	0.1753	3.23	0.00124	**
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeC	0.5433	0.1633	3.33	0.00088	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeD	1.7833	0.1812	9.84	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeD	0.6953	0.1770	3.93	8.5e-05	***
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeD	0.6554	0.1645	3.98	6.8e-05	***
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeE	1.6783	0.1818	9.23	< 2e-16	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeE	0.5698	0.1782	3.20	0.00139	**
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeE	0.4625	0.1653	2.80	0.00515	**
Pt_Combayhead:Seg_CodeF	1.3041	0.1822	7.16	8.3e-13	***
Pt_Comcypress:Seg_CodeF	0.2686	0.1789	1.50	0.13334	
Pt_Commarsh:Seg_CodeF	0.1241	0.1663	0.75	0.45540	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Number of observations: total=810, fWL_ID=22, fWL_ID:HU_T=39, fWL_ID:HU_T:
 fPt_ID=135

Random effect variance(s):

Group=fWL_ID

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.09198 0.3033

Group=fWL_ID:HU_T

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.07148 0.2674

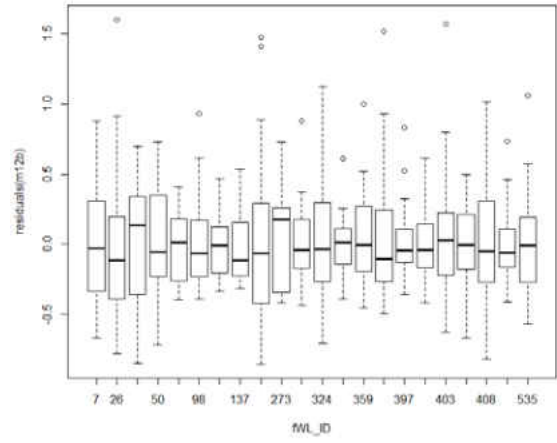
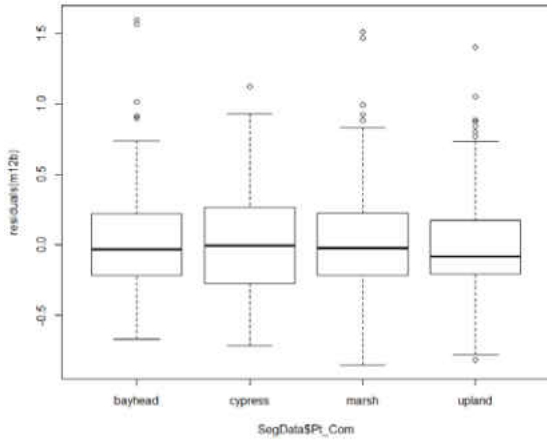
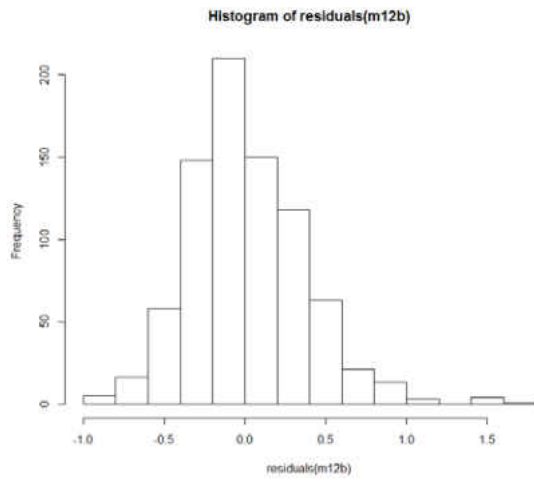
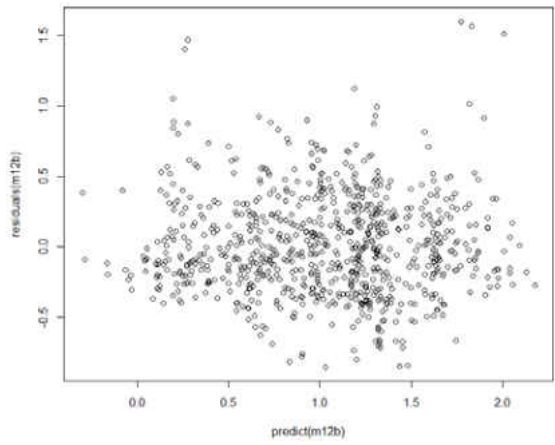
Group=fWL_ID:HU_T:fPt_ID

Variance StdDev

(Intercept) 0.1255 0.3542

Gamma shape parameter: 4.3041 (std. err.: 0.22518)

Log-likelihood: -1466.56



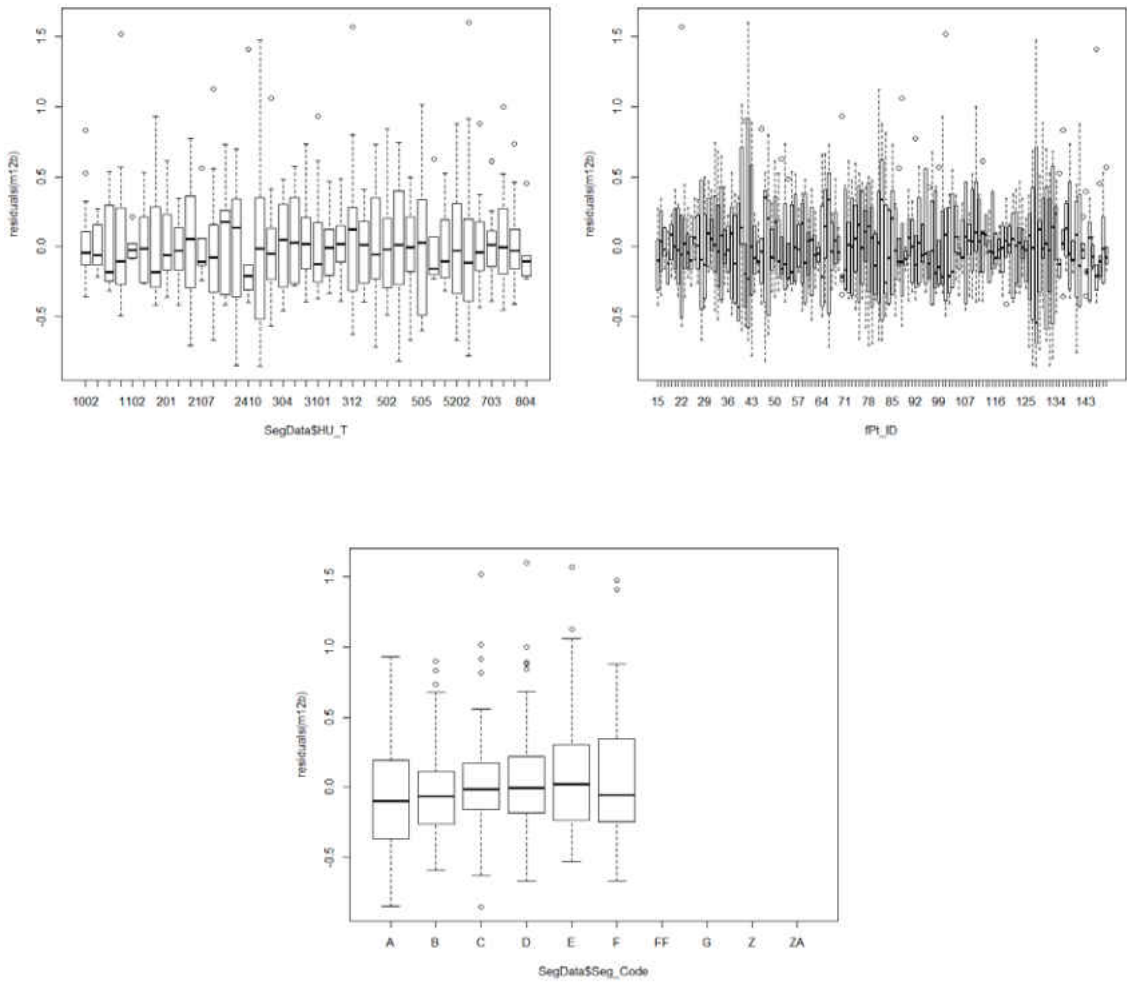


Figure M- 1. Residual plots for soil carbon stock ~ water depth, vegetative community, and soil depth model.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Ballantine, Katherine and Rebecca Schneider. 2009. "Fifty-Five Years of Soil Development in Restored Freshwater Depressional Wetlands." *Ecological Applications* 19(6):1467–80.
- Ballantine, Katherine, Rebecca Schneider, Peter Groffman, and Johannes Lehmann. 2012. "Soil Properties and Vegetative Development in Four Restored Freshwater Depressional Wetlands." *Soil Science Society of America Journal* 76:1482–95.
- Batjes, N.H. 1999. "Management options for reducing CO₂-concentrations in the atmosphere by increasing carbon sequestration in the soil." Report 410-200-031, Dutch National Research Programme on Global Air Pollution and Climate Change & Technical Paper 30, International Soil Reference and Information Centre, Wageningen.
- Becker, Kathryn Elizabeth. 2011. "Variability of Carbon Stock in Florida Flatwoods Ecosystems Undergoing Restoration and Management." M.S. Thesis. University of Central Florida.
- Bernal, Blanca and William J. Mitsch. 2008. "A Comparison of Soil Carbon Pools and Profiles in Wetlands in Costa Rica and Ohio." *Ecological Engineering* 34:311–23.
- Bernal, Blanca and William J. Mitsch. 2012. "Comparing Carbon Sequestration in Temperate Freshwater Wetland Communities." *Global Change Biology* 18:1636–47.
- Bishel-Machung, Laurie, Robert P. Brooks, Sharon S. Yates, and Kevin L. Hoover. 1996. "Soil Properties of Reference Wetlands and Wetland Creation Projects in Pennsylvania." *Wetlands* 16(4):532–41.
- Bridgham, Scott D., J. Patrick Megonigal, Jason K. Keller, Norman B. Bliss, and Carl Trettin. 2006. "The Carbon Balance of North American Wetlands." *Wetlands* 26(4):889–916.
- Bridgham, Scott D., Karen Updegraff, and John Pastor. 1998. "Carbon, Nitrogen, and Phosphorus Mineralization in Northern Wetlands." *Ecology* 79(5):1545–61.
- Brock, Th. C. M., C. A. M. Huijbregts, M. J. H. A. Van De Steeg-Huberts, and M. A. Vlassak. 1982. "In Situ Studies on the Breakdown of *Nymphoides Peltata* (GMEL.) O. Kuntze (Menyanthaceae); Some Methodological Aspects of the Litter Bag Technique." *Hydrobiological Bulletin* 16(1):35-49.
- Bullinger-Weber, G., R. C. Le Bayon, A. Thébault, R. Schlaepfer, and C. Guenat. 2014. "Carbon Storage and Soil Organic Matter Stabilisation in near-Natural, Restored and Embanked Swiss Floodplains." *Geoderma* 228–229:122–31.
- Bullock, Andy and Mike Acreman. 2003. "The Role of Wetlands in the Hydrological Cycle." *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences* 7(3):358–89.

- Cagampan, J. P. and J. M. Waddington. 2008. "Moisture Dynamics and Hydrophysical Properties of a Transplanted Acrotelm on a Cutover Peatland." *Hydrological Processes* 22:1776–87.
- Campbell, Deborah A., Charles Andrew Cole, and Robert P. Brooks. 2002. "A Comparison of Created and Natural Wetlands in Pennsylvania, USA." *Wetlands Ecology and Management* 10:41–49.
- Chambers, Lisa G. et al. 2014. "Biogeochemical Effects of Simulated Sea Level Rise on Carbon Loss in an Everglades Mangrove Peat Soil." *Hydrobiologia* 726:195–211.
- Chapman, Lauren J., Colin A. Chapman, and Mark Chandler. 1996. "WETLAND ECOTONES AS REFUGIA FOR ENDANGERED SPECIES." *Biological Conservation* 78:263–70.
- Chimney, Michael J. and Kathleen C. Pietro. 2006. "Decomposition of Macrophyte Litter in a Subtropical Constructed Wetland in South Florida (USA)." *Ecological Engineering* 27:301–21.
- Chmura, Gail L., Shimon C. Anisfeld, Donald R. Cahoon, and James C. Lynch. 2003. "Global Carbon Sequestration in Tidal, Saline Wetland Soils." *Global Biogeochemical Cycles* 17(4):22-1-22–10.
- Costanza, R., R. d'Arge, R. de Groot, S. Farber, M. Grasso, B. Hannon, K. Limburg, S. Naeem, R.V. O'Neil, J. Paruelo, R.G. Raskin, P. Sutton, M. van den Belt (1997). The value of the world's ecosystem services and natural capital. *Nature* 387:253-260.
- Day, Frank P.Jr. 1979. "Litter Accumulation in Four Plant Communities in the Dismal Swamp, Virginia." *The American Midland Naturalist* 102(2):281–89.
- Day, Frank P.Jr. 1982. "Litter Decomposition Rates in the Seasonally Flooded Great Dismal Swamp." *Ecology* 63(3):670–78.
- Day, Frank P.Jr. and J.Patrick Megonigal. 1993. "The Relationship between Variable Hydroperiod, Production Allocation, and Belowground Organic Turnover in Forested Wetlands." *Wetlands* 13(2):115-21.
- DeBusk, Thomas A. and Forrest E. Dierberg. 1984. "Effect of Nitrogen and Fiber Content on the Decomposition of the Waterhyacinth (*Eichhornia Crassipes* [Mart.] Solms)." *Hydrobiologia* 118:199–204.
- Erwin, Kevin L. 2009. "Wetlands and Global Climate Change: The Role of Wetland Restoration in a Changing World." *Wetlands Ecology and Management* 17:71–84.

- Fanin, Nicolas and Isabelle Bertrand. 2016. "Aboveground Litter Quality Is a Better Predictor than Belowground Microbial Communities When Estimating Carbon Mineralization along a Land-Use Gradient." *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 94:48–60.
- Fenner, Nathalie and Chris Freeman. 2011. "Drought-Induced Carbon Loss in Peatlands." *Nature Geoscience* 4:895–900.
- Fournier DA, Skaug HJ, Ancheta J, Ianelli J, Magnusson A, Maunder M, Nielsen A and Sibert J (2012). "AD Model Builder: using automatic differentiation for statistical inference of highly parameterized complex nonlinear models." *_Optim. Methods Softw._*, *27*, pp. 233-249.
- Gallagher, J.L., 1978. Decomposition processes: summary and recommendations. In: Good, R.E., Whigham, D.F., Simpson, R.L. (Eds.), *Freshwater Wetlands—Ecological Processes and Management Potential*. Academic Press, New York, NY, pp. 145–151.
- Gao, Jing, Fengfeng Kang, and Hairong Han. 2016. "Effect of Litter Quality on Leaf-Litter Decomposition in the Context of Home-Field Advantage and Non-Additive Effects in Temperate Forests in China." *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies* 25(5):1911–20.
- Gao, Junqin, Xuwen Zhang, Guangchun Lei, and Guangxing Wang. 2014. "Soil Organic Carbon and Its Fractions in Relation to Degradation and Restoration of Wetlands on the Zoigê Plateau, China." *Wetlands* 34:235–41.
- Gatewood, S. (1995). Disney Banks on Mitigation. *Native Wetlands Journal* 17(6):7-9.
- Godshalk, G.L. and R. G. Wetzel. 1978. Decomposition in the littoral zone of lakes, p. 94–111. In: R. Good, B. Whigham and R. Simpson (eds.). *Freshwater wetlands: ecological processes and management potential*. Academic Press, New York.
- Grant, R. F., A. R. Desai, and B. N. Sulman. 2012. "Modelling Contrasting Responses of Wetland Productivity to Changes in Water Table Depth." *Biogeosciences* 9:4215–31.
- Gunderson LH, Snyder JR (1994) Fire patterns in the southern Everglades. In: Davis SM, Ogden JC (eds) *Everglades: the ecosystem and its restoration*. St. Lucie Press, Delray Beach, pp 291–305
- Hamer, Andrew J., Simon J. Lane, and Michael J. Mahony. 2002. "Management of Freshwater Wetlands for the Endangered Green and Golden Bell Frog (*Litoria Aurea*): Roles of Habitat Determinants and Space." *Biological Conservation* 106:413–24.
- Helton, C. (1996). A report of organic soil depths on The Disney Wilderness Preserve; Volume I: Report, summary tables and graphs. The Nature Conservancy. Kissimmee, Florida.

- Hernandez, Maria E. and William J. Mitsch. 2007. "Denitrification Potential and Organic Matter as Affected by Vegetation Community, Wetland Age, and Plant Introduction in Created Wetlands." *Journal of Environmental Quality* 36:333–42.
- Hu, Ya-Lin, De-Hui Zeng, Xiang-Qing Ma, and Scott X. Chang. 2016. "Root rather than Leaf Litter Input Drives Soil Carbon Sequestration after Afforestation on a Marginal Cropland." *Forest Ecology and Management* 362:38–45.
- Hunt, P. G. et al. 2014. "Denitrification in Soils of Hydrologically Restored Wetlands Relative to Natural and Converted Wetlands in the Mid-Atlantic Coastal Plain of the USA." *Ecological Engineering* 71:438–47.
- Jobbágy E.G. and R.B. Jackson. 2000. "The vertical distribution of soil organic carbon and its relation to climate and vegetation." *Ecological Applications*, 10:423–36
- Janssen, M. A. and K. F. Walker. 1999. "Processing of Riparian and Wetland Plant Litter in the River Murray, South Australia." *Hydrobiologia* 411:53–64.
- Jiao, Shuying, Min Zhang, Yamei Wang, Junqing Liu, and Yiongqiang Li. 2014. "Variation of Soil Nutrients and Particle Size under Different Vegetation Types in the Yellow River Delta." *Acta Ecologica Sinica* 34:148–53.
- Johnston, Carol A., Naomi E. Detenbeck, and Gerald J. Niemi. 1990. "The Cumulative Effect of Wetlands on Stream Water Quality and Quantity. A Landscape Approach." *Biogeochemistry* 10:105–41.
- Kayranli, Birol, Miklas Scholz, Atif Mustafa, and Åsa Hedmark. 2010. "Carbon Storage and Fluxes within Freshwater Wetlands: A Critical Review." *Wetlands* 30:111–24.
- Kimble, J.M., C.W. Rice, D. Reed, S. Mooney, R.F. Follet, and R. Lal, eds. *Soil Carbon Management: Economic, Environmental and Societal Benefits*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC, 2007.
- Kluber, Laurel A. et al. 2014. "Multistate Assessment of Wetland Restoration on CO₂ and N₂O Emissions and Soil Bacterial Communities." *Applied Soil Ecology* 76:87–94.
- Köchy, M., R. Hiederer, and A. Freibauer. 2015. "Global Distribution of Soil Organic Carbon – Part 1: Masses and Frequency Distributions of SOC Stocks for the Tropics, Permafrost Regions, Wetlands, and the World." *Soil* 1:351–65.
- Krishnaraj, S. J., T. G. Baker, P. J. Polglase, L. Volkova, and C. J. Weston. 2016. "Prescribed Fire Increases Pyrogenic Carbon in Litter and Surface Soil in Lowland Eucalyptus Forests of South-Eastern Australia." *Forest Ecology and Management* 366:98–105.

- Lal, Rattan. 2008. "Carbon Sequestration." *Philosophical Transactions of The Royal Society* 363:815–30.
- Lewis, David Bruce, Jewel a. Brown, and Kristine L. Jimenez. 2014. "Effects of Flooding and Warming on Soil Organic Matter Mineralization in *Avicennia Germinans* Mangrove Forests and *Juncus Roemerianus* Salt Marshes." *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 139:11–19.
- Lewis, David Bruce and Sharon J. Feit. 2015. "Connecting Carbon and Nitrogen Storage in Rural Wetland Soil to Groundwater Abstraction for Urban Water Supply." *Global Change Biology* 21:1704–14.
- Marín-Muñiz, José Luis, María E. Hernández, and Patricia Moreno-Casasola. 2014. "Comparing Soil Carbon Sequestration in Coastal Freshwater Wetlands with Various Geomorphic Features and Plant Communities in Veracruz, Mexico." *Plant and Soil* 378:189–203.
- Marshall, Curtis H., Roger A. Pielke, Louis T. Steyaert, and Debra A. Willard. 2004. "The Impact of Anthropogenic Land-Cover Change on the Florida Peninsula Sea Breezes and Warm Season Sensible Weather." *Monthly Weather Review* 132:28–52.
- Mastný, J. et al. 2016. "Soil Organic Matter Quality and Microbial Activities in Spruce Swamp Forests Affected by Drainage and Water Regime Restoration." *Soil Use and Management* 32:200–209.
- McLaughlin, Daniel L. and Matthew J. Cohen. 2013. "Realizing Ecosystem Services: Wetland Hydrologic Function along a Gradient of Ecosystem Condition." *Ecological Applications* 23(7):1619–31.
- Medvedeff, Cassandra A., Kanika S. Inglett, and Patrick W. Inglett. 2015. "Patterns and Controls of Anaerobic Soil Respiration and Methanogenesis Following Extreme Restoration of Calcareous Subtropical Wetlands." *Geoderma* 245–246:74–82.
- Min, Joong Hyuk, Daniel B. Perkins, and James W. Jawitz. 2010. "Wetland-Groundwater Interactions in Subtropical Depressional Wetlands." *Wetlands* 30(5):997–1006.
- Mitra, Sudip, Reiner Wassmann, and Paul L. G. Vlek. 2005. "An Appraisal of Global Wetland Area and Its Organic Carbon Stock." *Current Science* 88(1):25–35.
- Mitsch, William J. and Renee F. Wilson. 1996. "Improving the Success of Wetland Creation and Restoration with Know-How, Time , and Self-Design." *Ecological Applications* 6(1):77–83.
- Mitsch, W.J. and J.G. Gosselink (2007). *Wetlands*. Wiley: Hoboken, NJ.
- Monk, C. D. 1971. Leaf Decomposition and Loss of 45 Ca from Deciduous and Evergreen Tress. *American Midland Naturalist* 86: 379-384.

- Moreno-Mateos, David, Mary E. Power, Francisco A. Comín, and Roxana Yockteng. 2012. "Structural and Functional Loss in Restored Wetland Ecosystems." *PLoS Biology* 10(1):1–8.
- Morris, James T. and Kate Lajtha. 1986. "Decomposition and Nutrient Dynamics of Litter from Four Species of Freshwater Emergent Macrophytes." *Hydrobiologia* 131:215–23.
- Nair, Vimala D., Donald A. Graetz, K.Ramesh Reddy, and Oscar G. Olila. 2001. "SOIL DEVELOPMENT IN PHOSPHATE-MINED CREATED WETLANDS OF FLORIDA, USA." *WETLANDS* 21(2):232–39.
- Nyamadzawo, George, Menas Wuta, Justice Nyamangara, and Philip Nyamugafata. 2015. "Soil Organic Carbon and Nitrogen Stocks along a Seasonal Wetland (Dambo) Transect in Central Zimbabwe." *South African Journal of Plant and Soil* 32(1):17–25.
- Orem, William, Susan Newman, Todd Z. Osborne, and K.Ramesh Reddy. 2014. "Projecting Changes in Everglades Soil Biogeochemistry for Carbon and Other Key Elements, to Possible 2060 Climate and Hydrologic Scenarios." *Environmental Management* 55(4):776–98.
- Peralta, Ariane L., Sarah Ludmer, Jeffrey W. Matthews, and Angela D. Kent. 2014. "Bacterial Community Response to Changes in Soil Redox Potential along a Moisture Gradient in Restored Wetlands." *Ecological Engineering* 73:246–53.
- R Core Team (2016). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.
- Reddy, K. Ramesh, and R.D. DeLaune. *Biogeochemistry of Wetlands: Science and Applications*. Boca Raton: Taylor & Francis, 2008.
- Ross, Christopher Wade, Sabine Grunwald, and David Brenton Myers. 2013. "Spatiotemporal Modeling of Soil Organic Carbon Stocks across a Subtropical Region." *Science of the Total Environment* 461–462:149–57.
- Russell, Kevin R., David C.Jr. Guynn, and Hugh G. Hanlin. 2002. "Importance of Small Isolated Wetlands for Herpetofaunal Diversity in Managed, Young Growth Forests in the Coastal Plain of South Carolina." *Forest Ecology and Management* 163:43–59.
- Sabo, John L. and Candan U. Soykan. 2006. "Riparian Zones Increase Regional Richness by Supporting Different, Not More, Species: Reply." *Ecology* 87(8):2128–31.
- Sahuquillo, María, Maria Rosa Miracle, Sara María Morata, and Eduardo Vicente. 2012. "Nutrient Dynamics in Water and Sediment of Mediterranean Ponds across a Wide Hydroperiod Gradient." *Limnologica* 42:282–90.

- Schlesinger WH (1991) *Biogeochemistry: An Analysis of Global Change*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Semlitsch, Raymond D. and J. Russell Bodie. 1998. "Are Small, Isolated Wetlands Expendable?" *Conservation Biology* 12(5):1129–33.
- Shand, P. et al. 2017. "Impacts of Climate Change, Climate Variability and Management on Soil and Water Quality in Wetlands of South Australia." *Procedia Earth and Planetary Science* 17:456–59.
- Skaug H, Fournier D, Nielsen A, Magnusson A and Bolker B (\$Date: 2013-02-20 16:11:03 - 0500 (Wed, 20 Feb 2013) \$). *_Generalized Linear Mixed Models using AD Model Builder_*. R package version 0.7.5.
- Spieles, Douglas J., Meagan Coneybeer, and Jonathan Horn. 2006. "Community Structure and Quality After 10 Years in Two Central Ohio Mitigation Bank Wetlands." *Environmental Management* 38:837–52.
- Streeter, Matthew T. and Keith E. Schilling. 2017. "Soil Properties in Native, Reconstructed, and Farmed Prairie Potholes: A Chronosequence Study of Restoration Timeframes." *Ecological Restoration* 35(1):6–12.
- Sulman, Benjamin N., Ankur R. Desai, and David J. Mladenoff. 2013. "Modeling Soil and Biomass Carbon Responses to Declining Water Table in a Wetland-Rich Landscape." *Ecosystems* 16(3):491–507.
- Taggart, Matthew J., Joshua L. Heitman, Michael J. Vepraskas, and Michael R. Burchell. 2011. "Surface Shading Effects on Soil C Loss in a Temperate Muck Soil." *Geoderma* 163:238–46.
- Tate, R.L. III (1987). *Soil Organic Matter: Biological and Ecological Effects*. New York: Wiley
- The Nature Conservancy (1994). *First Annual Monitoring Report: The Disney Wilderness Preserve*. The Nature Conservancy, Kissimmee, Florida.
- The Nature Conservancy (1997). *Fourth Annual Monitoring Report: The Disney Wilderness Preserve*. The Nature Conservancy, Kissimmee, Florida.
- The Nature Conservancy (TNC). 1996. *Upland Restoration Plan: Conceptual Plan and Assessment of Pasture Restoration Sites*. Report prepared by the staff of The Nature Conservancy at Disney Wilderness Preserve. 105 p.
- The Nature Conservancy (2011). *Eighteenth Annual Management and Monitoring Report for the Disney Wilderness Preserve*. The Nature Conservancy, Kissimmee, Florida.

- Theriot, Jared M., Jeremy L. Conkle, S.Reza Pezeshki, Ronald D. DeLaune, and John R. White. 2013. "Will Hydrologic Restoration of Mississippi River Riparian Wetlands Improve Their Critical Biogeochemical Functions?" *Ecological Engineering* 60:192–98.
- Tuittila, Eeva-Stiina, Veli-Matti Komulainen, Harri Vasander, and Jukka Laine. 1999. "Restored Cut-Away Peatland as a Sink for Atmospheric CO₂." *Oecologia* 120:563–74.
- Turetsky, Merritt R. 2004. "Decomposition and Organic Matter Quality in Continental Peatlands: The Ghost of Permafrost Past." *Ecosystems* 7(7):740–50.
- United States Congress. Water Resources Development Act of 2000. Title VI - Comprehensive Everglades Restoration. December 2000.
- Vasques, G. M., S. Grunwald, N. B. Comerford, and J. O. Sickman. 2010. "Regional Modelling of Soil Carbon at Multiple Depths within a Subtropical Watershed." *Geoderma* 156:326–36.
- Vincent, Robert E., David M. Burdick, and Michele Dionne. 2013. "Ditching and Ditch-Plugging in New England Salt Marshes: Effects on Hydrology, Elevation, and Soil Characteristics." *Estuaries and Coasts* 36(3):610–25.
- Waddington, J. M. and J. S. Price. 2000. "Effect of Peatland Drainage, Harvesting, and Restoration on Atmospheric Water and Carbon Exchange." *Physical Geography* 21(5):433–51.
- Wade DJ, Ewel JJ, Hofstetter R (1980) Fire in South Florida Ecosystems. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Southeastern Forest Experiment Station. General Technical Report SE-17, Asheville
- Wagner, Friederike et al. 1996. "A Natural Experiment on Plant Acclimation: Lifetime Stomatal Frequency Response of an Individual Tree to Annual Atmospheric CO₂ Increase." *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 93:11705–8.
- Wang, Qibing, Yuncong Li, and Min Zhang. 2015. "Soil Recovery across a Chronosequence of Restored Wetlands in the Florida Everglades." *Scientific Reports* 5:17630.
- Wang, Xianwei et al. 2010. "Effect of Temperature and Moisture on Soil Organic Carbon Mineralization of Predominantly Permafrost Peatland in the Great Hing'an Mountains, Northeastern China." *Journal of Environmental Sciences* 22(7):1057–66.
- Whitney, E., D.B. Means, and A. Rudloe (2004). *Priceless Florida: Natural Ecosystems and Native Species*. Sarasota: Pineapple Press, Inc.

- Xiong, Xiong et al. 2014. "Interaction Effects of Climate and Land Use/land Cover Change on Soil Organic Carbon Sequestration." *Science of the Total Environment* 493:974–82.
- Yao, Qiang and Kam-biu Liu. 2017. "Dynamics of Marsh-Mangrove Ecotone since the Mid-Holocene: A Palynological Study of Mangrove Encroachment and Sea Level Rise in the Shark River Estuary, Florida." *Plos One* 12(3):e0173670.
- Yu, J. et al. 2012. "Soil Organic Carbon Storage Changes in Coastal Wetlands of the Modern Yellow River Delta from 2000 to 2009." *Biogeosciences* 9:2325–31.
- Zedler, Joy B. 2000. "Progress in Wetland Restoration Ecology." *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 15(10):402–7.
- Zedler, Joy B. and John C. Callaway. 1999. "Tracking Wetland Restoration: Do Mitigation Sites Follow Desired Trajectories?" *Restoration Ecology* 7(1):69–73.
- Zedler, Joy B. and Suzanne Kercher. 2005. "WETLAND RESOURCES: Status, Trends, Ecosystem Services, and Restorability." *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 30:39–74.
- Zhang, Zhongsheng, Christopher B. Craft, Zhenshan Xue, Shoungzheng Tong, and Xianguo Lu. 2016. "Regulating Effects of Climate, Net Primary Productivity, and Nitrogen on Carbon Sequestration Rates in Temperate Wetlands, Northeast China." *Ecological Indicators* 70:114–24.
- Zhao, Qingqing, Junhong Bai, Qiongqiong Lu, and Guangliang Zhang. 2017. "Effects of Salinity on Dynamics of Soil Carbon in Degraded Coastal Wetlands: Implications on Wetland Restoration." *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth* 97:12–18.