# Masthead Logo

Environmental Sciences Faculty and Staff Publications

**Environmental Sciences** 

5-2018

# Carbon Sequestration in a Pacific Northwest Eelgrass (Zostera marina) Meadow

Katrina L. Poppe Western Washington University, Katrina.Poppe@wwu.edu

John M. Rybczyk
Western Washington Univ., United States, john.rybczyk@wwu.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://cedar.wwu.edu/esci facpubs

# Recommended Citation

Poppe, Katrina L. and Rybczyk, John M., "Carbon Sequestration in a Pacific Northwest Eelgrass (Zostera marina) Meadow" (2018). *Environmental Sciences Faculty and Staff Publications*. 55. https://cedar.wwu.edu/esci\_facpubs/55

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Environmental Sciences at Western CEDAR. It has been accepted for inclusion in Environmental Sciences Faculty and Staff Publications by an authorized administrator of Western CEDAR. For more information, please contact westerncedar@wwu.edu.

**Katrina L. Poppe**<sup>1</sup>, Huxley College of the Environment, Department of Environmental Sciences, Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington 98225

anc

John M. Rybczyk, Huxley College of the Environment, Department of Environmental Sciences, Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington 98225

# Carbon Sequestration in a Pacific Northwest Eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) Meadow

### Abstract

Coastal wetlands are known to be efficient carbon sinks due to high rates of primary productivity, carbon burial by mineral sediments, and low rates of sediment organic matter decomposition. Of the three coastal wetland types: tidal marshes, tidal forests, and seagrass meadows, carbon burial by seagrasses is relatively under-studied, and reported rates range widely from 45 to 190 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. Additionally, most of these seagrass rates are biased toward tropical and subtropical species, particularly *Posidonia oceanica*, with few focused on *Zostera marina*, the most widespread species in the northern hemisphere. We measured sediment organic content, carbon content, and long-term accretion rates to estimate organic carbon stocks and sequestration rates for a *Z. marina* meadow in Padilla Bay, a National Estuarine Research Reserve in Washington. We found rates of carbon sequestration to be quite low relative to commonly reported values, averaging 9 to 11 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. We attribute this to both low sediment organic content and low rates of accretion. We postulate here that Padilla Bay's low carbon sequestration capacity may be representative of healthy *Z. marina* meadows rather than an anomaly, and that *Z. marina* meadows have an inherently low carbon sequestration capacity because of the species' low tolerance for suspended sediment (which limits light availability) and sediment organic content (which leads to toxic sulfide levels). Further research should focus on measuring carbon sequestration rates from other *Z. marina* meadows, particularly from sites that exhibit, *a priori*, the potential for higher rates of carbon sequestration.

Keywords: blue carbon, seagrass, Zostera marina, carbon sequestration

### Introduction

Coastal wetland ecosystems, including seagrass meadows, salt marshes, and mangrove forests, are known to be efficient and long-term (century-scale) carbon sinks because of their potential for high rates of productivity, low rates of organic matter decomposition in hydric sediments, and carbon burial by mineral sediments (Mcleod et al. 2011). Additionally, coastal waters, high in sulfate compared to freshwater wetlands, inhibit the generation of methane, a potent greenhouse gas (Reddy and DeLaune 2008). The resulting stored sediment carbon, particular to coastal ecosystems, is referred to as "blue carbon" (Nelleman et al. 2009). This carbon sequestration capacity

Of all coastal wetland habitats, carbon sequestration by seagrasses is the least studied or published (Grimsditch et al. 2013). Based on a review of seven available studies summarizing a total of 123 sites, Mcleod et al. (2011) reported carbon accumulation rates in seagrass meadows ranging from 45 to 190 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, with a mean rate of 138 ± 38 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The relatively high variability in seagrass carbon sequestration rates can be attributed to variability among species and habitats (Duarte et al. 2010, Kennedy et al. 2010, Grimsditch et al. 2013, Lavery et al. 2013, Rozaimi et al. 2013), or possibly to the relative

is a newly recognized ecosystem service, giving coastal wetlands the potential to mitigate climate change and allowing them to be entered into the voluntary carbon market (Emmer et al. 2015), once estimates of the actual carbon stocks and sequestration rates are determined.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Author to whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: katrina.poppe@wwu.edu

difficulty in obtaining reliable long-term accretion rates in these environments. In any event, existing reviews of carbon sequestration rates are disproportionately dominated by tropical and subtropical species, particularly Posidonia oceanica, despite Zostera marina being the most widespread seagrass species in the northern hemisphere (Green and Short 2003), including the Pacific Northwest. Posidonia oceanica has an exceptional capacity for carbon storage and sequestration because of its thick, dense mat of roots and rhizomes, not necessarily representative of all seagrass species (Gacia et al. 2002, Mateo et al. 1997, Serrano et al. 2012). The few existing studies of Z. marina carbon sequestration have reported relatively low rates, ranging from 0 to 37 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Greiner et al. 2013, Miyajima et al. 2015, Spooner 2015).

With over 3800 ha of eelgrass (seagrasses in the genus Zostera), Padilla Bay is the largest eelgrass meadow in the greater Puget Sound (Berry et al. 2003) and one of the largest contiguous eelgrass stands along the North American Pacific coast (Bulthuis and Shull 2006) thus indicating a potential for significant blue carbon sequestration. However, to use blue carbon finance mechanisms, eelgrass restoration projects must use published, regionally-specific carbon stock and sequestration rate data, and the Pacific Northwest has a paucity of published eelgrass blue carbon studies available to confirm or disagree with global average values. The objective of this study was to address this data gap by measuring and documenting sediment carbon stocks and sequestration rates from this extensive temperate eelgrass meadow, and comparing those rates to other published rates for Zostera marina.

### Methods

# Study Area

Padilla Bay is a National Estuarine Research Reserve (PBNERR) in Washington State, recognized as an estuary of significant ecological value in the Puget Sound with extensive tidal mudflats and eelgrass meadows (Figure 1). The bay is largely intertidal with a maximum tidal range of 4 m (Bulthuis 1995). Freshwater inputs to Padilla

Bay include several sloughs draining surrounding agricultural lands, and Skagit River discharge from the south via the Swinomish Channel. The contribution from the latter is limited, however, as the predominant currents from the channel flow northwest toward Guemes Channel, generally bypassing Padilla Bay (Bulthuis and Conrad 1995).

Two species of eelgrass (Zostera spp.) occur in Padilla Bay: the native Z. marina and the non-native Z. japonica. Zostera marina covers a much larger area (approximately 3131 ha or 82% of total eelgrass coverage) than Z. japonica (approximately 669 ha or 18% of total coverage) as of 2004 (Bulthuis and Shull 2006). In Padilla Bay, Z. marina occurs in the upper subtidal to lower intertidal zone (approximately -3.0 to +0.3 m mean lower low water height, MLLW), whereas Z. japonica occurs in the mid intertidal zone (approximately +0.3 to +0.8 m MLLW); (Bulthuis 1995, Thom 1990). However, Z. japonica appears to be expanding at both its upper and lower elevation limits in recent years, increasing the area of overlap (Bohlmann et al. 2016).

### Sediment Core Collection

In 2011, PBNERR established permanent eelgrass biomonitoring plots along three 4-km transects in northern Padilla Bay. We collected one sediment core from each of six sites along the northernmost PBNERR transect in December 2013 (Figure 1) from which we measured sediment bulk density, organic content, carbon content, and long-term accretion rates to estimate sediment carbon stocks and accumulation rates. Coring site elevation ranged from +0.49 m to -0.66 m MLLW. Although the meadow overall is dominated by Z. marina, all sites also contained some amount of Z. japonica. PVC corers with an internal diameter of 10.0 cm were driven into the sediment to a depth of at least 30 cm. Sediment cores were frozen, sliced into 2-cm sections, dried for 72 hours to obtain dry bulk density, then ground through a 0.425mm mesh screen. The organic content of each section was determined through loss on ignition by burning ground subsamples at 500 °C for 24 hours and weighing before and after burning (Craft et al. 1991). We evaluated the variation



Figure 1. Location of study sites within Padilla Bay, a National Estuarine Research Reserve in northern Puget Sound, Washington. Bottom inset shows LiDAR imagery with study sites relative to tidal channels.

in organic content across depths with a one-way ANOVA comparing 2-cm depth sections, followed by Tukey HSD *post hoc* pairwise comparisons.

### Carbon Analysis

We directly measured carbon content (% by weight) for a subset of samples (n = 46) using a FlashEA 1112 CN analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). to establish a conversion from organic content to organic carbon content. These samples were first analyzed for total (organic and inorganic) carbon content. Organic matter was then removed by loss on ignition (LOI), and the

remaining inorganic portions of the samples were analyzed again with the CN analyzer for inorganic carbon content. Organic carbon content was calculated by subtraction. The LOI– $C_{\rm org}$  conversion was then applied to all samples to produce the reported organic carbon contents ( $C_{\rm org} = 0.3134*{\rm OM~content} - 0.1149$ ;  $R^2 = 0.97$ , P < 0.001).

# Radioisotope Dating

Long-term sediment accretion rates were determined for each core using the downcore distribution of 210Pb with both the constant initial concentration (CIC) model (Robbins et al. 1978) and the constant rate of supply (CRS) model (Appleby and Oldfield 1978). The CIC model produces a single accretion rate for each core, assuming that <sup>210</sup>Pb activity at the surface is constant over time, and that migration within the soil column is negligible. The CRS model produces a separate accretion rate for each sample from various core depths and assumes a constant rate of supply of <sup>210</sup>Pb to the sediment. Excess <sup>210</sup>Pb activity was determined using a

Canberra Germanium Detector (model GL2820R, Mirion Technologies (Canberra) Inc., Meriden, CT), with gamma emissions at 46 keV and 351 keV recorded by Genie 2000 software (Canberra 2002). Excess (unsupported) <sup>210</sup>Pb was calculated as the difference between total <sup>210</sup>Pb (at 46 keV) and supported <sup>210</sup>Pb (at 351 keV) to distinguish between excess <sup>210</sup>Pb deposited at the sediment surface and supported <sup>210</sup>Pb that has decayed from radium in the sediment. Cores were analyzed in 2-cm sections from the surface to the depth at which the excess <sup>210</sup>Pb concentration declined to zero. A linear regression of the natural log of excess <sup>210</sup>Pb activity versus depth was used to determine the

CIC-based accretion rate, which is equal to  $-\lambda/s$ , where  $\lambda$  is the half-life of  $^{210}$ Pb (22.2 yr $^{-1}$ ) and s is the slope of the regression. The CRS-based accretion rate was calculated using the equation:

$$Q_x = Q_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

Where  $Q_x$  is the inventory of excess  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  below depth x,  $Q_0$  is the total inventory, and t is the age of depth x. After the model was used to solve for the age (t) of each depth, the accretion rate for each depth was then calculated as its depth divided by its age. The range of rates within each core were averaged to produce one accretion rate per core, to compare with the CIC-based rates.

Bioturbation can inflate the apparent accretion rate with the transport of surface sediment downward in the <sup>210</sup>Pb profile. Since the influence of bioturbation cannot necessarily be identified based on the shape of the profile, the only way to assess the relative effect of bioturbation is by analyzing the <sup>210</sup>Pb inventory and flux. We calculated the excess 210Pb inventory for each core to obtain the <sup>210</sup>Pb flux to the sediment, to compare our calculated flux to the expected flux for the region (Nevissi 1985). The inventory calculation included all core sections with positive excess <sup>210</sup>Pb values. An observed flux lower than expected implies that the site sees little to no sediment deposition, and the apparent long-term accretion rate could be attributed to bioturbation instead of sediment deposition. Conversely, an observed flux higher than expected implies that the site is depositional, and the apparent long-term accretion rate is a reflection of both accretion and bioturbation. This comparison can be done with either the <sup>210</sup>Pb inventory or the flux (e.g., Baskaran and Santschi 2002, Bentley and Kahlmeyer 2012, Muhammad et al. 2008), depending on the available reference for the region of interest.

# Carbon Stock and Sequestration Rate Calculations

We calculated carbon stocks by summing the carbon mass across the top 30 cm of the sediment profile, similar to Callaway et al. (2012) and Crooks et al. (2014), using carbon density and sediment volume. The top 30 cm was considered a sufficient depth to capture the decline of sediment carbon

to a stable value and the decline of excess <sup>210</sup>Pb to zero, based on previous studies in Padilla Bay (Kairis 2008, Kuhlmann 2011). Carbon density was based on bulk density and carbon content of each 2-cm core section. We obtained a representative carbon density for each core by averaging carbon density from the surface to the depth at which excess <sup>210</sup>Pb declined to zero, which ranged from 8 to 20 cm. We calculated carbon accumulation rates for each core as the product of carbon density and the long-term accretion rate. The resulting carbon accumulation rates thus represent average rates over the past 100 years. We evaluated the effect of Zostera japonica presence on sediment characteristics using regression analyses on both Z. japonica biomass versus sediment organic content, and Z. japonica biomass versus sediment carbon stock. Since Z. japonica biomass did not explain variability in sediment organic content ( $R^2$ = 0.40, P = 0.18) or carbon stock ( $R^2 = 0.48, P$ = 0.12), all cores were considered representative of an eelgrass meadow dominated by Z. marina.

### Results

Mean organic matter content of each of the six cores ranged from 1.33% to 2.27% by weight, with an overall mean ( $\pm$  SE) of 1.68  $\pm$  0.09% (Table 1). Organic matter content was fairly consistent across the entire sediment profile. Only the top 2 cm was significantly higher than lower core sections (P < 0.05 for Tukey post hoc pairwise comparisons between top 2 cm and all other sections from 4 to 36 cm depth) (Figure 2). Carbon content across all cores ranged from 0.30% to 0.60% with a mean of 0.41  $\pm$  0.03% (Table 1). Carbon stocks in the top 30 cm of sediment cores ranged from 1.18 to 1.90 kg C m<sup>-2</sup>, with a mean of 1.42  $\pm$  0.11 kg C m<sup>-2</sup> (Table 1).

Accretion rates determined with the CIC model ranged from 0.08 to 0.49 cm yr<sup>1</sup>, with a mean of  $0.23 \pm 0.04$  cm yr<sup>1</sup> (Table 2). Rates determined with the CRS model ranged from 0.08 to 0.31 cm yr<sup>1</sup>, with a mean of  $0.19 \pm 0.01$  cm yr<sup>1</sup> (Table 2). The CIC and CRS accretion rates were significantly correlated (r = 0.89, P < 0.01), similar to comparisons by Carey et al. (2017) and Bricker-Urso et al. (1989).

TABLE 1. Sediment characteristics and organic carbon stocks for each core. Sediment characteristics are reported as the average value from the surface to the depth at which excess <sup>210</sup>Pb declined to zero, representing an approximately 100-year timeframe. Means and standard errors are shown for each core, as well as the means and standard errors across cores.

	Elevation	Depth of		Organic	Carbon		Carbon stock in top
	(m above	excess <sup>210</sup> Pb	Bulk density	content	content	Carbon density	30 cm
Site	MLLW)	(cm)	(g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	(% by weight)	(% by weight)	(g C cm <sup>-3</sup> )	(kg C m <sup>-2</sup> )
1	0.49	14	1.35 (0.05)	1.35 (0.09)	0.31 (0.03)	0.0041 (0.0002)	1.24
2	0.30	10	1.18 (0.06)	2.27 (0.29)	0.60 (0.09)	0.0068 (0.0006)	1.90
3	0.09	8	1.17 (0.12)	2.24 (0.45)	0.59 (0.14)	0.0064 (0.0008)	1.59
4	-0.01	10	1.32 (0.05)	1.57 (0.11)	0.38 (0.03)	0.0049 (0.0003)	1.33
5	-0.23	16	1.37 (0.03)	1.33 (0.08)	0.30 (0.03)	0.0041 (0.0002)	1.18
6	-0.67	20	1.49 (0.02)	1.33 (0.06)	0.30 (0.02)	0.0045 (0.0002)	1.30
Mean (SE)			1.31 (0.03)	1.68 (0.09)	0.41 (0.03)	0.0051 (0.0002)	1.42 (0.11)

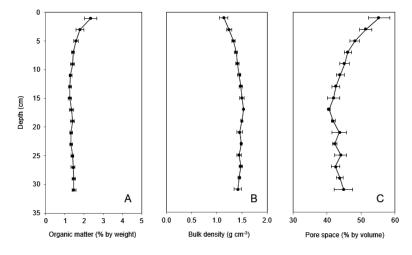


Figure 2. Sediment core profiles of A) organic matter, B) bulk density, and C) pore space. Profiles show the mean (± SE) of each 2-cm core section across six sites from within Padilla Bay's eelgrass meadow.

Carbon accumulation rates calculated with the CIC-based accretion rates ranged from 5.03 to 21.72 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, with a mean rate of  $11.34 \pm 1.74$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). Carbon accumulation rates using the CRS-based accretion rates ranged from 5.40 to 13.82 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, with a mean rate of  $9.14 \pm 0.59$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2).

No obvious mixed layers were observed in the downcore <sup>210</sup>Pb profiles (Figure 3). The <sup>210</sup>Pb flux analysis revealed that all sites had a lower <sup>210</sup>Pb flux to the sediment than expected based on the reference atmospheric flux of 0.44 disintegrations per minute (dpm) cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for the region (Nevissi

1985). This suggests that the sites experience little sediment deposition, and that the reported accretion rates should be considered maximum possible rates and possibly overestimated.

## **Discussion**

### Carbon Stocks

Padilla Bay's sediment carbon stocks of 1.42 kg C m<sup>-2</sup> are low compared to other coastal wetland habitat types such as tidal marshes and mangroves (Fourqurean et al. 2012). For example, a natural (unimpacted) Pacific

Northwest tidal marsh had a reported stock of 7.17 kg C m<sup>-2</sup>, and nearby tidal swamp sites had up to 9.85 kg C m<sup>-2</sup> (Crooks et al. 2014). However, Padilla Bay's eelgrass meadow stocks are similar to stocks reported for most other seagrass sites globally, with the exception of mat-forming species such as *P. oceanica* (Campbell et al. 2015, Fourqurean et al. 2012, Rohr et al. 2016, Schile et al. 2016).

### Carbon Sequestration Rates

Although the carbon sequestration rates measured here are below the range reported by Mcleod et al. (2011) in their review of all seagrass species, they are within the range of values recently reported

TABLE 2. Accretion rates and carbon accumulation rates calculated with both CIC and CRS dating models. Rates were determined for portion of each core with positive excess <sup>210</sup>Pb activity values, representing an approximately 100-year timeframe. Means and standard errors are shown for each core, as well as the means and standard errors across cores.

C:4-	Elevation (m above	Depth of excess <sup>210</sup> Pb	Accretion rate (CIC)	Accretion rate (CRS)	Carbon accumulation rate (CIC)	Carbon accumulation rate (CRS)
Site	MLLW)	(cm)	(cm yr <sup>-1</sup> )	(cm yr <sup>-1</sup> )	(g C m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	(g C m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )
1	0.49	14	0.18 (0.07)	0.16 (0.01)	7.51 (2.82)	6.37 (0.50)
2	0.30	10	0.20 (0.07)	0.15 (0.01)	13.38 (4.70)	10.09 (1.27)
3	0.09	8	0.08 (0.00)	0.08 (0.01)	5.03 (0.72)	5.40 (0.79)
4	-0.01	10	0.24 (0.04)	0.19 (0.05)	11.88 (2.14)	9.39 (2.31)
5	-0.23	16	0.21 (0.15)	0.24 (0.03)	8.52 (6.31)	9.75 (1.53)
6	-0.67	20	0.49 (0.13)	0.31 (0.03)	21.72 (5.86)	13.82 (1.49)
Mean (SE)			0.23 (0.04)	0.19 (0.01)	11.34 (1.74)	9.14 (0.59)

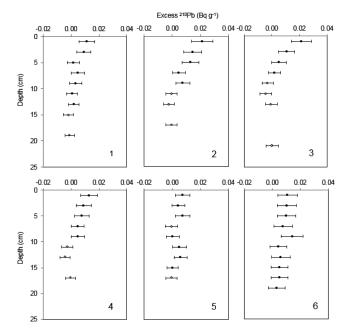


Figure 3. Excess <sup>210</sup>Pb activity versus depth in the sediment column at each site in Padilla Bay. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation. Hollow points represent excess <sup>210</sup>Pb values less than 0 Bg g<sup>-1</sup>, which were not included in the natural log regression used to calculate the accretion rates.

for *Z. marina* specifically (Greiner et al. 2013, Miyajima et al. 2015, Spooner 2015). Spooner (2015) reported carbon accumulation rates from *Z. marina* sites in British Columbia, Canada, ranging from 0 to 13 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. Miyajima et al. (2015) measured carbon accumulation rates of 3.13, 7.10, and 10.14 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> from three *Z. marina* sites near Japan. However, they used radiocarbon dating to obtain sediment accretion

rates, which would result in lower rates than would be expected using the shorter-termed <sup>210</sup>Pb method. Greiner et al. (2013) measured the highest carbon accumulation rate of 36.68 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> from a 10-year restored Z. marina meadow in the coastal bays of Virginia, which is over three times the average we measured in Padilla Bay. Note, however, that this accretion rate reflects only the 10 years following site restoration. It is thus expected that the 10-year accretion rate would be higher than a longer-term (100-year) rate measured by <sup>210</sup>Pb, which incorporates long-term processes of compaction and decomposition (Callaway et al. 1996, Neubauer et al. 2002).

Compared to the range of sequestration rates reported by Mcleod et al. (2011), the carbon sequestration rates we measured in Padilla Bay are low because both long-term accretion

rates and sediment organic content are low. Based on results from this study and similar *Z. marina* studies, we postulate that Padilla Bay's low carbon sequestration capacity may be representative of healthy *Z. marina* meadows rather than an anomaly, and that *Z. marina* meadows have an inherently low carbon sequestration capacity due to multiple species-specific habitat requirements discussed below.

### Sediment Organic Matter Limitation

A system that sequesters carbon must have both carbon in the sediment, and an ongoing accumulation of new material. One possible reason why eelgrass meadows have a limited carbon storage capacity is that Z. marina itself can tolerate relatively little sediment carbon. Multiple studies have pointed to an upper threshold of approximately 5% sediment organic content (% by weight) for submerged aquatic vegetation and Z. marina in particular (Barko and Smart 1983, Batiuk et al. 2000, Kemp et al. 2004, Koch 2001), above which the plants may be unable to defend against toxic sulfide concentrations (Goodman et al. 1995, Koch and Erskine 2001, Mascaro et al. 2009). Although this threshold may vary somewhat depending on other factors such as hydrological conditions (Wicks et al. 2009), sulfides may be one of the more important limiting factors as they can cause decreased growth rates, reduced aboveground biomass, and increased mortality (Burkholder et al. 2007, Pérez et al. 2007, Walser 2014).

The empirical organic content limit of 5% is consistent with the occurrence of Z. marina in Padilla Bay, where surface (top 2 cm) organic content ranges from 1.7% (this study) to 5.0% (Kairis 2008). Kairis (2008) and Kuhlmann (2011) reported similar surface organic content from at least 16 eelgrass sites across Padilla Bay, averaging 2.9% and 2.6%, respectively. The organic content we have observed in Padilla Bay's eelgrass meadow is similar to that seen in other Pacific Northwest eelgrass meadows. Yang et al. (2013) reported a range of 0.6 to 3.2% organic content from 17 Puget Sound eelgrass meadows (with the highest value in Padilla Bay). Thom et al. (2001) reported a range of approximately 0.25 to 2.5% carbon content from 10 eelgrass meadows across the Pacific Northwest, which points to approximately 0.5 to 5% organic content. Ruesink et al. (2010) found that both Z. marina and Z. japonica occupied sediments with 1 to 4% organic content in Willapa Bay. More recently Ruesink et al. (2015) reported Z. marina sediment organic contents ranging from < 1 to 9%, although these were from surface sediment scrapes which are expected to be somewhat higher than subsurface sediments. Data compiled by Fourqurean et al. (2012) from multiple studies worldwide showed an average *Z. marina* sediment organic content of 2.5%, a median of 1.7%, and less than 5% organic content in nearly all *Z. marina* sediment samples, with the exception of one study reporting a sample with 6.98% organic content (Holmer et al. 2006), and another reporting sediment organic contents up to 16.5% (Krause-Jensen et al. 2011). Although there may be instances of *Z. marina* growing in relatively organic-rich sediment, the large majority of *Z. marina* appears to be found in organic-poor sediments.

This low observed sediment organic content may be surprising given high rates of annual net primary productivity (NPP), averaging 351 g C m<sup>-2</sup> in Padilla Bay (Thom 1990). Much of the plant material produced in eelgrass beds is likely decomposed (Kairis and Rybczyk 2010) or exported, although few studies have quantified seagrass export because measurement can be difficult (Mateo et al. 2006). Duarte and Cebrian (1996) reviewed carbon budgets for a variety of coastal habitats and estimated that seagrass ecosystems on average export 24.3% of their total NPP, with 50.3% lost to decomposition, 18.6% to herbivory, and only 15.9% stored in the seagrass bed sediments. Lacking a more regionally-specific estimate of export, it may be reasonable to assume that only a small fraction of the plant material produced in Pacific Northwest eelgrass meadows is buried in situ. A portion of the exported fraction may be sequestered elsewhere, either outside the meadow or in deep sea sediments (Duarte and Krause-Jensen 2017).

### Suspended Sediment Limitation

Another potential reason why *Z. marina* meadows have a limited carbon storage capacity is that *Z. marina* tolerates relatively little suspended sediment. Carbon sequestration requires an accumulation of organic material which is often aided by mineral sediment accretion and subsequent burial, particularly in tidal wetlands (Chmura et al. 2003). *Zostera marina* tolerance for total suspended solids (TSS) is limited by the plant's light requirements. *Zostera marina* requires at least 10–20%

of surface irradiance to survive (Duarte 1991, Short and Burdick 1995), and as much as 50% of surface irradiance to thrive (Ochieng et al. 2010). Incident light is reduced by TSS, phytoplankton, and epiphytes, and these three light-attenuating factors vary from site to site. A few studies have reported the upper TSS tolerance limits for various Z. marina study sites, and although they differ as a result of variation in eelgrass depth and other light-attenuating factors, their limits are all low relative to typical TSS concentrations observed in other coastal wetland types. For example, tidal marshes along the East and Gulf coasts of the USA typically have TSS concentrations ranging from 10 to 100 mg  $L^{-1}$ , and many of these marshes have seen a decline relative to historical concentrations (Weston 2014). In contrast, Z. marina tolerates much lower TSS concentrations. Moore et al. (1996) observed eelgrass loss in Chesapeake Bay when TSS concentrations reached 15-40 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Batiuk et al. (2000) assessed water quality conditions and light requirements at several Chesapeake Bay sites and recommended a TSS target limit of 15 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. A study of several Massachusetts eelgrass sites reported a lower TSS limit of 3 mg L-1 to 6 mg L-1 (Kenworthy et al. 2014). Padilla Bay has a TSS concentration of approximately 4 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, with little seasonal and annual variability (Poppe 2016). This TSS concentration results in minimal long-term accretion rates.

# Interactions Between Limiting Factors

An interaction between sediment organic content and eelgrass light requirements may impose an additional limit on the carbon sequestration capacity of *Z. marina* meadows. A high sediment organic content may actually increase the plant's light requirements because of the need to supply more oxygen to the rhizosphere to oxidize higher levels of sulfides (Armstrong 1978, Kenworthy et al. 2014, Krause-Jensen et al. 2011), if eelgrass is to remain healthy.

## Implications for Blue Carbon Valuation

The list of ecosystem services provided by seagrass meadows is long (Batker et al. 2008, Costanza et al. 2014), and it is tempting to add carbon seques-

tration to the list, especially when this ecosystem service is an emerging tool for conservation and restoration (Crooks et al. 2010). However, the limited number of Z. marina blue carbon studies report carbon sequestration rates (0 to 36.68 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) much lower than the commonly cited rates for seagrasses (45 to 190 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), and results from this study (5.03 to 21.72 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) fall within the range of existing *Z. marina* rates. Existing global estimates of seagrass carbon sequestration rates should thus be used with caution when applied to eelgrass habitats of the Pacific Northwest, since the majority of studies to date have focused on a limited number of seagrass species, and there appears to be a great deal of variation in carbon sequestration rates among species. Applying the global average seagrass rates to eelgrass meadows of the Pacific Northwest risks overestimating their carbon sequestration potential and assigning them too many carbon offset credits for blue carbon projects, inadvertently increasing net carbon emissions to the atmosphere.

Although Z. marina sediment carbon sequestration rates may be minimal, some of the carbon produced within the meadow may be exported and sequestered elsewhere. In addition, Z. marina may still host a notable carbon stock that could potentially be lost as a result of habitat conversion. Habitat conversion in this case would most likely involve conversion to mudflat or open water with a decline in eelgrass health (Orth et al. 2006). With a sediment carbon stock of 1.42  $\pm 0.11 \text{ kg C m}^{-2} (14.2 \pm 1.1 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}) \text{ in the top}$ 30 cm, and a total eelgrass area of approximately 3800 ha, Padilla Bay's eelgrass meadow stores approximately 53 960 tonnes of carbon in the top 30 cm of the sediment. Extrapolating this stock to the 1-m depth recommended by Pendleton et al. (2012) results in approximately 180 000 Mg of carbon that could potentially be lost to the atmosphere, with a cost to the economy of over \$27 million using the "social cost of carbon" of \$41 per Mg CO<sub>2</sub> (Pendleton et al. 2012).

### Literature Cited

- Appleby, P. G., and F. Oldfield. 1978. The calculation of lead-210 dates assuming a constant rate of supply of unsupported <sup>210</sup>Pb to the sediment. CATENA 5:1-8.
- Armstrong, W. 1978. Root aeration in the wetland condition. *In* Hook, D. D., R. M. M. Crawford (editors), Plant Life in Anaerobic Environments. Ann Arbor Science Publishers, Inc., Ann Arbor, MI. Pp. 269-297.
- Barko, J. W., and R. M. Smart. 1983. Effects of organic matter additions to sediment on the growth of aquatic plants. Ecology 71:161-175.
- Baskaran, M., and P. H. Santschi. 2002. Particulate and dissolved <sup>210</sup>Pb activities in the shelf and slope regions of the Gulf of Mexico waters. Continental Shelf Research 22:1493-1510.
- Batiuk, R., P. Bergstrom, M. Kemp, E. Koch, L. Murray, C. Stevenson, R. Bartleson, V. Carter, N. Rybicki, J. Landwehr, C. Gallegos, L. Karrh, M. Naylor, D. Wilcox, K. Moore, S. Ailstock, and M. Teichberg. 2000. Chesapeake Bay submerged aquatic vegetation water quality and habitat-based requirements and restoration targets: a second technical synthesis. US. EPA, Annapolis, MD.
- Batker, D., P. Swedeen, R. Costanza, I. de la Torre, R. M. Boumans, and K. Bagstad. 2008. A new view of the Puget Sound economy: the economic value of nature's services in the Puget Sound Basin. Earth Economics, Tacoma, WA.
- Bentley, S. J., and E. Kahlmeyer. 2012. Patterns and mechanisms of fluvial sediment flux and accumulation in two subarctic fjords: Nachvak and Saglek Fjords, Nunatsiavut, Canada. Canadian Journal of Earth Science 49:1200-1215.
- Berry, H., A. T. Sewell, S. Wyllie-Echeverria, B. Reeves, T. Mumford, J. R. Skalski, R. Zimmerman, and J. Archer. 2003. Puget Sound Submerged Vegetation Monitoring Project: 2000–2002 Monitoring Report. Nearshore Habitat Program, Washington State Department of Natural Resources, Olympia.
- Bohlmann, H., N. Burnett, S. Shull, and J. Apple. 2016. Long term monitoring of eelgrass, water and weather patterns in Padilla Bay, WA. Presentation at the Salish Sea Ecosystem Conference, Vancouver, BC.
- Bricker-Urso, S., S. W. Nixon, J. K. Cochran, D. J. Hirschberg, and C. Hunt. 1989. Accretion rates and sediment accumulation in Rhode Island salt marshes. Estuaries 12:300-317.
- Bulthuis, D. A. 1995. Distribution of seagrasses in a North Puget Sound estuary: Padilla Bay, Washington, USA. Aquatic Botany 50:99-105.
- Bulthuis, D. A., and A. M. Conrad. 1995. Swinomish Channel and Padilla Bay: surface currents during flood tide and water quality. Padilla Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve Technical Report Series No. 14. Washington Department of Ecology, Mount Vernon.

- Bulthuis, D. A., and S. Shull. 2006. Monitoring the distribution of submerged aquatic vegetation in Padilla Bay, NERR-SWMP Biomonitoring Pilot Site, 2004: Final Report. Washington State Department of Ecology, Mount Vernon.
- Burkholder, J. M., D. A. Tomasko, and B. W. Touchette. 2007. Seagrasses and eutrophication. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 350:46-72.
- Callaway, J. C., J. A. Nyman, and R. D. DeLaune. 1996. Sediment accretion in coastal wetlands: a review and a simulation model of processes. Current Topics in Wetland Biogeochemistry 2:2-23.
- Callaway, J. C., E. L. Borgnis, R. E. Turner, and C. S. Milan. 2012. Carbon sequestration and sediment accretion in San Francisco Bay tidal wetlands. Estuaries and Coasts 35:1163-1181.
- Campbell, J. E., E. A. Lacey, R. A. Decker, S. Crooks, and J. W. Fourqurean. 2015. Carbon storage in seagrass beds of Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Estuaries and Coasts 38:242-251.
- Carey, J. C., S. B. Moran, R. P. Kelly, A. S. Kolker, and R. W. Fulweiler. 2017. The declining role of organic matter in New England salt marshes. Estuaries and Coasts 40:626-639.
- Chmura, G. L., S. C. Anisfeld, D. R. Cahoon, and J. C. Lynch. 2003. Global carbon sequestration in tidal, saline wetland soils. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 17:1111.
- Costanza, R., R. de Groot, P. Sutton, S. van der Ploeg, S. J. Anderson, I. Kubiszewski, S. Farber, and R. K. Turner. 2014. Changes in the global value of ecosystem services. Global Environmental Change 26:152-158.
- Craft, C. B., E. D. Seneca, and S. W. Broome. 1991. Loss on ignition and kjeldahl digestion for estimating organic carbon and total nitrogen in estuarine marsh soils: calibration with dry combustion. Estuaries 14:175-179.
- Crooks, S., S. Emmett-Mattox, and J. Findsen. 2010. Findings of the national blue ribbon panel on the development of a greenhouse gas offset protocol for tidal wetlands restoration and management: action plan to guide protocol development. Restore America's Estuaries, Arlington, VT.
- Crooks, S., J. Rybczyk, K. O'Connell, D. L. Devier, K. Poppe, and S. Emmett-Mattox. 2014. Coastal blue carbon opportunity assessment for the Snohomish Estuary: the climate benefits of estuary restoration. Restore America's Estuaries, Arlington, VA.
- Duarte, C. M. 1991. Seagrass depth limits. Aquatic Botany 40:363-377.
- Duarte, C. M., and J. Cebrián. 1996. The fate of marine autotrophic production. Limnology and Oceanography 41:1758-1766.

- Duarte, C. M., and D. Krause-Jensen. 2017. Export from seagrass meadows contributes to marine carbon sequestration. Frontiers in Marine Science 4:13.
- Duarte, C. M., N. Marbà, E. Gacia, J. W. Fourqurean, J. Beggns, C. Barrón, and E. T. Apostolaki. 2010. Seagrass community metabolism: Assessing the carbon sink capacity of seagrass meadows. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 24:GB4032.
- Emmer, I., B. Needelman, S. Emmett-Mattox, S. Crooks, P. Megonigal, D. Myers, M. Oreska, K. McGlathery, and D. Shoch. 2015. VM0033 Methodology for Tidal Wetland and Seagrass Restoration, v1.0. Verified Carbon Standard, Washington, DC.
- Fourqurean, J. W., C. M. Duarte, H. Kennedy, N. Marbà, M. Holmer, M.A. Mateo, E. T. Apostolaki, G. A. Kendrick, D. Krause-Jensen, K. J. McGlathery, and O. Serrano. 2012. Seagrass ecosystems as a globally significant carbon stock. Nature Geoscience 5:505-509.
- Gacia, E., C. M. Duarte, and J. J. Middleburg. 2002. Carbon and nutrient deposition in a Mediterranean seagrass (*Posidonia oceanica*) meadow. Limnology and Oceanography 47:23-32.
- Goodman, J. L., K. A. Moore, and W. C. Dennison. 1995. Photosynthetic responses of eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.) to light and sediment sulfide in a shallow barrier island lagoon. Aquatic Botany 50:37-47.
- Green, E. P., and F. T. Short. 2003. World Atlas of Seagrasses. University of California Press, Berkeley.
- Greiner, J. T., K. J. McGlathery, J. Gunnell, and B. A. McKee. 2013. Seagrass restoration enhances "blue carbon" sequestration in coastal waters. PloS ONE 8:e72469.
- Grimsditch, G., J. Alder, T. Nakamura, R. Kenchington, and J. Tamelander. 2013. The blue carbon special edition: Introduction and overview. Ocean and Coastal Management 83:1-4.
- Holmer, M., C. Carta, and F. Ø. Andersen. 2006. Biogeochemical implications for phosphorus cycling in sandy and muddy rhizosphere sediments of *Zostera* marina meadows (Denmark). Marine Ecology Progress Series 320:141-151.
- Kairis, P. 2008. A spatially explicit relative elevation model for Padilla Bay, Washington. M.S. Thesis, Western Washington University, Bellingham.
- Kairis, P.A., and J.M. Rybczyk. 2010. Sea level rise and eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) production: a spatially explicit relative elevation model for Padilla Bay, WA. Ecological Modelling 221:1005-1016.
- Kemp, W. M., R. Batiuk, R. Bartleson, P. Bergstrom, V. Carter, C. L. Gallegos, W. Hunley, L. Karrh, E. W. Koch, J. M. Landwehr, K. A. Moore, L. Murray, M. Naylor, N. B. Rybicki, J. C. Stevenson, and D. J. Wilcox. 2004. Habitat requirements for submerged aquatic vegetation in Chesapeake Bay: water quality, light regime, and physical-chemical factors. Estuaries 27:363-377.

- Kennedy, H., J. Beggins, C. M. Duarte, J. W. Fourqurean, M. Holmer, N. Marbà, and J. J. Middleburg. 2010. Seagrass sediments as a global carbon sink: Isotopic constraints. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 24:GB4026.
- Kenworthy, W. J., C. L. Gallegos, C. Costello, D. Field, and G. di Carlo. 2014. Dependence of eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) light requirements on sediment organic matter in Massachusetts coastal bays: Implications for remediation and restoration. Marine Pollution Bulletin 83:446-457.
- Koch, E. W. 2001. Beyond light: Physical, geological, and geochemical parameters as possible submersed aquatic vegetation habitat requirements. Estuaries 24:1-17.
- Koch, M. S., and J. M. Erskine. 2001. Sulfide as a phytotoxin to the tropical seagrass *Thalassia testudinum*: interactions with light, salinity, and temperature. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 266:81-95.
- Krause-Jensen, D., J. Carstensen, S. L. Nielsen, T. Dalsgaard, P. B. Christensen, H. Fossing, and M. B. Rasmussen. 2011. Sea bottom characteristics affect depth limits of eelgrass *Zostera marina*. Marine Ecology Progress Series 425:91-102.
- Kuhlmann, K. D. 2011. Sea level rise and sediment elevation dynamics in a hydrologically altered Puget Sound Estuary. M.S. Thesis, Western Washington University, Bellingham.
- Lavery, P. S., M.-Á. Mateo, O. Serrano, and M. Rozaimi. 2013. Variability in the carbon storage of seagrass habitats and its implications for global estimates of blue carbon ecosystem service. PLoS ONE 8:e73748.
- Mascaro, O., T. Valdemarsen, M. Holmer, M. Pérez, and J. Romero. 2009. Experimental manipulation of sediment organic content and water column aeration reduces *Zostera marina* (eelgrass) growth and survival. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 373:26-34.
- Mateo, M. A., J. Romero, M. Pérez, M. M. Littler, and D. S. Littler. 1997. Dynamics of millenary organic deposits resulting from the growth of the Mediterranean seagrass *Posidonia oceanica*. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science 44:103-110.
- Mateo, M. A., J. Cebrian, K. Dunton, and T. Mutchler. 2006. Carbon flux in seagrass ecosystems. *In* A. Larkum, R. Orth, and C. Duarte (editors), Seagrasses: Biology, Ecology, and Conservation, Springer-Verlag, Netherlands. Pp. 159-192.
- Mcleod, E., G. L. Chmura, S. Bouillon, R. Salm, M. Bjork, C. M. Duarte, C. E. Lovelock, W. H. Schlesinger, and B. R. Silliman. 2011. A blueprint for blue carbon: Toward an improved understanding of the role of vegetated coastal habitats in sequestering CO<sub>2</sub>. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 9:552-560.

- Miyajima, T., M. Hori, M. Hamaguchi, H. Shimabukuro, H. Adachi, H. Yamano, and M. Nakaoka. 2015. Geographic variability in organic carbon stock and accumulation rate in sediments of East and Southeast Asian seagrass meadows. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 29:397-415.
- Moore, K. A., H. A. Neckles, and R. J. Orth. 1996. *Zostera marina* (eelgrass) growth and survival along a gradient of nutrients and turbidity in the lower Chesapeake Bay. Marine Ecology Progress Series 142:247-259.
- Muhammad, Z., S. J. Bentley, L. A. Febo, A. W. Droxler, G. R. Dickens, L. C. Peterson, and B. N. Opdyke. 2008. Excess <sup>210</sup>Pb inventories and fluxes along the continental slope and basins of the Gulf of Papua. Journal of Geophysical Research 113:F01S17.
- Nelleman, C., E. Corcoran, C. M. Duarte, L. Valdés, C. DeYoung, L. Fonseca, and G. E. Grimsditch. 2009. Blue Carbon: The Role of Healthy Oceans in Binding Carbon: A Rapid Response Assessment. United Nations Environment Programme, GRID-Arendal, Norway.
- Neubauer, S. C., I. C. Anderson, J. A. Constantine, and S. A. Kuehl. 2002. Sediment deposition and accretion in a mid-Atlantic (USA) tidal freshwater marsh. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science 54:713-727.
- Nevissi, A. E. 1985. Measurement of <sup>210</sup>Pb atmospheric flux in the Pacific Northwest. Health Physics 48:169-174.
- Ochieng, C. A., F. T. Short, and D. I. Walker. 2010. Photosynthetic and morphological responses of eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.) to a gradient of light conditions. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 382:117-124.
- Orth, R. J., T. J. B. Carruthers, W. C. Dennison, C. M. Duarte, J. W. Fourqurean, K. L. Heck Jr., A. R. Hughes, G. A. Kendrick, W. J. Kenworthy, S. Olyarnik, F. T. Short, M. Waycott, and S. L. Williams. 2006. A global crisis for seagrass ecosystems. Bioscience 56:987-996.
- Pendleton, L., D. C. Donato, B. C. Murray, S. Crooks, W. A. Jenkins, S. Sifleet, C. Craft, J. W. Fourqurean, J. B. Kauffman, N. Marbà, P. Megonigal, E. Pidgeon, D. Herr, D. Gordon, and A. Baldera. 2012. Estimating global "blue carbon" emissions from conversion and degradation of vegetated coastal ecosystems. PLoS ONE 7:e43542.
- Pérez, M., O. Invers, J. M. Ruiz, M. S. Frederiksen, and M. Holmer. 2007. Physiological responses of the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica* to elevated organic matter content in sediments: an experimental assessment. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 344:149-160.
- Poppe, K. L. 2016. An ecogeomorphic model to assess the response of Padilla Bay's eelgrass habitat to sea level rise. M.S. Thesis, Western Washington University, Bellingham.

- Reddy, K. R., and R. D. DeLaune. 2008. Biogeochemistry of Wetlands: Science and Applications. CRC Press, Boca Raton. FL.
- Robbins, J. A., D. N. Edgington, and A. L. W. Kemp. 1978. Comparative <sup>210</sup>Pb, <sup>137</sup>Cs and pollen geochronologies of sediments from Lakes Ontario and Erie. Quarternary Research 10:256-278.
- Rohr, M. E., C. Boström, P. Canal-Vergés, and M. Holmer. 2016. Blue carbon stocks in Baltic Sea eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) meadows. Biogeosciences 13:6139-6153.
- Rozaimi, M., O. Serrano, and P. S. Lavery. 2013. Comparison of carbon stores by two morphologically different seagrasses. Journal of the Royal Society of Western Australia 96:81-83.
- Ruesink, J. L., J. S. Hong, L. Wisehart, S. D. Hacker, B. R. Dumbauld, M. Hessing-Lewis, and A. C. Trimble. 2010. Congener comparison of native (*Zostera marina*) and introduced (*Z. japonica*) eelgrass at multiple scales within a Pacific Northwest estuary. Biological Invasions 12:1773-1789.
- Ruesink, J. L., S. Yang, and A. C. Trimble. 2015. Variability in carbon availability and eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) biometrics along an estuarine gradient in Willapa Bay, WA, USA. Estuaries and Coasts 38:1908-1917.
- Schile, L. M., J. B. Kauffman, S. Crooks, J. W. Fourqurean, J. Glavan, and J. P. Megonigal. 2016. Limits of carbon sequestration in arid blue carbon ecosystems. Ecological Applications 27:859-874.
- Serrano, O., M. A. Mateo, P. Renom, and R. Julià. 2012. Characterization of soils beneath a *Posidonia* oceanica meadow. Geoderma 185:26-36.
- Short, F. T., and D. M. Burdick. 1995. Mesocosm experiments quantify the effects of eutrophication on eelgrass, *Zostera marina*. Limnology and Oceanography 40:740-749.
- Spooner, A. M. 2015. Blue carbon sequestration potential in *Zostera marina* eelgrass beds of the K'ómoks Estuary, British Columbia. M.S. Thesis, Royal Roads University, Victoria, BC.
- Thom, R. M. 1990. Spatial and temporal patterns in plant standing stock and primary production in a temperate seagrass system. Botanica Marina 33:497-510.
- Thom, R. M., S. L. Blanton, D. L. Woodruff, G. D. Williams, and A. B. Borde. 2001. Carbon sinks in near-shore marine vegetated ecosystems. Proceedings of the 2001 National Energy Technology Laboratory Conference on Carbon Sequestration, May 14-17, 2001. Washington, DC.
- Walser, A. 2014. A study of pore-water sulfide and eelgrass (*Zostera japonica* and *Zostera marina*) in Padilla Bay, Washington. M.S. Thesis, Western Washington University, Bellingham.
- Weston, N. B. 2014. Declining sediments and rising seas: an unfortunate convergence for tidal wetlands. Estuaries and Coasts 37:1-23.

Wicks, E. C., E. W. Koch, J. M. O'Neil, and K. Elliston. 2009. Effects of sediment organic content and hydrodynamic conditions on the growth and distribution of *Zostera marina*. Marine Ecology Progress Series 378:71-80.

Received 03 October 2017 Accepted 11 December 2017 Yang, S., E. E. Wheat, M. J. Horwith, and J. L. Ruesink. 2013. Relative impacts of natural stressors on life history traits underlying resilience of intertidal eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.). Estuaries and Coasts 36:1006-1013.