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# Forest composition and growth in a freshwater forested wetland community across a salinity gradient in South Carolina, USA

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1 **Forest composition and growth in a freshwater forested wetland community across a**  
2 **salinity gradient in South Carolina, USA**

3

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24 **Abstract:**

25 Tidal freshwater forested wetlands (TFFW) of the southeastern United States are experiencing  
26 increased saltwater intrusion mainly due to sea-level rise. Inter-annual and intra-annual variability  
27 in forest productivity along a salinity gradient was studied on established sites. Aboveground net  
28 primary productivity (ANPP) of trees was monitored from 2013 to 2015 on three sites within a  
29 baldcypress (*Taxodium distichum*) swamp forest ecosystem in Strawberry Swamp on Hobcaw  
30 Barony, Georgetown County, South Carolina. Paired plots (20 × 25-m) were established along a  
31 water salinity gradient (0.8, 2.6, 4.6 PSU). Salinity was continuously monitored, litterfall was  
32 measured monthly, and growth of overstory trees ≥10 cm diameter at breast height (DBH) was  
33 monitored on an annual basis. Annual litterfall and stem wood growth were summed to estimate  
34 ANPP. The DBH of live and dead individuals of understory shrubs were measured to calculate  
35 density, basal area (BA), and important values (IV). Freshwater forest communities clearly  
36 differed in composition, structure, tree size, BA, and productivity across the salinity gradient. The  
37 higher salinity plots had decreased numbers of tree species, density, and BA. Higher salinity  
38 reduced average ANPP. The dominant tree species and their relative densities did not change along  
39 the salinity gradient, but the dominance of the primary tree species differed with increasing  
40 salinity. Baldcypress was the predominant tree species with highest density, DBH, BA, IV, and  
41 contribution to total ANPP on all sites. Mean growth rate of baldcypress trees decreased with  
42 increasing salinity, but exhibited the greatest growth among all tree species. While the overall  
43 number of shrub species decreased with increasing salinity, wax myrtle (*Morella cerifera*) density,  
44 DBH, BA, and IV increased with salinity. With rising sea level and increasing salinity levels, low  
45 regeneration of baldcypress, and the invasion of wax myrtle, typical successional patterns in TFFW  
46 and forest health are likely to change in the future.

47

48 **Keywords:** Tidal freshwater forested wetlands; Basal area; Litterfall; Aboveground net primary  
49 productivity; Overstory and understory composition

50

## 51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 Tidal freshwater forested wetlands (TFFW) ecosystems provide an opportunity for  
54 understanding the unique structuring of freshwater forests along hydroperiod, salinity, and  
55 microtopographical gradients (Williams et al., 1999; Morris, et al., 2002; Craft et al., 2009;  
56 Anderson et al., 2013). TFFW with seasonal hydrology are generally more productive than their  
57 stagnant or drained counterparts (Conner and Day, 1976, 1992). Likewise, rapid hydrological  
58 pulsing of tidal systems can likely be a factor in the relatively high primary productivity found in  
59 TFFW (Ratard, 2004; Duberstein and Kitchens, 2007). This productivity makes them an important  
60 component in global carbon sequestration, thus the importance of understanding processes in these  
61 wetlands. However, tidal fluctuations, local precipitation, and freshwater inputs drive most  
62 variations in salinity and inundation (Ungar, 1991; Sahile et al., 2011). Therefore, TFFW are likely  
63 the most sensitive ecosystems to the very trend that carbon sequestration efforts hope to  
64 ameliorate: global climate change (Doyle et al., 2007). The effects of increased salinity have been  
65 documented in greenhouse gas and streamside forest studies (e.g., DeLaune and Lindau, 1987;  
66 Conner and Brody, 1989; Pezeshki et al., 1990), and include decreased productivity, death of trees,  
67 and transformation to alternate stable states (Pezeshki et al., 1987; Hackney et al., 2007; Krauss et  
68 al., 2009, 2012). Furthermore, both salinity and inundation regimes within tidal wetlands are likely  
69 to be affected by future climate change through increased rates of sea level rise and changes in

70 local precipitation and watershed runoff Hopkinson et al., 2008; Nicholls et al., 2010). Sea level  
71 rise poses potentially greater threats to backswamp areas due to decreased flushing once salt  
72 intrudes.

73 TFFW and other types of coastal swamp forests of the southeastern U.S. are degrading in  
74 many oligohaline (low salinity) locations (Conner et al., 2007). This degradation is related both to  
75 natural climate change factors and anthropogenic influences, with sea level rise and saltwater  
76 intrusion being dominant factors (Williams et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2007). Our working  
77 hypothesis is that ecosystem productivity will vary in predictable ways as salinity levels increase  
78 in TFFW. Our objective in this study was to document inter-annual and intra-annual variability in  
79 forest productivity along a water salinity gradient.

80

## 81 **2. Methods**

82

### 83 *2.1. Study area*

84

85 Strawberry Swamp is a coastal freshwater forested wetland located on Hobcaw Barony, in  
86 Georgetown County, SC (33°19'49"N, 79°14'54"W), that is being subjected to saltwater intrusion  
87 and flooding due to rising sea level which has averaged 3-4 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> since 1920 (Williams et al.,  
88 2012). The swamp is 236 ha in area, dropping 6 m from its catchment ridge to its tidally influenced  
89 outflow into a tidal creek that discharges into the Winyah Bay estuary (Jayakaran et al., 2014).  
90 There is a seasonally intermittent groundwater flow through the swamp. Forests in the swamp  
91 range from very dry upland sites with forests of loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda* L.), scattered sweetgum  
92 (*Liquidambar styraciflua* L.), southern red oak (*Quercus falcata* Michx.), and hickory (*Carya* spp.)

93 to permanently flooded swamp at its lowest reaches containing baldcypress (*Taxodium distichum*  
94 (L.) Rich.) with some water tupelo (*Nyssa aquatica* L.) and swamp blackgum (*Nyssa biflora*  
95 Walt.). Strawberry Swamp and surrounding areas are at least second-growth forests, as evidenced  
96 by numerous decaying stumps. Soils are of the Hobcaw series (fine-loamy, siliceous, thermic,  
97 Typic Umbraquults) (Stuckey, 1982). Surrounding forests contain 80% soil organic matter at 0-1  
98 cm decreasing to 53% at 8-9 cm (Go I and Thomas, 2000). The climate is classified as humid  
99 subtropical climate with hot summers and mild winters. Air and water temperatures drop below  
100 0 °C for only a few days in December and January with the lowest temperature being 2.5 °C.  
101 Average high and low air temperatures are 27.6 °C in July and 8.2 °C in January, respectively.  
102 Average annual rainfall is 1330 mm (mean of 17 cm month<sup>-1</sup>; from National Climate Data Center).  
103 The swamp has experienced considerable die-back of baldcypress trees in the lower reaches during  
104 the past several decades as a result of rising sea level and increased salinity (Williams et al., 2012).

105

## 106 2.2. *Water depth and salinity*

107

108 Water depth, temperature, and conductivity (CTD) sensors (Decagon CTD-10  
109 Conductivity Temperature & Depth Sensor, Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA) were installed at 3  
110 locations along the salinity gradient in Strawberry Swamp. The CTD sensors allowed for the  
111 continuous measurement of temporal variations of water depth and salinity along this salinity  
112 gradient. All data were measured at 15-minute intervals from January 2014 through December  
113 2015. Based on water salinity and water depth, we quantified salinity level of the three study sites  
114 as: low-saline (~0.8 PSU), mid-saline (~2.6 PSU) and high-saline (~4.6 PSU). Microclimatic

115 conditions were also measured using a weather station (Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT) installed  
116 within the watershed.

117

### 118 *2.3. Forest productivity*

119

120 Three study sites were selected in Strawberry Swamp in June 2013. Each site consisted of  
121 paired 20 × 25-m plots (six plots) along the salinity gradient. All trees in each plot were remeasured  
122 for diameter at breast height (DBH) at the end of each growing season (2014-2015) using standard  
123 diameter tapes. Total tree biomass (stem, branch, and bark) for each year were estimated from  
124 DBH using general allometric equations (Clark et al., 1985; Megonigal et al., 1997). While not  
125 specific to the site, these equations have been used by a number of researchers in the southeastern  
126 United States to calculate biomass of trees (e.g., Busbee et al., 2003; Clawson et al., 2001; Cormier  
127 et al., 2013; Megonigal et al., 1997; Schilling and Lockaby, 2006; Shaffer et al., 2009). Shrubs and  
128 sapling DBH (> 1.3 m tall but < 10 cm DBH) were measured with digital electronic calipers in  
129 2015. Basal area (BA), stand density, and species composition for trees and shrubs were assessed  
130 for each plot. Importance values (IV), ranging from 0 to 100, were calculated based on the relative  
131 density and relative dominance of each species in each plot (Kent and Coker, 1992).

132 To assess the effect of water salinity on tree size, trees were separated into four DBH  
133 classes:  $10 \text{ cm} \leq \text{DBH} < 20 \text{ cm}$  (small trees),  $20 \text{ cm} \leq \text{DBH} < 30 \text{ cm}$  (medium trees),  $30 \text{ cm}$   
134  $\leq \text{DBH} < 50 \text{ cm}$  (medium-large trees) and  $> 50 \text{ cm}$  (large trees). The four tree DBH class  
135 categorizations were calculated to identify the change of diameter classes within a species among  
136 salinities.

137

138 *2.4. Litterfall and aboveground net primary production*

139

140 Litterfall was collected monthly from January 2014 to December 2015 in each plot using  
141 five 0.25 m<sup>2</sup> wooden litter boxes with 1 mm mesh fiberglass screen bottoms. The litter traps were  
142 elevated to 1 m above ground to prevent inundation during flooding. Litterfall was oven-dried  
143 immediately upon returning to the laboratory for at least 48 h at 70 °C to a constant weight, then  
144 sorted into two categories: 1) leaf litterfall (including leaves, seeds, and flowers), and 2) non-leaf  
145 litterfall (including twigs, bark, lichens, moss). Sorted litter from each trap was then weighed to  
146 the nearest 0.01 g, and recorded as g m<sup>-2</sup> (Cormier et al., 2013). Mean monthly leaf litterfall dry  
147 weights were summed to estimate annual litterfall at each site and added to stemwood increment  
148 to get aboveground net primary productivity (ANPP) (Catchpole and Wheeler, 1992; Mitsch et al.,  
149 1991).

150 Data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA in SPSS (Version 22.0) with a level of  
151 significance for all tests set at 0.05.

152

153 **3. Results**

154

155 *3.1 Water depth and salinity*

156

157 Water depth and salinity data in Strawberry Swamp show that water depth at all three sites  
158 were dynamic and responsive, driven by precipitation events that caused water depths to spike  
159 after rainfall events (Fig. 1). Water depth variations at the low-saline site and mid-saline site appear  
160 to vary similarly over the period of study. Perennial water depths at these sites were fairly constant



161 between storm events except during the summer time when all three sites exhibit annual low levels  
162 in 2014 and 2015. Water depths at the start of the study period were similar to those measured at  
163 the end of 2015 at these three sites. All three sites showed a spike in water depth associated with  
164 a major storm event between 10/1/15 and 10/5/15 with 936 mm of rainfall measured in the  
165 watershed. Water depth variation at the high-saline site showed more variation compared to the  
166 other two sites with water depths appearing to be influenced by more than just precipitation events.  
167 Over the period of the study, water depths at the high-saline site gradually increased from 200 mm  
168 in January 2014 to about 400 mm in December 2015. There was also a large increase in water  
169 depths in the spring of 2015 that was not apparent at the other two sites including a large spike in  
170 water depth in April 2015.

171 As expected with daily freshwater flow and significant drop of water depth after storm events,  
172 water salinity decreased in all sites during 2014 and 2015, especially after the October storm in  
173 2015 (Fig. 1). Measured salinity at the low-saline site remained around 0.8 PSU throughout the  
174 study. Salinity levels were highest during the high water depth periods of summer 2014 and 2015,  
175 and lowest during the low winter water depths. At the mid-saline site, salinity averaged around 2.6  
176 PSU and appeared to show a weak association with water depths, with lower salinity associated  
177 with low water depths during the summer time and higher salinity corresponding to periods when  
178 water depths were generally high during the spring of 2014 and 2015. The absolute variation of  
179 salinity at the medium site was low, ranging from 1.6 to 3.5 PSU. At the high-saline site, the  
180 average salinity was 4.7 PSU over the period of study and ranged from 3.2 to 6.3 PSU. Similar to  
181 the mid-saline site, there appears to be a weak but positive association with water depth and  
182 salinity, with higher water depths associated with higher salinity.

183

184 3.2. *Tree species composition*

185

186 Six tree species were found at each site, with baldcypress, swamp blackgum, and water  
187 tupelo being dominant, making up 85.0%, 91.9%, and 85.2% growing in the low-saline, mid-saline,  
188 and high-saline site, respectively. Other tree species included ash (*Fraxinus* spp.; 7.5% of total  
189 stems), sweetgum (6.3%), and dahoon holly (*Ilex cassine* L.; 1.3%) at the low-saline site, wax  
190 myrtle (*Morella cerifera* (L.) Small; 4.8%), red maple (*Acer rubrum* L.; 1.6%), and loblolly pine  
191 (*Pinus taeda* L.; 1.6%) at the mid-saline site, and wax myrtle (11.5%), ash (1.6%), and redbay  
192 (*Persea borbonia* (L.) Spreng.; 1.6%) at the high-saline site. With increasing salinity, dahoon holly  
193 and sweetgum disappeared, swamp blackgum decreased significantly in mid-saline and high-  
194 saline sites, and wax myrtle increased in mid-saline and high-saline sites.

195

196 3.3. *Tree density, Basal Area, and Importance Values*

197

198 There were 800, 620, and 600 tree stems ha<sup>-1</sup> in the low-saline, mid-saline, and high-saline  
199 sites, respectively (Table 1). Water tupelo was the largest tree in the low-saline site with an  
200 average DBH of 38.2 cm, while baldcypress was the largest tree in the mid-saline and high-saline  
201 sites, with an average DBH of 45.6 and 47.8 cm, respectively. While water tupelo and swamp  
202 blackgum were common in low-saline and mid-saline sites, they were not found in the high-saline  
203 site. Overall distribution of tree density by size class in the three sites is shown in Fig. 2. Across  
204 the salinity gradient, there were 340, 170, and 250 small tree-sized stems ha<sup>-1</sup> found in the low-  
205 saline, mid-saline, and high-saline sites, respectively. The number of medium trees decreased from  
206 170 to 150 to 90 stems ha<sup>-1</sup> while medium-large trees decreased from 240 to 190 to 170 stems ha<sup>-1</sup>

207 in the low-saline, mid-saline, and high-saline sites, respectively. Large trees increased from 50  
208 stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  in the low-saline site to 110 stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  in the mid-saline site and 100 stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  in the  
209 high-saline site.

210 Tree density (stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) by size class for each species in the three sites is presented in  
211 Table 1. In the low-saline site, 6 species were found in the small tree-size class, but only 2 of those  
212 species (baldcypress and water tupelo) make it to the large tree group. In the mid-saline site, wax  
213 myrtle appears in the small tree-size class; swamp blackgum numbers are greatest in the small and  
214 medium tree classes, but are not found in the larger size classes; baldcypress and water tupelo are  
215 the only species found in the medium-large and large size classes. In the high-saline site, wax  
216 myrtle and swamp blackgum are dominant species in the small tree-size class; water tupelo, swamp  
217 blackgum, and baldcypress are the only species in the medium and medium-large size classes, with  
218 only baldcypress trees found in the largest size class.

219 Basal area was highest at the mid-saline site with  $66.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ , followed by the low-saline  
220 site ( $65.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ) and high-saline site ( $58.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ) (Table 1). Baldcypress represented 80% of  
221 the BA at the high-saline site ( $47.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ) and 65% of the BA at the mid-saline site ( $42.7 \text{ m}^2$   
222  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ), while baldcypress, swamp blackgum, and water tupelo ( $23.3$ ,  $19.7$  and  $16.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ,  
223 respectively) dominated in the mid-saline site. As with BA, the IV of swamp blackgum and water  
224 tupelo decreased as salinity increased, but IV of baldcypress increased with increasing salinity.

225

### 226 *3.4 Stem wood growth*

227

228 Average stem wood growth (SWG) during the study was  $427 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ,  $412 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
229 and  $386 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in low-saline, mid-saline, and high-saline sites, respectively (Fig. 3). Although

230 there seems to be a general decline in average SWG with increasing salinity, the decline was not  
231 significant. There were distinct differences between the two study years. In 2014, the greatest  
232 SWG occurred in the mid-saline site ( $555 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) followed by the low-saline site and the high-  
233 saline site. For 2015, the mid-saline site exhibited the lowest SWG ( $269 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) followed by  
234 the low-saline and high-saline sites at approximately  $400 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  each. The contribution of  
235 baldcypress to total SWG was significantly greater in the mid-saline and high-saline sites both  
236 years. The average contribution of baldcypress to total SWG over the course of the study was 44.3%  
237 in the low-saline site, 66.4% in the mid-saline site and 77.5% in the high-saline site.

238

### 239 *3.5 Leaf litterfall*

240

241 An examination of the monthly dynamics of leaf litterfall shows that there are two peaks  
242 in litterfall each year. Maximum monthly leaf litterfall occurs in the fall and winter (September,  
243 November to December) at all sites with a second smaller peak in the spring (April and early May)  
244 (Fig. 4). The fall peak was higher in the low-saline site than in the mid- and high-saline sites,  
245 probably due to the higher tree density in the low-saline site. However, the spring peak was highest  
246 in the high-saline site. There were no significant differences among salinity and years. On average,  
247 annual leaf litterfall production was  $470 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at the low-saline site. The mid-saline site  
248 produced the smallest amount of annual leaf litterfall ( $396 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), with the high-saline site  
249 being intermediate between the other two sites at  $428 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ .

250

### 251 *3.6 Aboveground net primary productivity*

252

253 Stem wood growth and annual leaf litterfall were summed for each forested wetland to  
254 yield total ANPP during 2014 and 2015 (Table 2). While the mid-saline site had the highest ANPP  
255 among sites in 2014 ( $948 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), it had the lowest ANPP among sites in 2015 ( $669 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ).  
256 There was little difference in ANPP in the low-saline site between 2014 and 2015 (900 and  $894 \text{ g}$   
257  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , respectively), while in the high-saline site ANPP increased from 765 to  $864 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
258 in 2014 and 2015, respectively. Overall, the average ANPP between 2014 and 2015 was highest  
259 in the low-saline site ( $897 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), lowest in the mid-saline site ( $808 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), and  
260 intermediate in the high-saline ( $814 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). There were no significant differences in ANPP  
261 among the three water salinity sites.

262

### 263 3.7 Shrub composition

264

265 Understory species composition changes across the salinity gradient (Table 3). The  
266 number of shrub species ranged from 10 species in the low-saline site to 8 and 9 species in the  
267 mid- and high-saline sites, respectively. In the low-saline site, the main understory species are  
268 wax myrtle, fetterbush (*Lyonia lucida* (Lam.) K. Koch), dahoon holly, redbay, and baldcypress.  
269 American holly (*Ilex opaca* Aiton), sweetgum, water tupelo, and American elm disappeared as  
270 salinity increased, with loblolly pine and Virginia willow (*Itea virginica* L.) appearing in mid-  
271 and high-saline sites. The number of wax myrtle, fetterbush, dahoon holly and redbay significantly  
272 increased with higher salinity levels. Wax myrtle numbers were fairly equal in mid- and high-  
273 saline sites, with fetterbush and redbay numbers being highest in the mid-saline site, and dahoon  
274 holly numbers increasing tenfold in the high-saline site. Numerous baldcypress saplings ( $770$   
275 stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) were found in the low-saline site, but few were found in the mid-saline ( $20$  stems  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ )

276 and high-saline site (10 stems ha<sup>-1</sup>).

277

## 278 **4. Discussion**

279

280 Tidal freshwater forested wetlands of the southeastern United States are experiencing an  
281 increase in salinity intrusions as a result of rising sea level (Craft et al., 2009; Cormier et al., 2013;  
282 Anderson et al., 2013). In this study, low-saline and mid-saline sites had similar water depth, but  
283 the level was significantly lower than in the high-saline site. The water depth gradient influenced  
284 species richness, composition and productivity of tree species similar to that reported by Conner  
285 et al. (2011) from a nearby non-tidal freshwater forested wetland. Our study observed that salinity  
286 in Strawberry Swamp decreased with freshwater flow, and the greatest decreases in salinity  
287 occurring in the high-saline site. This is similar to salinity fluctuations in response to seasonal  
288 variations in freshwater inflow from rivers reported by Stoker (1992).

289

### 290 *4.1 Effect of water salinity on overstory forest community*

291

292 Coastal forests have been changed by increasing water depths, saltwater intrusion, or both  
293 (Anderson and Lockaby, 2011; Brinson et al., 1995; Williams et al., 1999). Tidal swamp forest  
294 vegetation killed by saltwater and chronic salinization, even under low salinity levels, reduces total  
295 ANPP (Pezeshki et al., 1987; Hackney et al., 2007; Krauss et al., 2009, 2012). Forest stands with  
296 higher salinity had lower BA, tree densities, stem wood production, and leaf litter fall (Cormier et  
297 al., 2013). Our study clearly found major changes occurring in forest communities and productivity  
298 along the salinity gradient. Water salinity did not change the dominance of tree species  
299 (baldcypress, swamp blackgum, and water tupelo) occurring in these wetlands, but baldcypress

300 has become the dominant tree species occurring in the high-saline environment. The older and  
301 larger water tupelo and swamp blackgum generally died with increasing salinity, resulting in  
302 decreased BA, DBH, and IV. Wax myrtle seems to adapt to high salinity conditions better than  
303 swamp blackgum, dahoon holly, and sweetgum. Other studies have examined freshwater forested  
304 wetland communities and identified some of the same indicator species observed here. Light et al.  
305 (2002) found that baldcypress, swamp tupelo, and water tupelo were the most dominant canopy  
306 species in forested tidal sections of Suwannee River, FL. Duberstein and Kitchens (2007) and  
307 Pierfelice et al. (2015) examined the influence of tide on edaphic conditions showing it to be an  
308 important factor affecting species composition and productivity.

309         Saltwater intrusion can dramatically affect forest structure through mortality of seedlings,  
310 saplings, and trees (Smith et al., 1997; Conner and Inabinette, 2003). In our study, increasing water  
311 salinity from 0.8 PSU to 4.6 PSU reduced the overstory tree density by 25%. Hackney et al. (2007)  
312 suggested that 2 PSU represents the point where tidal swamps begin converting to oligohaline  
313 marshes. Hackney and Avery (2015) go as far as saying that flooding by >1 PSU for more than  
314 25% of the time is enough to start the conversion process. As trees become stressed and eventually  
315 die, there are more canopy gaps created in the forest. The creation of canopy gaps allows for greater  
316 light penetration (Rheinhardt, 2007) which could benefit understory vegetation growth. The  
317 surviving larger and older trees may escape salt stress by getting fresher water using deeper roots  
318 (William et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2007).

319         In our study, annual leaf litterfall ( $383\text{-}492\text{ g m}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) was lower than the  $464\text{-}850\text{ g m}^{-2}$   
320  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  reported for riverine forested wetlands (Conner and Buford, 1998; Xiong and Nilsson, 1997).  
321 ANPP values for freshwater forested wetlands in the southeastern United States can reach up to  
322  $2000\text{ g m}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$  but more typically are around  $1000\text{ g m}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$  for healthy wetland forests (Conner,

323 1994; Conner and Buford, 1998; Conner and Day, 1976; Conner et al., 2011). The decline in water  
324 tupelo and swamp blackgum stem numbers during the study is one factor leading to reduced ANPP  
325 and may be related to the high water salinity and fluctuating water depth throughout the study.  
326 Previous studies have demonstrated that increased salinity reduced tree growth by 2% per year and  
327 vegetation coverage by 1.87% per year (Bompy et al., 2014, Dutta et al., 2004). Small increases in  
328 salinity (0-2 PSU) have been shown to reduce total biomass of water tupelo (McLeod et al., 1996)  
329 by inducing severe physiological dysfunctions and causing widespread direct and indirect harmful  
330 effects such as limiting vegetative and reproductive growth (Kozlowski, 1997; Shannon and  
331 White, 1994).

332 Baldcypress is the predominant tree species in the overstory layer in Strawberry Swamp, but  
333 small baldcypress trees were only found in the low-saline site. With increased water depths and  
334 the introduction of salinity, baldcypress regeneration will be more difficult and maybe impossible.  
335 Therefore, natural succession may be altered in these coastal freshwater forest wetlands.

336

#### 337 *4.2. Effect of water salinity on understory tree composition*

338

339 Salinity significantly altered the density, DBH, BA, and IV of the understory species found  
340 in this study. Mid-saline and high-saline sites had significantly increased numbers of individuals,  
341 as well as greater DBH, BA, and IV for species like wax myrtle, fetterbush, dahoon holly, and  
342 redbay, but dramatically reduced values for baldcypress. Wax myrtle was the dominant understory  
343 shrub in mid-saline and high-saline sites and is on the way to forming an almost uniform mid-story  
344 canopy layer.

345



346 **5. Conclusions**

347  
348           Baldcypress, swamp blackgum, and water tupelo are dominant tree species in coastal  
349 freshwater forested wetlands. Our study confirms the differing response of coastal freshwater  
350 forest productivity and understory shrubs composition to salinity in oligohaline environments.  
351 Higher salinity reduced the number of tree species and BA, but trees growing in those sites had  
352 significantly greater mean DBH ( $p < 0.05$ ). Species like dahoon holly, sweetgum, red maple,  
353 loblolly pine, and ash are susceptible to salt intrusion. The introduction of salinity greater than 2.6  
354 PSU resulted in the death of swamp tupelo and water tupelo trees in this study. Salinity reduced  
355 average ANPP due to the decline in average stem wood growth and litterfall. Baldcypress was the  
356 predominant canopy species with highest density, DBH, BA, and IV in higher salinity sites. The  
357 contribution of baldcypress to total SWG increased significantly with increasing salinity, although  
358 there was a moderately negative decline in annual BA growth across the salinity gradient. Mean  
359 DBH growth rates of the remaining baldcypress trees were greater than other tree species along  
360 the salinity gradient, but baldcypress growth also decreased with increasing salinity. Salinity  
361 decreased the number of shrub species, but there was a dramatic increase in the density of wax  
362 myrtle. Even low levels of salinity as found in this study affect forest health resulting in a decline  
363 in productivity and regeneration.

364

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374

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514 **Table 1 Canopy tree species composition and character of a South Carolina forested wetland across a water salinity gradient**

Salinity	Canopy Species	Density (Stems ha <sup>-1</sup> )	DBH (cm)	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	IV
Low-Saline (0.8 PSU)	Ash ( <i>Fraxinus</i> spp.)	60	24.6	3.5	7
	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	290	28.5	23.3	37
	Dahoon holly ( <i>Ilex cassine</i> )	10	13.7	0.3	21
	Swamp blackgum ( <i>Nyssa biflora</i> )	250	24.6	19.7	30
	Sweetgum ( <i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i> )	50	14.8	1.9	4
	Water tupelo ( <i>Nyssa aquatica</i> )	140	38.2	16.5	21
	Total	800		65.1	100
Mid-Saline (2.6 PSU)	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	250	45.6	42.7	52
	Loblolly pine ( <i>Pinus taeda</i> )	10	11.2	0.2	1
	Red maple ( <i>Acer rubrum</i> )	10	23.1	0.8	1
	Swamp blackgum ( <i>Nyssa biflora</i> )	170	20.9	4.0	17
	Water tupelo ( <i>Nyssa aquatica</i> )	150	34	18.0	26
	Wax myrtle ( <i>Morella cerifera</i> )	30	12.6	0.4	3
	Total	620		66.1	100
High-Saline (4.6 PSU)	Ash ( <i>Fraxinus</i> spp.)	10	10	0.2	1
	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	250	47.8	47.1	61
	Redbay ( <i>Persea borbonia</i> )	10	10.1	0.2	1
	Swamp blackgum ( <i>Nyssa biflora</i> )	130	17.1	3.5	15
	Water tupelo ( <i>Nyssa aquatica</i> )	140	18.1	7.4	15
	Wax myrtle ( <i>Morella cerifera</i> )	70	11.4	0.5	7
	Total	610		58.7	100

515

516

1 **Table 2 Leaf litterfall and ANPP for 2014-2015 in a South Carolina forested wetland across a water salinity gradient (Mean  $\pm$**   
 2 **1 S.E.)**

Parameters	Year	Low-Saline	Mid-Saline	High-Saline
Stem Wood Growth ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ )	2014	452.5 $\pm$ 28.0	555.5 $\pm$ 164.6	381.5 $\pm$ 97.3
	2015	401.9 $\pm$ 28.7	268.5 $\pm$ 6.7	391.0 $\pm$ 80.0
	Average	427.2 $\pm$ 0.4	412.0 $\pm$ 85.7	386.3 $\pm$ 8.7
Leaf Litterfall ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ )	2014	448.1 $\pm$ 27.6	392.5 $\pm$ 0.5	383.3 $\pm$ 42.5
	2015	491.6 $\pm$ 27.7	400.3 $\pm$ 30.9	473.1 $\pm$ 76.3
	Average	469.8 $\pm$ 27.6	396.4 $\pm$ 15.2	428.2 $\pm$ 59.4
Aboveground Net Primary Productivity ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ )	2014	900.5 $\pm$ 55.5	948.0 $\pm$ 165.1	764.8 $\pm$ 139.8
	2015	893.4 $\pm$ 1.0	668.7 $\pm$ 24.1	863.0 $\pm$ 3.6
	Average	897.0 $\pm$ 27.3	808.3 $\pm$ 70.5	813.9 $\pm$ 68.1

3

4

1 **Table 3 Understory species composition of a South Carolina forested wetland across a water salinity gradient**

Salinity	Understory Species	Density (Stems ha <sup>-1</sup> )	DBH (cm)	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	IV
Low-Saline (0.8 PSU)	American elm ( <i>Ulmus americana</i> )	20	0.1	0.0001	<1
	American holly ( <i>Ilex opaca</i> )	20	1.9	0.0422	1
	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	770	3.9	1.2256	22
	Dahoon holly ( <i>Ilex cassine</i> )	90	1.7	0.0499	1
	Fetterbush ( <i>Lyonia lucida</i> )	900	0.5	0.0326	8
	Redbay ( <i>Persea borbonia</i> )	80	0.8	0.0238	1
	Swamp blackgum ( <i>Nyssa biflora</i> )	20	1.6	0.0627	1
	Sweetgum ( <i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i> )	40	2.7	0.0972	1
	Water tupelo ( <i>Nyssa aquatica</i> )	30	4.9	0.1061	1
	Wax myrtle ( <i>Morella cerifera</i> )	4950	1.9	2.0904	63
Total / Average	6920	2.0	3.7306	100	
Mid-Saline (2.6 PSU)	American holly ( <i>Ilex opaca</i> )	10	0.3	0.0011	<1
	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	20	2.7	0.0558	<1
	Dahoon holly ( <i>Ilex cassine</i> )	430	1.2	0.1321	3
	Fetterbush ( <i>Lyonia lucida</i> )	2010	0.7	0.1011	10
	Loblolly pine ( <i>Pinus taeda</i> )	300	1.7	0.1483	3
	Redbay ( <i>Persea borbonia</i> )	250	2.6	0.2002	3
	Virginia willow ( <i>Itea virginica</i> )	70	0.7	0.0019	<1
	Wax myrtle ( <i>Morella cerifera</i> )	8680	2.2	4.7793	81
Total / Average	11770	1.5	5.4198	100	
High-Saline (4.6 PSU)	Baldcypress ( <i>Taxodium distichum</i> )	10	0.3	0.0009	<1
	Dahoon holly ( <i>Ilex cassine</i> )	1190	1.6	0.3558	8
	Eastern baccharis ( <i>Baccharis halimifolia</i> )	10	0.1	0.0001	<1
	Fetterbush ( <i>Lyonia lucida</i> )	1160	0.6	0.0483	6
	Loblolly pine ( <i>Pinus taeda</i> )	110	2.5	0.1247	1

2

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1 **Figure Legends**

2 **Figure 1** Water depth (blue), water salinity (red), and rainfall (green) across a salinity gradient in  
3 a South Carolina freshwater forested wetland during 2014 and 2015

4 **Figure 2** Tree density by DBH size class:  $10 \text{ cm} \leq \text{DBH} < 20 \text{ cm}$  (small trees),  $20 \text{ cm} \leq \text{DBH} <$   
5  $30 \text{ cm}$  (medium trees),  $30 \text{ cm} \leq \text{DBH} < 50 \text{ cm}$  (medium-large trees) and  $> 50 \text{ cm}$  (large trees)

6 **Figure 3** Stem growth and contribution of baldcypress to total SWG for 2014-2015 across the  
7 salinity gradient (mean  $\pm$  1 SE)

8 **Figure 4** Monthly and cumulative leaf litterfall for 2014-2015 across the salinity gradient (mean  
9  $\pm$  1 SE)

10

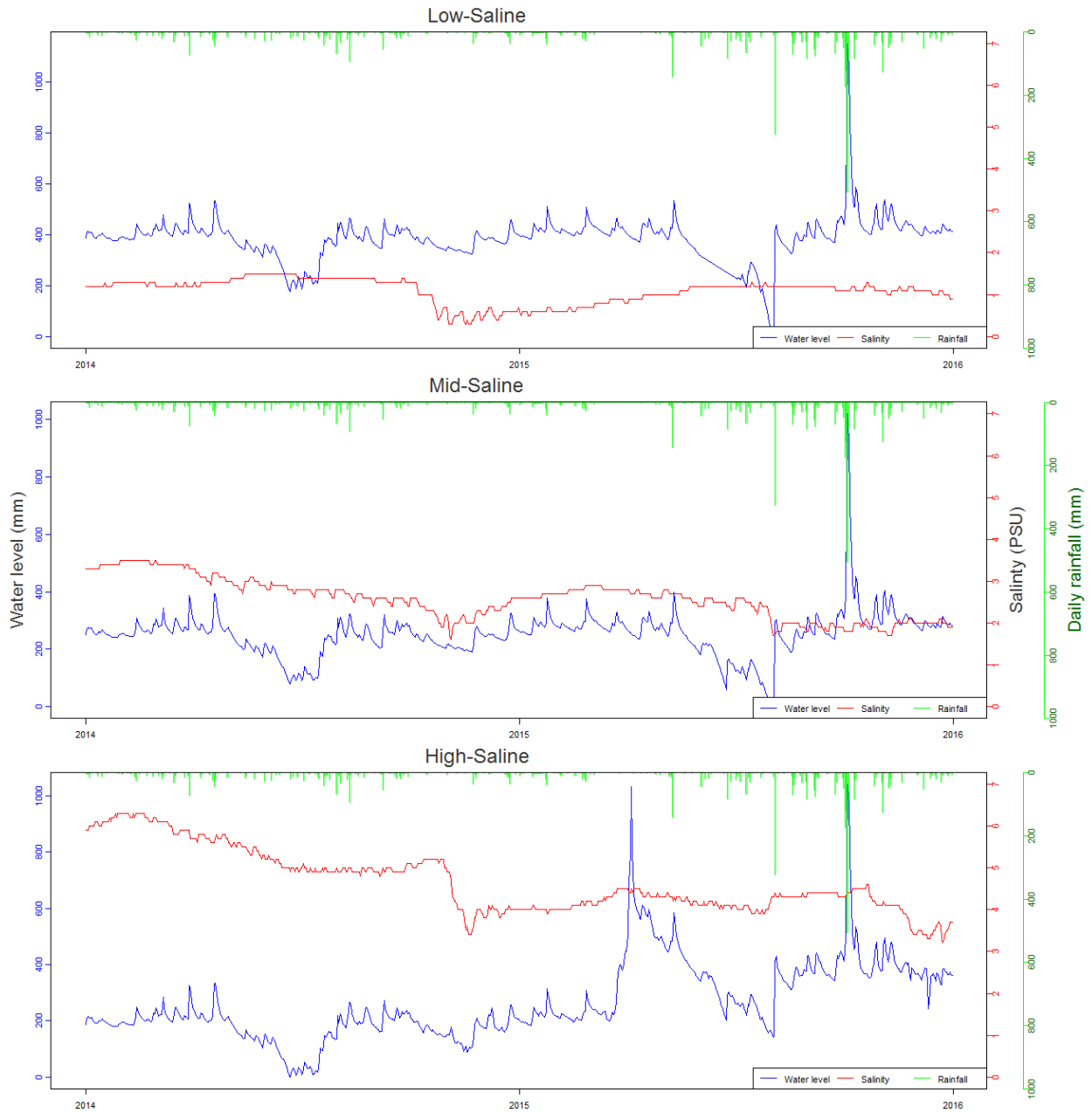
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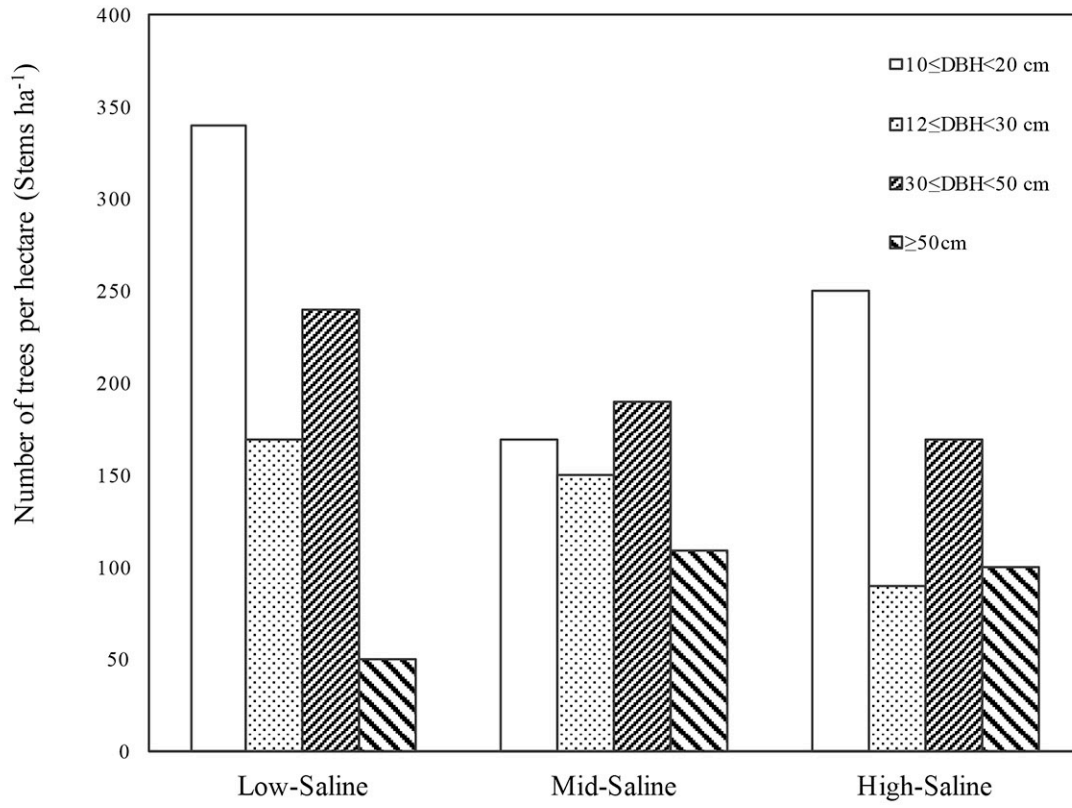
1 Figure 1



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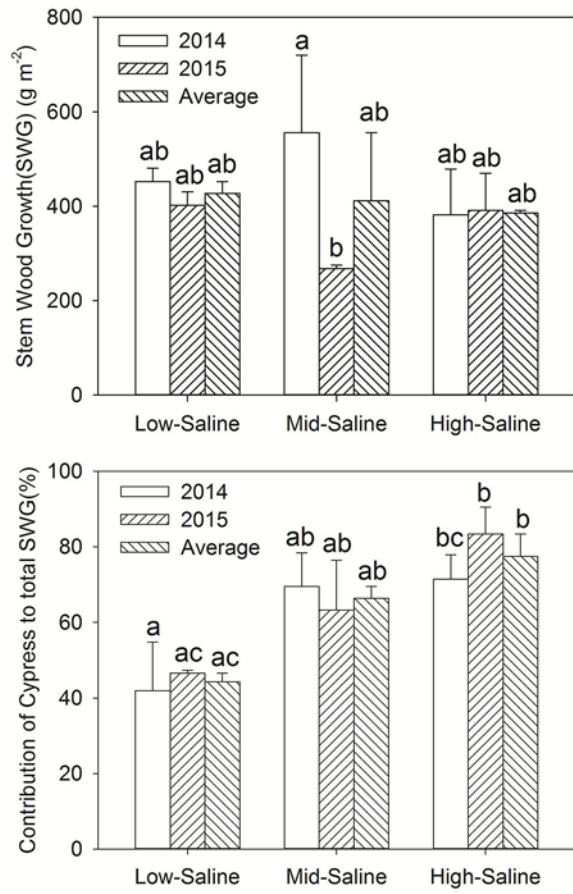
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1 Figure 2



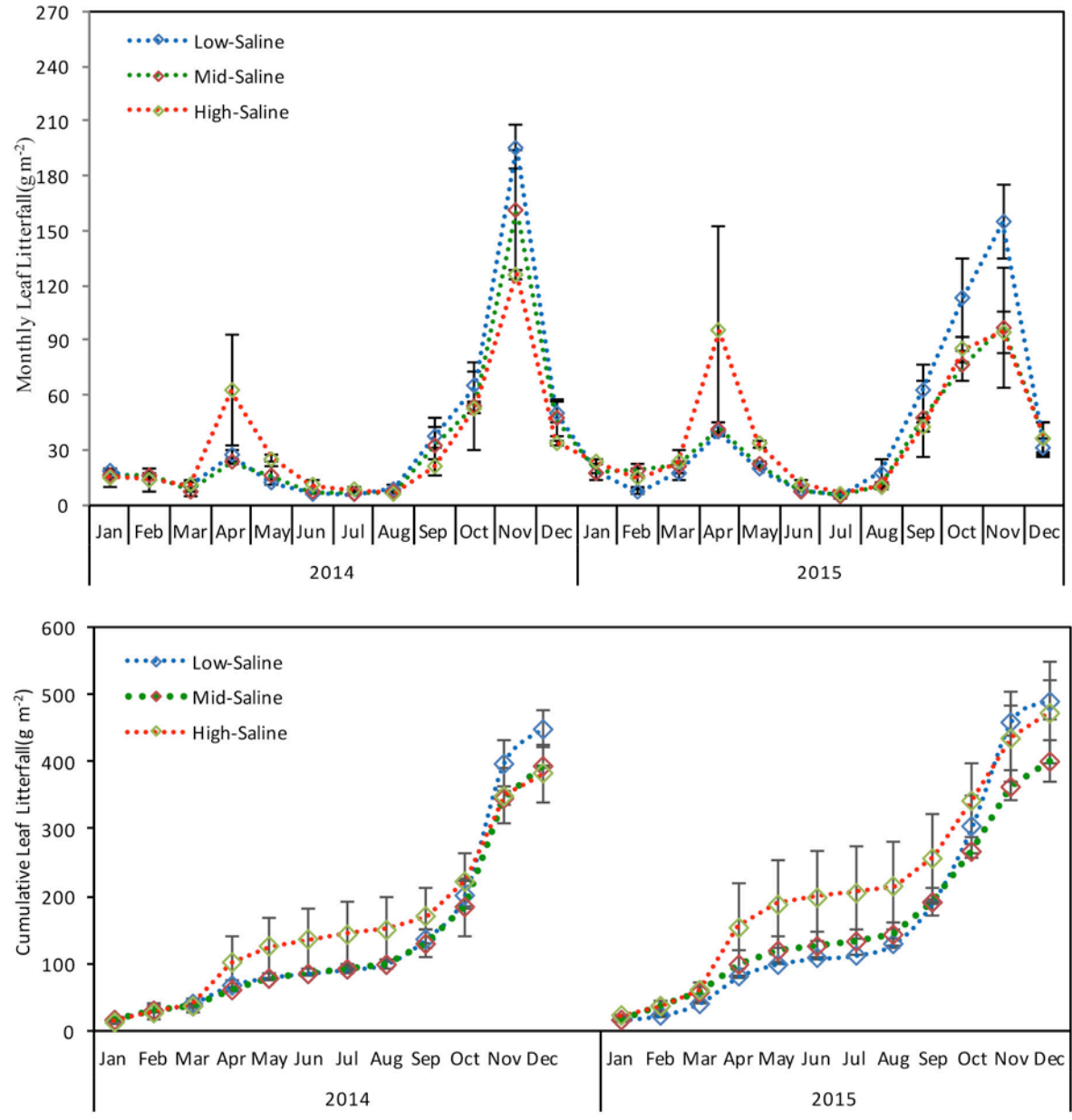
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1 Figure 3



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1 Figure 4



2