

# Trends in Surface Elevation and Accretion in a Retrograding Delta in Coastal Mississippi, USA from 2012 – 2016

Jonathan Pitchford (✉ [jonathan.pitchford@dmr.ms.gov](mailto:jonathan.pitchford@dmr.ms.gov))

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1168-5087>

Kimberly Cressman

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve

Julia A Cherry

University of Alabama

Brook T Russell

Clemson University

Jay McIlwain

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve

Michael J Archer

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve

William V Underwood

Alabama Department of Conservation and Natural Resources

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** salt marsh, surface elevation table, accretion, sea level rise

**Posted Date:** January 12th, 2022

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1247565/v1>

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1 Trends in surface elevation and accretion in a retrograding delta in coastal Mississippi, USA from 2012 – 2016

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3 Jonathan L. Pitchford<sup>1</sup>, Kimberly Cressman<sup>1</sup>, Julia A. Cherry<sup>2</sup>, Brook T. Russell<sup>3</sup>, Jay McIlwain<sup>1</sup>, Michael J.  
4 Archer<sup>1</sup>, and William V. Underwood<sup>4</sup>

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6 <sup>1</sup>Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve, Moss Point, Mississippi, USA

7 <sup>2</sup>University of Alabama, New College, Tuscaloosa, Alabama, USA

8 <sup>3</sup>Clemson University, School of Mathematical and Statistical Sciences, Clemson, South Carolina, USA

9 <sup>4</sup>Alabama Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, State Lands Coastal Section, Spanish Fort, Alabama,  
10 USA

11  
12 Corresponding author email: jonathan.pitchford@dmr.ms.gov

13  
14 *Abstract*

15           The Grand Bay estuary is in the north-central Gulf of Mexico and lacks riverine sediment input for marsh  
16 elevation maintenance. This study quantified trends in surface elevation change and accretion along an elevation  
17 gradient within the estuary. Elevation change rates were compared to short (13.71 mm/yr; 95% CI: -2.38 – 29.81),  
18 medium (6.97 mm/yr; 95% CI: 3.31 – 10.64), and long-range (3.50 mm/yr; 95% CI: 2.88 – 4.11) water level rise  
19 (WLR) rates for the region. Elevation change rates ranged from 0.54 mm/yr (95% CI: -0.63 – 1.72) to 5.45 mm/yr  
20 (95% CI: 4.27 – 6.62) and accretion rates ranged from 0.82 mm/yr (95% CI: -0.16 – 1.80) to 3.89 mm/yr (95% CI:  
21 2.90 – 4.89) among marsh zones. Only the elevation change rate at a *Juncus roemerianus* marsh located high in the  
22 tidal frame was lower than long- ( $P<0.001$ ) and medium-range WLR rates ( $P<0.01$ ). The elevation change rate at a  
23 lower elevation *J. roemerianus* marsh was higher than the long-range WLR rate ( $P<0.05$ ). No marsh zones had  
24 elevation change rates that were significantly different from short-range WLR. These results suggest that *J.*  
25 *roemerianus* marshes higher in the tidal frame with limited sediment delivery are the most vulnerable to increases in  
26 sea level. Lower elevation marshes had higher rates of elevation change driven by sediment accretion and biogenic  
27 inputs. Other local research suggests that shoreline erosion is a threat to marsh persistence but provides elevation  
28 capital to interior marshes. Marsh migration is potential solution for marsh persistence in this relatively undeveloped  
29 area of the Gulf Coast.

30 Key words: salt marsh, surface elevation table, accretion, sea level rise

31  
32 *Acknowledgements*

33 The authors would like to thank Lindsay Spurrier, Cher Griffin, and Daniel Taylor for assistance with data collection  
34 and curation.

35 *Introduction*

36 Coastal marshes are complex ecosystems that provide a wide range of valued ecological functions, but they  
37 are also subjected to a variety of stressors that could impact their persistence in the landscape. Anthropogenic  
38 development is a prominent threat, but sea level rise (SLR) is being increasingly discussed as an additive threat to  
39 marshes that has the potential to affect marsh function (Cahoon et al. 2018; Osland et al. 2017). Development and  
40 SLR have additive impacts on marshes through “coastal squeeze,” where anthropogenic barriers (e.g., roads,  
41 residential development, etc.) limit upslope movement of marshes as sea level rises (Borchert et al. 2018). The most  
42 obvious impact of coastal squeeze in heavily developed areas would be reductions of marsh extent and the  
43 degradation or loss of the ecological functions they provide. In the absence of transgression upslope, marshes must  
44 gain elevation at a rate equal to or greater than relative SLR to maintain their current footprint in the landscape.

45 Marsh elevation maintenance relies on sediment or biogenic accretion through biofeedback mechanisms  
46 often associated with marsh vegetation (e.g., sediment trapping by stems, root production) (Cahoon et al. 2006,  
47 2021). Trends in surface elevation and accretion differ geographically, with the relative importance of physical and  
48 biological contributions to elevation maintenance varying within and among different wetland types. For example,  
49 in Atlantic coast estuaries, marshes have been shown to have high rates of surface accretion suggesting resilience to  
50 increasing sea level, whereas subsurface processes were drivers of elevation maintenance in forested wetlands  
51 (Stagg et al. 2016). In other areas along the Atlantic coast, variation in surface elevation change has been noted  
52 where local variability in elevation change among habitat types within an estuary was higher than seasonal or long-  
53 term variability (Childers et al. 1993). In the Chesapeake Bay, elevation change rates across an elevation gradient  
54 ranged from  $-9.8 \pm 6.9$  mm/yr to  $4.5 \pm 4.3$  mm/yr from high to low marsh habitats, suggesting that marsh loss was  
55 imminent in some areas, but other areas appeared to be stable (Beckett et al. 2016).

56 Elevation change and accretion rates in the Gulf of Mexico are also highly varied, with high rates of marsh  
57 loss reported for some areas. For example, several Louisiana marshes are experiencing decreases in elevation from  
58 subsidence. Byrnes et al. (2019) documented subsidence rates of 2 – 7 mm/yr within the Barataria Basin, while Lane  
59 et al. (2006) measured subsidence rates that ranged from 5.9 – 27.8 mm/yr in estuaries receiving inputs from  
60 freshwater diversions. In St. Joseph Bay, Florida, marsh elevation was decreasing, while in Apalachicola Bay,  
61 Florida marsh elevation was increasing in some areas, decreasing in others, and in some cases no trend was detected  
62 (Program for Local Adaptation to Climate Effects 2021). Elevation change rates differed with wetland type in Ten

63 Thousand Islands, Florida with salt marsh and marsh-mangrove ecotones losing elevation ( $-1.67 \pm 0.39$  mm/yr and -  
64  $6.45$  mm/yr  $\pm 2.10$ , respectively), mangrove-dominated areas gaining elevation ( $4.36$  mm/yr  $\pm 0.31$ ), and brackish  
65 marsh experiencing no change in elevation ( $0.00$  mm/yr  $\pm 0.67$ ) (Howard et al. 2020).

66 The Grand Bay estuary, which contains the Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (GNDNERR)  
67 and Grand Bay National Wildlife Refuge, is a relatively undeveloped coastal wetland complex in the north-central  
68 Gulf of Mexico adjacent to the Mississippi-Alabama border. The GNDNERR was established in 1999 and was later  
69 designated as a marine protected area. The system is unique due to its low level of anthropogenic development and  
70 lack of freshwater inflow. Riverine inputs to the estuary ceased several thousand years ago at which time the system  
71 became a retrograding delta with high erosion rates (Otvos 2007). Shoreline erosion rates for the estuary from 1848  
72 – 2017 ranged from  $0.1$  –  $6.5$  m/yr (Terrano et al. 2019). A long-term monitoring program was established in 2011  
73 to understand changes in elevation, accretion, and marsh vegetation communities as part of the National Estuarine  
74 Research Reserve System Sentinel Site Monitoring Network. Data generated from this program will provide  
75 important information to guide conservation and management activities in a historically understudied geographic  
76 region.

77 The objectives of this study were to quantify trends in surface elevation change and accretion among  
78 different marsh zones spanning a coastal elevation gradient within the Grand Bay estuary. Further, we compared  
79 elevation change rates to short-, medium-, and long-range water level rise (WLR) rates. Accomplishing these  
80 objectives should improve our understanding of elevation trends and the potential impacts of SLR, while also  
81 enhancing our understanding of potential drivers of variability in elevation maintenance within and among wetlands  
82 of the Gulf Coast.

83

#### 84 *Methods*

##### 85 *Study Area*

86 The GNDNERR is in southeastern Mississippi in Jackson County (Fig. 1) with a total area of  
87 approximately 7,400 ha. The Reserve is within the Coastal Streams Basin Watershed and contains a variety of  
88 habitats including, but not limited to, salt marsh, salt pannes, bays, bayous, wet pine flatwoods, coastal bayhead  
89 swamps, freshwater marshes, and maritime forests. Tides are primarily wind-driven with an average tidal range of  
90 approximately 0.6 m (Dillon and Walters 2007) and water depths ranging from  $0.5$  –  $3$  m (Otvos 2007). Water

91 column salinity across the Reserve ranges from 0 – 33.5 psu depending on site and season, with an overall median of  
 92 20 psu from 2004 – 2020 (Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve, unpublished data).

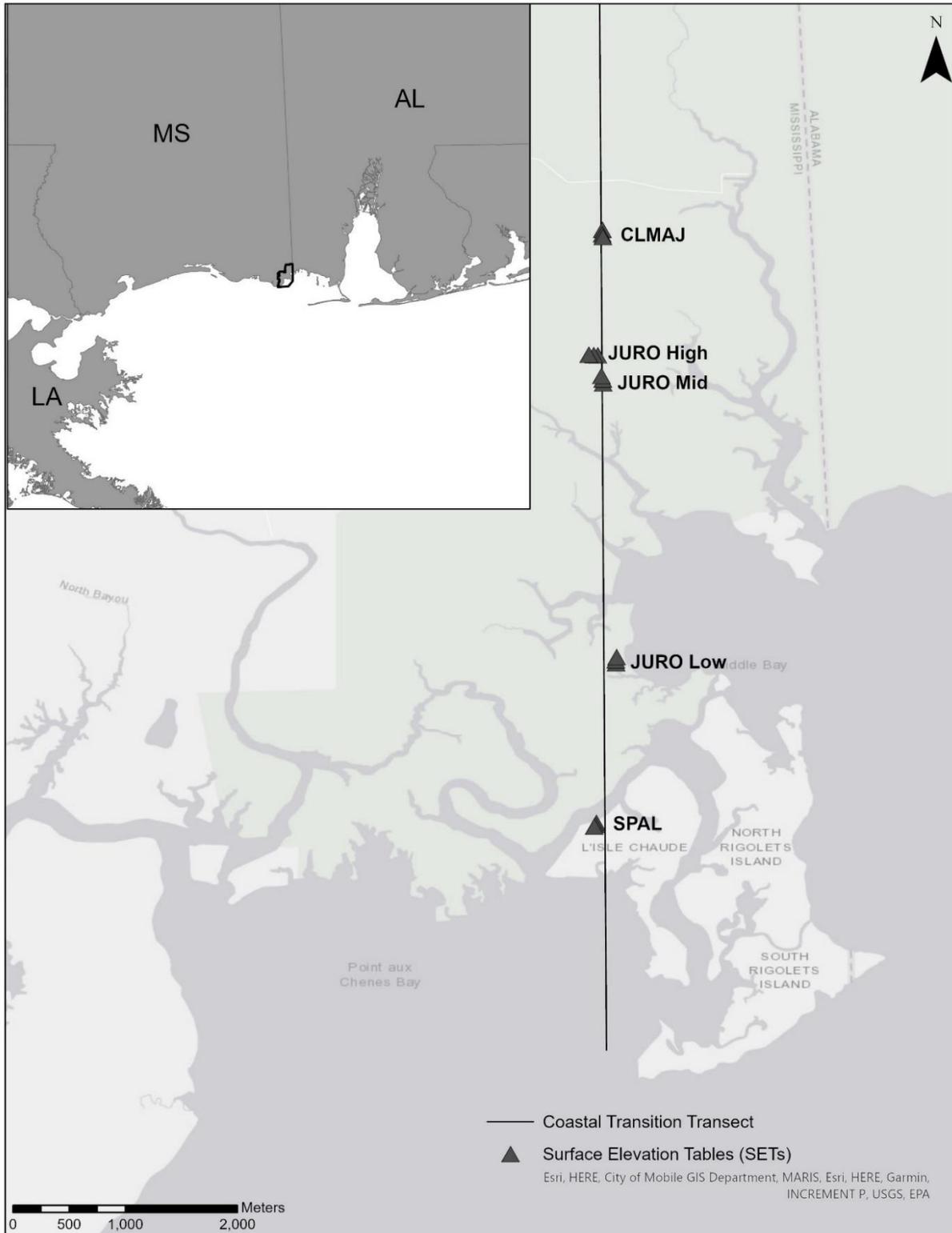
93 While most intertidal marshes at the GNDNERR are dominated by black needlerush (*Juncus roemerianus*),  
 94 several habitat types are represented along the coastal transition from open water to upland habitats. A transect  
 95 spanning the coastal transition was established that extends from open water at its southernmost extent, through low-  
 96 , mid-, and high-elevation brackish marshes, and into a slash pine (*Pinus elliotii*) forest at its northern extent. Along  
 97 the transect, five sites were selected for establishment of Surface Elevation Tables (SETs) and marker horizon (MH)  
 98 plots that cover the full range of wetland types found across the elevation gradient. These sites included a low  
 99 elevation marsh dominated by smooth cordgrass (*Spartina alterniflora*) interspersed with small stands of *J.*  
 100 *roemerianus* (SPAL), two mid-elevation marshes dominated by *J. roemerianus* (JURO Low and JURO Mid), a  
 101 slightly higher elevation *J. roemerianus* marsh along the marsh-upland boundary that contains several salt pannes  
 102 (JURO High), and a relatively diverse site containing a variety of herbaceous and woody species including dense  
 103 stands of sawgrass (*Cladium jamaicense*) surrounded by slash pine (*Pinus elliotii*) (CLMAJ). The CLMAJ site is  
 104 infrequently inundated by tides but represents a potential corridor for marsh migration. All sites are densely  
 105 vegetated with little evidence of marsh die-back, except for the salt pannes at JURO High. Geographic coordinates,  
 106 NAVD88 elevation, and vegetation community information for each site are provided in Table 1.

107  
 108 Table 1. Site characteristics for locations within the Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve chosen for  
 109 placement of Surface Elevation Tables (SETs) and marker horizon (MH) plots monitored from 2012 – 2016.

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation <sup>a</sup>	Dominant vegetation <sup>b</sup>
CLMAJ-1	30.40998	-88.41356	0.599	<b><i>Cladium jamaicense</i></b> , <i>Spartina patens</i> , <i>Dicanthelium</i> spp.
CLMAJ-2	30.40961	-88.41356	0.575	
CLMAJ-3	30.40940	-88.41351	0.607	
JURO High-1	30.39993	-88.41392	0.163	<b><i>Juncus roemerianus</i></b> , <i>Spartina patens</i> , <i>Borrchia frutescens</i>
JURO High-2	30.39995	-88.41425	0.170	
JURO High-3	30.39997	-88.41392	0.111	
JURO Mid-1	30.39767	-88.41349	0.040	<b><i>Juncus roemerianus</i></b> , <i>Fimbristylis</i> spp., <i>Distichilis spicata</i> , <i>Borrchia frutescens</i>
JURO Mid-2	30.39798	-88.41351	0.099	
JURO Mid-3	30.39828	-88.41363	0.143	
JURO Low-1	30.37526	-88.41245	0.058	<b><i>Juncus roemerianus</i></b> , <i>Spartina alterniflora</i>
JURO Low-2	30.37552	-88.41247	0.080	
JURO Low-3	30.37576	-88.41241	0.163	
SPAL-1	30.36248	-88.41403	0.004	<b><i>Spartina alterniflora</i></b> , <i>Juncus roemerianus</i>
SPAL-2	30.36231	-88.41411	0.077	
SPAL-3	30.36219	-88.41421	0.075	

110 <sup>a</sup>Elevation data references the North American Vertical Datum of 1988 (m)

111 <sup>b</sup>The species listed were those most commonly encountered during vegetation surveys conducted from 2014 – 2016,  
 112 with the site dominant indicated in bold



113  
 114 **Fig. 1** Location of Surface Elevation Tables (SETs) and marker horizon (MH) plots monitored from 2012 – 2016 to  
 115 quantify trends in surface elevation and accretion within the Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve. Site  
 116 names are shown adjacent to each site, which contains three replicate SET/MH sampling stations. The inset map  
 117 shows the boundary of the Reserve and its geographic location within the north-central Gulf of Mexico

118 *Marsh elevation monitoring*

119           Following procedures established in Cahoon et al. (2002), Deep rod Surface Elevation Table (SET)  
120 benchmarks were established within each site in 2011 at three locations, 20 – 40 m apart in similar geomorphic  
121 positions (e.g., similar vegetation type, similar elevation, etc.) by driving stainless steel rods to refusal (10 – 30 m).  
122 Affixed to the end of each steel rod was a concrete collar and a receiver for SET attachment. The two-sided SET  
123 arm was rotated to two positions around the receiver (0° & 90°) so that during each sample, a total of 36  
124 measurements of marsh surface elevation were collected. Quarterly (winter (Dec – Feb), spring (Mar – May),  
125 summer (June – Aug), and fall (Sept - Nov)) measurements began in winter 2012 and continued through fall 2016 to  
126 track changes in surface position over time. The same field technician was present to read or observe the reading of  
127 SETs throughout the study period. No effort was made to remove any material on the marsh surface prior to reading  
128 SETs. Each pin was slowly lowered until it rested on the marsh surface to avoid penetrating the soil. A GPS  
129 occupation campaign involving a simultaneous static Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) was conducted in  
130 December 2012 to obtain North American Vertical Datum (NAVD88) elevations for each SET.

131

132 *Accretion monitoring*

133           Three feldspar MH plots (0.5 m × 0.5 m) were established adjacent to each SET to measure accretion of  
134 sediment and organic material. Markers were established by laying feldspar (approximately 2 cm thick) in each  
135 quadrat during summer 2011 (Cahoon and Turner 1989). Accretion above the marker was sampled quarterly during  
136 the study period, typically at the same time SET measurements were made, by collecting soil cores that were  
137 extracted from 2012 – 2014 using a cryogenic soil-coring method (Cahoon et al. 1996). However, this method was  
138 abandoned in 2015 – 2016 for a simpler approach using a large knife to extract cores. In either case, a small core  
139 (approximately 3 × 3 × 5 cm) was extracted from the marsh surface and accretion was measured using Fowler Pro-  
140 Max digital calipers (Newton, Massachusetts) as the minimum distance from the feldspar marker to the top of the  
141 core (i.e., marsh surface) on each of four sides. Accretion was negligible (i.e., zero) if feldspar was visible on the  
142 surface of the core. Feldspar was re-laid periodically if the marker was not visible after repeated samples.

143

144 *Elevation and accretion trends*

145 Similar to Cahoon et al. (2019), elevation and accretion rates were estimated by fitting a linear mixed  
146 model (LMM) with a random intercept using the function ‘lme’ in the ‘nlme’ package (Pinheiro et al. 2019) within  
147 Program R 4.0.2 (R Core Development Team 2020). Background information regarding LMMs and their use is  
148 available in Zuur et al. (2009). Parameter estimation was performed using restricted maximum likelihood (REML)  
149 (Hocking 2003). Elevation change determined from SET pin readings and accretion as determined from marker  
150 horizons were treated as response variables in their respective models, and site, which was analogous to zone within  
151 the marsh (e.g., low marsh, mid marsh, etc.), was treated as a fixed effect. To account for dependence among SET  
152 measurements, random effects for SET, arm within SET, and pin within arm within SET were incorporated into the  
153 LMM. For MH models, random effects were incorporated for SET, plot within SET, and measurement within plot  
154 within SET. Total accretion for a given period was regressed on the number of days since feldspar application (not  
155 on the actual date of feldspar application) to account for the varied timing of feldspar re-application between plots  
156 over the sampling period. To compare mean rates of change for zones, we constructed 95% confidence intervals  
157 using the function ‘glht’ in the R package ‘multcomp’ to adjust p-values and confidence intervals to control the  
158 family-wise error rate (Hothorn et al. 2008; Bretz et al. 2010). *A priori* significance for these tests was set at  $\alpha < 0.05$ .

159 While unadjusted SET and MH measurements were used in statistical models as described above, slight  
160 modifications of the SET and MH data yielded more useful data visualizations. These modifications included using  
161 only the longest time series of MH readings (>1,500 days), which excluded a portion of the data from JURO High,  
162 JURO Mid, and SPAL. Also, SET measurements were adjusted to be cumulative-since-baseline by 1) subtracting  
163 the first reading from all subsequent readings for each individual pin, 2) averaging the differences for the nine pins  
164 within each of the arm positions for each date, and 3) averaging the arm positions, resulting in one series of  
165 cumulative change per SET.

166

### 167 *Comparisons to Water Level Rise*

168 Estimated elevation change rates were compared to estimated WLR rates using data from the National  
169 Water Level Observing Network station at Dauphin Island Sea Lab, Dauphin Island, Alabama. The term “water  
170 level rise” was used because the medium- and short-range rates we used in our comparisons were calculated from  
171 less than 19 years of data (i.e., less than a metonic cycle) and thus are not technically considered sea level rise rates.  
172 WLR rates were estimated using a linear model with errors that follow an autoregressive integrated moving average

173 (ARIMA) model of order 1,0,0 (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration 2009). The ARIMA (1,0,0) is  
174 equivalent to an autoregressive model of order 1, or AR(1) (Brockwell et al. 2016). WLR rates were based on three  
175 different time scenarios: long-range (1966 – 2016), medium-range (1998 – 2016), and short-range (2012 – 2016).  
176 The corresponding rate estimates of WLR were 3.50 mm/yr (95% CI: 2.88 – 4.11), 6.97 mm/yr (95% CI: 3.31 –  
177 10.64), and 13.71 mm/yr (95% CI: -2.38 – 29.81) for long, medium, and short-range rates, respectively. Note that  
178 shorter time series are composed of fewer observations; therefore, the corresponding parameter estimates will have a  
179 higher degree of uncertainty, resulting in wider confidence intervals and less powerful hypothesis tests.

180 The elevation change rate for each site was compared to the WLR estimate from each of the three scenarios  
181 via an asymptotic Z-test, which is a preferred alternative to the common practice of determining significance based  
182 on whether corresponding confidence intervals overlap (Schenker and Gentleman, 2001). Resulting p-values were  
183 adjusted using Holm’s method (Holm 1979). Standard errors for the WLR estimates were obtained from their  
184 respective ARIMA models, while standard errors for the rate of elevation change at each site were obtained from the  
185 LMMs. *A priori* significance for these tests was set at  $\alpha < 0.05$ .

186

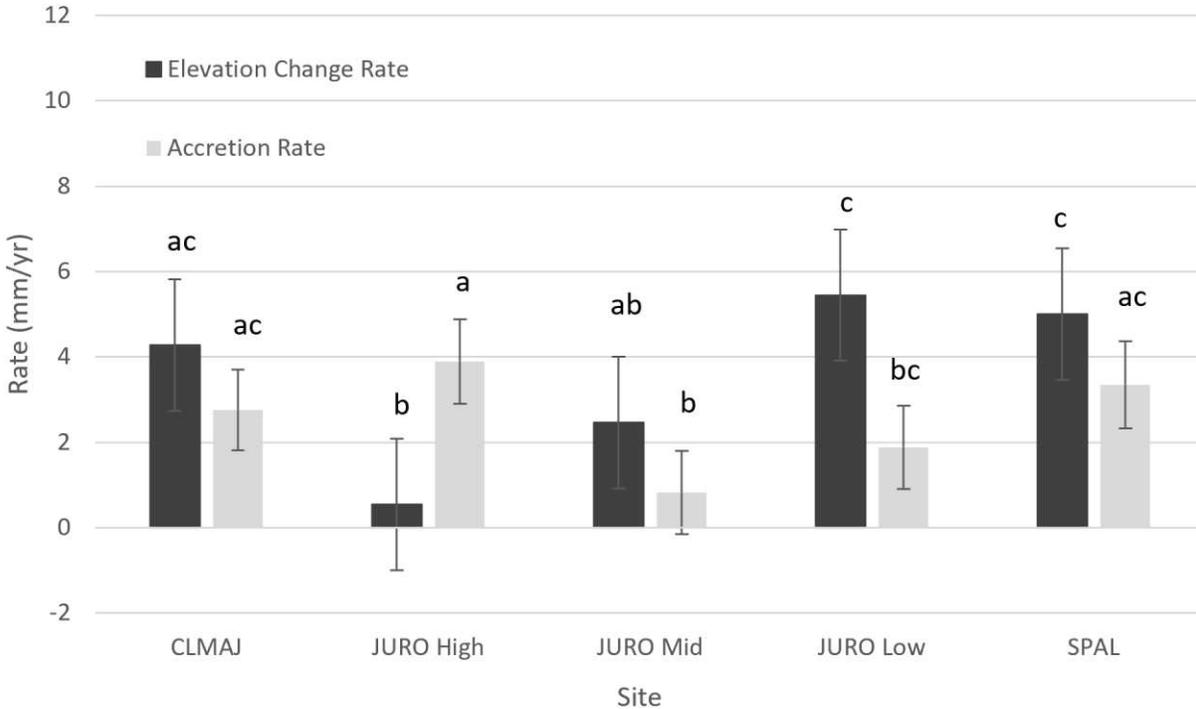
## 187 *Results*

### 188 *Elevation and accretion trends*

189 Elevation change rates ranged from 0.54 mm/yr (95% CI: -0.63 – 1.72) at JURO High to 5.45 mm/yr (95%  
190 CI: 4.27 – 6.62) at JURO Low (Fig. 2). Pairwise comparisons showed a variety of similarities and differences across  
191 sites. Notable findings included a significantly lower elevation change rate at JURO High compared to other sites  
192 except for JURO Mid (2.46 mm/yr; 95% CI: 1.29 – 3.64). Also, elevation change rates at JURO Low, SPAL (5.00  
193 mm/yr; 95% CI: 3.82 – 6.17), and CLMAJ (4.27 mm/yr; 95% CI: 3.10 – 5.45) were not statistically different from  
194 each other.

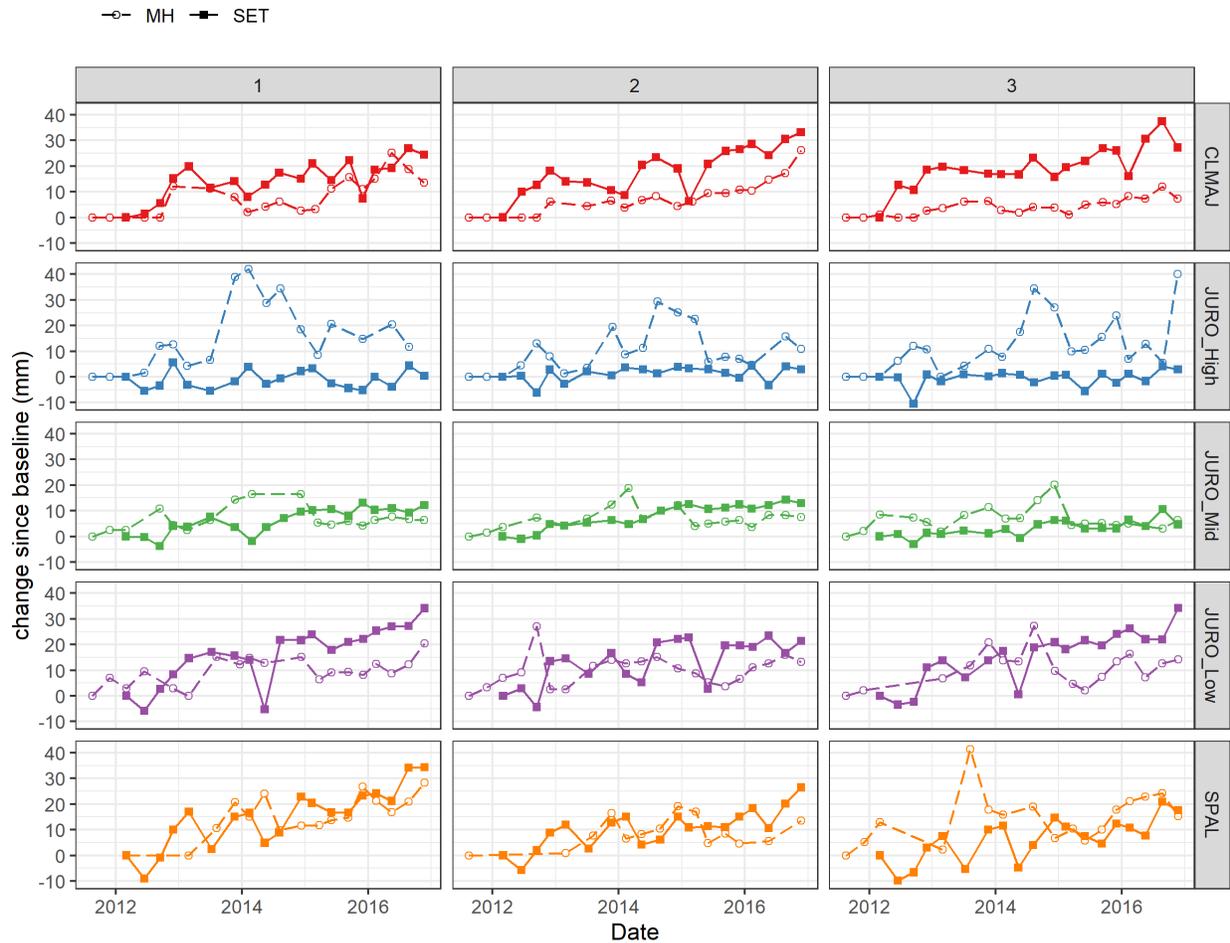
195 Accretion rates ranged from 0.82 mm/yr (95% CI: -0.16 – 1.80) at JURO Mid to 3.89 mm/yr (95% CI: 2.90  
196 – 4.89) at JURO High. Pairwise comparisons showed that JURO High was significantly different from JURO Mid  
197 and JURO Low (1.89 mm/yr; 95% CI: 0.91 – 2.86), but not significantly different from CLMAJ (2.75 mm/yr; 95%  
198 CI: 1.81 – 3.70) or SPAL (3.35 mm/yr; 95% CI: 2.33 – 4.36).

199



200  
 201 **Fig. 2** Elevation change and accretion rates along a coastal elevation gradient from 2012 – 2016 within the Grand  
 202 Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals and letters above each bar  
 203 denote groupings determined by pairwise comparisons for elevation change or accretion rates. *A priori* significance  
 204 for these tests was set at  $\alpha < 0.05$   
 205

206 Elevation and accretion showed similar trajectories across the study period, with some notable exceptions  
 207 (Fig. 3). For example, accretion at JURO High was consistently higher and had greater variation than elevation  
 208 change throughout the study period. Elevation at JURO Low increased consistently from 2012 – 2016, except for a  
 209 prominent drop in 2014 when accretion was higher than elevation change across all three SET plots. Elevation and  
 210 accretion trajectories at the other sites (i.e., CLMAJ, JURO Low, and SPAL) were similar suggesting that accretion  
 211 was a major driver of elevation change across the study period at these sites.



212  
 213 **Fig. 3** Change in marsh elevation and accretion from baseline as determined by Surface Elevation Table (SET) and  
 214 marker horizon (MH) measurements from five sites along an elevation gradient from 2012 – 2016 in the Grand Bay  
 215 National Estuarine Research Reserve. The y-axis shows the change in elevation or accretion from baseline (i.e.,  
 216 zero) when the monitoring program began. The x-axis shows the date measurements were taken. Site names are  
 217 shown on the right side of the figure. The three replicate SET/MH plots at each site are designated by the numbers  
 218 across the top of the figure (i.e., 1, 2, and 3)

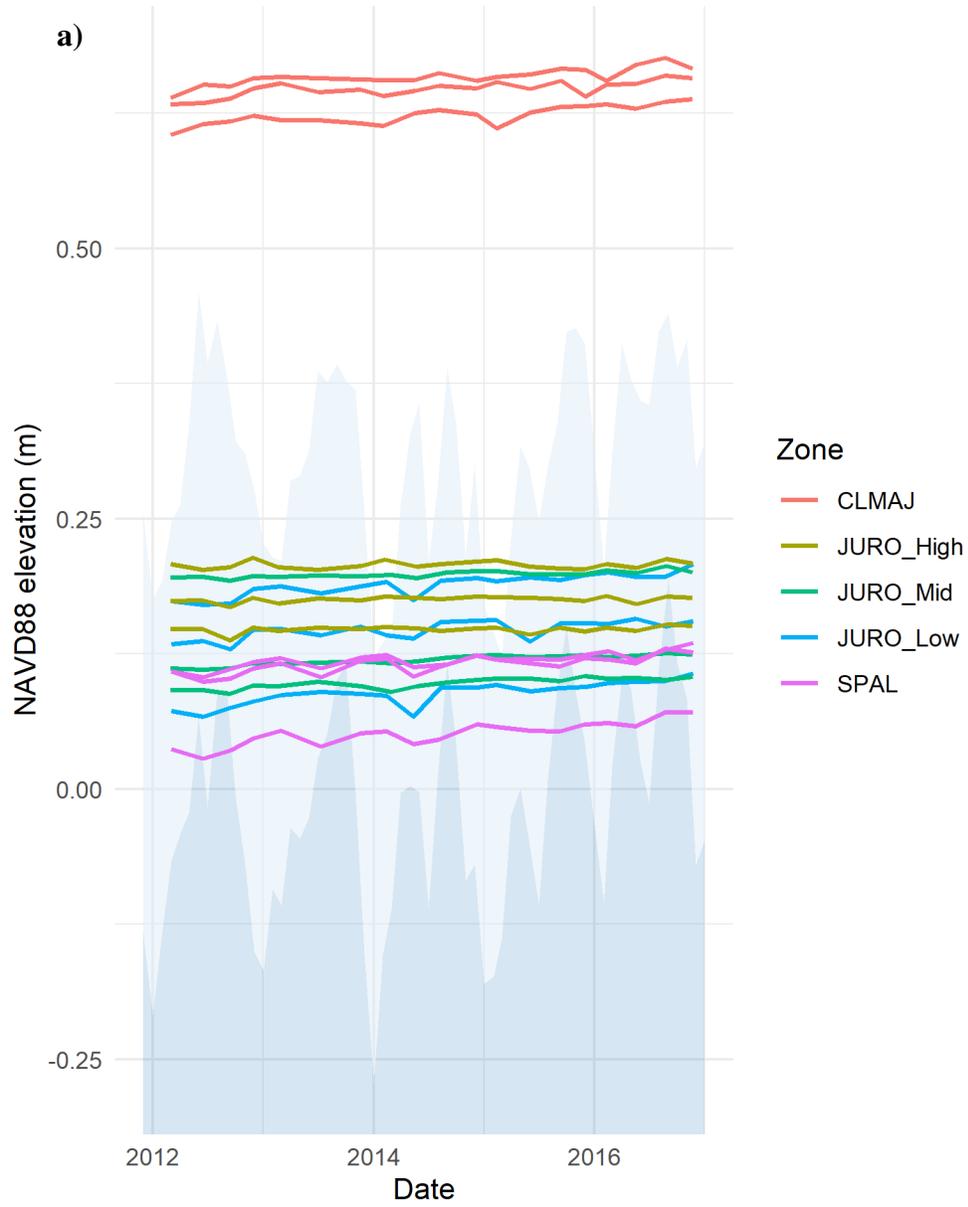
219  
 220  
 221 *Comparisons to Water Level Rise*

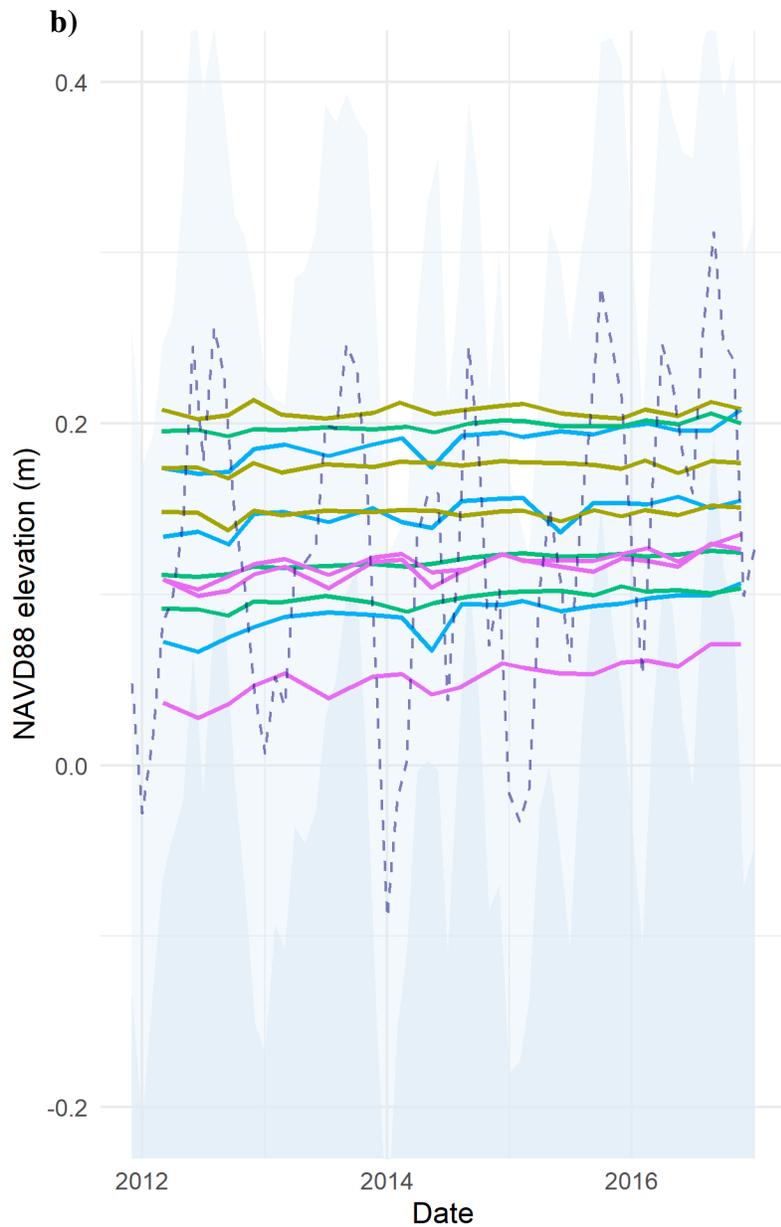
222 The elevation change rate at JURO High was significantly lower ( $P < 0.001$ ) than the long-range WLR rate  
 223 of 3.5 mm/yr ( $P = 0.016$ ; Table 2), while the elevation change rate at JURO Low (5.45 mm/yr; 95% CI: 4.272 –  
 224 6.621) was significantly higher (Fig. 4). No other sites had elevation change rates that were significantly different  
 225 from long-range WLR. JURO High was the only site with a significantly lower elevation change rate compared to  
 226 the medium-range WLR rate (6.97 mm/yr;  $P = 0.005$ ). No sites had elevation change rates that were significantly  
 227 different from short-range WLR.

228 Table 2. Elevation change rates, 95% confidence intervals, and Holm-adjusted P-values (Holm 1979) from Z-tests comparing elevation change rates from five  
 229 sites along an elevation gradient in the Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve to three water level rise (WLR) rate estimates calculated using data from  
 230 a National Water Level Observing Network station at Dauphin Island Sea Lab, Dauphin Island, Alabama. WLR rates were 3.50 mm/yr (1966 – 2016), 6.97  
 231 mm/yr (1998 – 2016), and 13.71 mm/yr (2012 – 2016). Confidence intervals (95% CI) for WLR rates are also provided. Arrows indicate significance ( $\alpha < 0.05$ )  
 232 and the relation of the elevation change to WLR (i.e., ↓ means the rate of elevation change was significantly lower than WLR rate, while ↑ indicates it was higher  
 233 than WLR rate).

Site	SET Elevation Change		Long-range WLR: 3.50 (95% CI: 2.88-4.11)	Medium-range WLR: 6.97 (95% CI: 3.31-10.64)	Short-range WLR: 13.71 (95% CI -2.38-29.81)
	Rate (mm/yr)	CI	p-value	p-value	p-value
CLMAJ	4.272	3.098 – 5.447	0.253	0.508	0.755
JURO High	0.544	-0.630 – 1.718	↓ <0.001	↓ 0.005	0.549
JURO Mid	2.462	1.288 – 3.636	0.249	0.087	0.688
JURO Low	5.447	4.272 – 6.621	↑ 0.016	0.629	0.755
SPAL	4.996	3.821 – 6.170	0.081	0.629	0.755

234





236  
 237 **Fig. 4** Elevation change rates for a) all sites along an elevation gradient and b) the four lowest elevation sites in the  
 238 Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve from 2012 – 2016. Lines represent the mean elevation of each  
 239 surface elevation table (SET) relative to a baseline measurement. Each line is anchored at the SET’s NAVD88  
 240 elevation on the y-axis. The dashed line represents mean sea level, and the darker and lighter blue shading are  
 241 monthly mean low water and high water, respectively. Monthly mean water levels were downloaded from the  
 242 National Water Level Observing Network station at Dauphin Island Sea Lab, Dauphin Island, Alabama

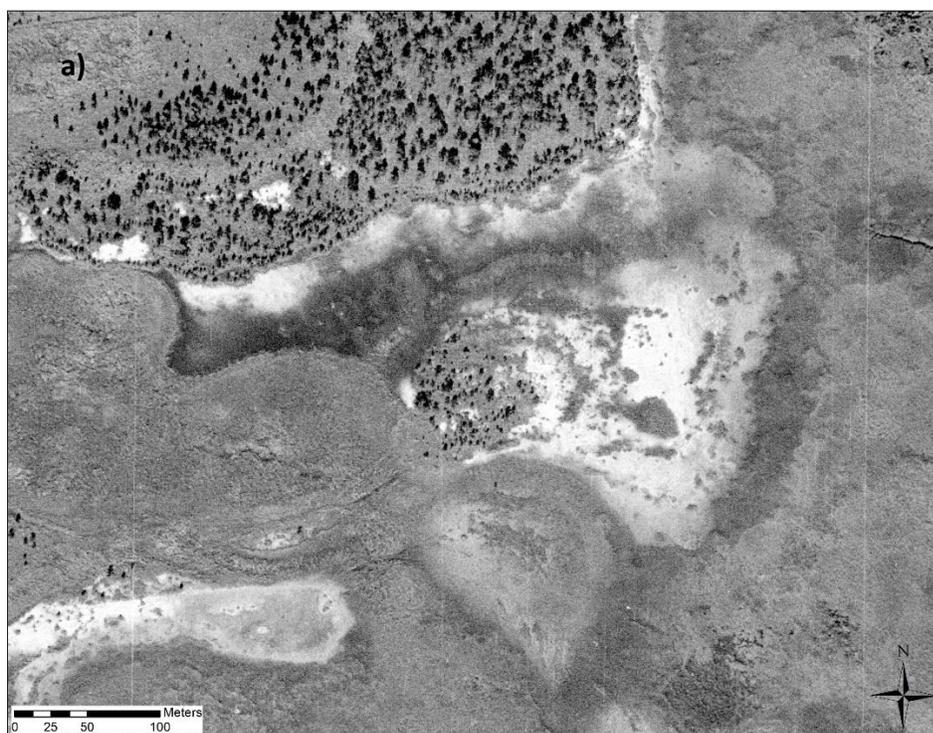
243  
 244  
 245 *Discussion*

246 *Elevation change and accretion rates*

247 Different elevation change rates among sites in this study suggest that position in the tidal frame is related  
 248 to marsh vulnerability to SLR in a retrograding deltaic system. Marshes higher in the tidal frame dominated by *J.*

249 *roemerianus* appear to be the most vulnerable to SLR, as was evident when comparing elevation change at mid and  
250 high marsh with WLR rates. Inundation frequency of mid and high marsh could be increasing because average  
251 monthly mean high water, mean sea level, and mean low water (MLW) impacted these sites more frequently across  
252 the study period (e.g., average monthly MLW exceeded the elevation at JURO High in 2016) (Fig. 4). Aerial  
253 imagery from these areas in 1968 compared to 2016 shows a >40% reduction in the spatial extent of salt pannes  
254 (i.e., roughly 11.7 acres in 1968 compared to 6.8 acres in 2016) (Fig. 5). Relatively low elevation change rates and  
255 shifts in the areal extent of salt pannes could be the result of increased inundation coupled with limited sediment  
256 delivery for elevation maintenance. Sedimentary inputs to the Grand Bay estuary from upland sources occur  
257 primarily through two small drainages (i.e., Bayou Heron and Bayou Cumbest) and overland flow (i.e., sheet flow)  
258 (Otvos 2007). JURO High and Mid are also >1000 m from an open water embayment, Middle Bay, and >400 m  
259 from Middle Bayou to the west. This suggests that high marshes with limited potential for sediment delivery could  
260 experience higher inundation frequency similar to mid-marsh if SLR rates increase as predicted for this region. It  
261 should be noted that this hypothesis is not supported by a relatively high accretion rate at JURO High, which is  
262 discussed below.

263



264



265  
 266 **Fig. 5** Aerial images of the JURO High and JURO Mid sites in a) 1968 (Mississippi Department of Marine  
 267 Resources, 2008) compared to b) 2016 (Office for Coastal Management Partners, 2021) in the Grand Bay National  
 268 Estuarine Research Reserve

269  
 270  
 271           Accretion rates and temporal variation in accretion at JURO High was higher than at all other sites (3.89  
 272 mm/yr; 95% CI: 2.59 – 5.19). One explanation is that this site is near an erosional scarp where a salt panne  
 273 transitions to a slash pine flatwood. The nearby scarp could be a source of sediment when storm-induced high tides  
 274 recede and/or heavy rains occur. Another explanation relates to soil composition. Surface Elevation Tables at JURO  
 275 High were installed in a narrow band of salt pannes bordered by a dense stand of *J. roemerianus* to the south and a  
 276 slash pine upland to the north (Fig. 5). Soil samples collected adjacent to JURO High SETs in 2017 were identified  
 277 as fine-silty, mixed epiaquepts and epiaquepts (United States Department of Agriculture 1999), which were unique  
 278 among the SET/MH plots at Grand Bay (Natural Resources Conservation Service, unpublished data). These soils are  
 279 likely more susceptible to fracturing from wet-dry cycling, flocculation, and/or salinity and sodicity effects that  
 280 could cause feldspar to migrate into deeper soil horizons (Page Sanderson, personal communication), which may  
 281 have led to higher apparent accretion rates noted in this study.

282           Elevation change rates were highest in the low marshes, dominated by *J. roemerianus* or *S. alterniflora*,  
 283 where JURO Low and SPAL gained elevation at higher rates than the long-range WLR rate (3.50 mm/yr). The

284 mechanisms through which low marshes maintain elevation may differ depending on the vegetation community. For  
285 example, the elevation change rate to accretion rate ratio at JURO Low was 0.34 compared to 0.67 at SPAL,  
286 suggesting that accretion is a major driver of elevation change in low marsh habitats dominated by *S. alterniflora*  
287 while subaerial processes are major drivers of elevation change at low elevation marshes dominated by *J.*  
288 *roemerianus*. Further support for this hypothesis is that belowground biomass collected from JURO Low in 2015  
289 (5,527 g/m<sup>2</sup>) was higher (though not significant) than at SPAL (3,989 g/m<sup>2</sup>) (Archer et al. 2021). This finding agrees  
290 with other studies documenting that *J. roemerianus* root production is a major driver of marsh elevation  
291 maintenance in frequently inundated marshes (Wu et al. 2020; Turner 1990).

292

### 293 *Elevation maintenance*

294 Marsh persistence may depend on stimulated biomass production as inundation rates increase. Although  
295 less studied historically than abiotic processes (e.g., accretion), biotic feedbacks are an important component of  
296 marsh habitats that allow them to keep pace with rising sea levels. These biotic processes include indirect (e.g.,  
297 sediment trapping by marsh vegetation) and direct (e.g., accumulation of organic material, root production)  
298 feedbacks to elevation (Cahoon et al. 2006). For example, changes in atmospheric conditions associated with  
299 climate change or nutrient enrichment could also result in greater belowground production. Mesocosm experiments  
300 in Louisiana have shown that increases in CO<sub>2</sub> can reduce salinity stress and increase shoot-base expansion in a C<sub>3</sub>  
301 species (*Schoenoplectus americanus*) (Cherry et al. 2009), while field studies in the Chesapeake Bay area  
302 demonstrated that a combination of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and nitrogen addition resulted in the greatest rates of elevation  
303 gain through root zone expansion (Langley et al. 2009). *Juncus roemerianus*, also a C<sub>3</sub> species, is often dominant in  
304 marshes in the north-central Gulf of Mexico. Future increases in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> could promote subsurface  
305 biomass production in *J. roemerianus*, helping marshes maintain elevation as sea level rises.

306 Accretionary inputs to lower marshes in Grand Bay were relatively high despite limited sediment delivery  
307 from upland sources. Considering that most southeastern facing shorelines in Grand Bay have erosion rates that  
308 exceed 0.5 m/yr (Terrano et al. 2019), shoreline erosion may be an important source of sediment for marsh elevation  
309 maintenance in low marsh habitats. Smith et al. (2021) measured sediment accumulation on the marsh platform in  
310 relation to the quantity of eroded sediment from adjacent shorelines in Grand Bay. They found that sediment  
311 deposition along erosional edges was typically concentrated within 10 m of the vertical escarpment along the marsh

312 edge, which agrees with other research along the Gulf Coast that has shown high rates of deposition within 10 m of  
313 the water-marsh boundary (Leonard et al. 1995). However, during larger erosion events, Smith et al. (2021) noted a  
314 lack of deposition in nearshore areas. They hypothesized that larger erosive events exceed an “erosion threshold,”  
315 where sediment is no longer deposited within 10 m of the marsh edge, but instead is transported to other areas in the  
316 estuary. All the sites in this study were further than 10 m from the marsh edge (e.g., SETs/MH plots at SPAL were  
317 the closest to the marsh edge at 20 – 45 m away). As such, marsh accretion at these sites could be driven by less  
318 frequent, pulse events that erode sediment from the marsh edge, transport it inland, and deposit it on the marsh  
319 platform, similar to what was hypothesized by Smith et al. (2021). Sedimentary inputs from storm events have been  
320 shown to mitigate marsh subsidence by providing elevation capital in other areas as well. Hurricane Katrina, for  
321 example, deposited an average of 5.18 cm of sediment in the deltaic plain of Louisiana (Turner et al. 2006), which  
322 resulted in elevation gains in otherwise subsiding marshes at Big Branch and Pearl River, Louisiana (7 mm and 17  
323 mm, respectively) (McKee and Cherry 2009).

324

#### 325 *Potential limitations*

326 Reliance on SET and MH data for predicting marsh persistence has been criticized by some. For example,  
327 Kirwan et al. (2016) indicated that accretion rates at high elevation marshes are not useful predictors. Their meta-  
328 analysis suggested that most marshes will maintain elevation, even under high SLR scenarios and point to a  
329 common over-estimation of marsh instability in the literature. They also emphasized the ability of marshes to  
330 migrate inland and maintain elevation through biophysical feedbacks. Marshes that are most likely to be submerged  
331 are those with an accretion deficit (i.e., elevation or accretion rate minus SLR) greater than 0.5 mm/yr. Marshes at  
332 JURO High and Mid have accretion deficits that exceed this threshold, even for the long-range SLR scenarios (2.96  
333 and 1.04 mm/yr, respectively when using the long-range WLR of 3.5 mm/yr). According to Kirwan et al. (2016), a  
334 closer look at frequently flooded marshes may provide more insight about vulnerability as accretion rates will  
335 increase sharply if marshes are in jeopardy of submerging. The lack of a sufficient period of record precludes a  
336 reliable assessment of accretion rates in Grand Bay, but the results presented in this manuscript can serve as a  
337 baseline from which to compare accretion rates over longer periods of time.

338 It is important to acknowledge that WLR rates are influenced by a variety of factors (e.g., length of record,  
339 seasonal variation, geologic stability of gauge, etc.). Along the Gulf Coast, long-range WLR rates are as high as 9.65

340 mm/yr in Eugene Island, LA and generally decrease moving east towards a geologically stable gauge at Pensacola,  
341 FL, which has a long-range rate of 2.53 mm/yr (Turner 1990). The long-range WLR rate at the closest gauge to  
342 Grand Bay, MS at Dauphin Island, AL has risen from 3.5 mm/yr (used in our analyses for 2012 – 2016) to 4.13  
343 mm/yr in 2020 (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration 2021), which shows that WLR rates are  
344 increasing even over short timescales. However, the short-range WLR rate that was used in this study (13.71 mm/yr)  
345 was not significantly different when compared to elevation change rates from any of the sites because of the wide  
346 confidence interval (95% CI: -2.38 – 29.81). With an increased emphasis on modeling marsh response to increases  
347 in sea level, it is important to recognize that longer periods of record are needed to better define WLR rates when  
348 predicting marsh vulnerability. This approach would reduce the amount of uncertainty in predictions, which would  
349 enhance marsh restoration planning and conservation.

350

#### 351 *Modeling sediment dynamics and marsh persistence in Grand Bay estuary*

352 Substantial research has been done to understand sediment and vegetation dynamics and project future  
353 conditions for the Grand Bay estuary (Passeri et al. 2015; Raposa et al. 2016; Alizad et al. 2018; Wu et al. 2017; Wu  
354 et al. 2020; Nowacki and Ganju 2020; Archer et al. 2021), with long-term projections suggesting that Grand Bay  
355 marshes will experience large changes in the coming decades with the magnitude of SLR being an important  
356 determinant of marsh persistence. Passeri et al. (2015) used a hydrodynamic modeling approach that included  
357 historical changes in sea level and geomorphology. They determined that the estuary has become increasingly ebb  
358 dominant over the last 150 years. The determination of ebb dominance helps to explain high erosion rates  
359 documented for many seaward shorelines over a similar timeframe (Terrano et al. 2019). Nowacki and Ganju (2020)  
360 measured sediment flux in several locations within the estuary in 2016 and determined that Grand Bay is a “self-  
361 cannibalizing” sedimentary system with the bulk of suspended sediment leaving the system and only a small portion  
362 being available for maintaining marsh elevation. Assessments of marsh resilience to sea level rise (MARS) have  
363 shown that low tidal range and accretion rates are risk factors for marsh resilience (Raposa et al. 2016). Grand Bay,  
364 being a microtidal system with low rates of sediment accretion, falls into a high-risk category overall for the MARS  
365 index. However, two metrics used in MARS, percentage of marsh in the lowest third of the estuary and elevation  
366 change rate, were scored as low risk for Grand Bay.

367 Archer et al. (2021) used updated measures of above- and belowground biomass characteristics in the  
368 Marsh Equilibrium Model (MEM) (Morris et al. 2002) to estimate inundation time at SPAL, JURO Low, and JURO  
369 High over the next 100 years for three SLR scenarios: 3.74 mm/yr, 7.0 mm/yr, and 20.0 mm/yr. The results showed  
370 that a 3.74 mm/yr SLR rate over the next 100 years will increase inundation time 81%, 84%, and 442% at SPAL  
371 Low, JURO Low, and JURO High from current levels, respectively. Models showed that the sites will be inundated  
372 100% of the time in 70 – 90 years when using SLR rates of 7 mm/yr, and in 40 – 50 years when using a SLR rate of  
373 20 mm/yr. Wu et al. (2017) developed a mechanistic model that integrates the MEM and is informed by accretion  
374 rates presented in this manuscript. The results included estimates of SLR rate thresholds for marsh collapse in Grand  
375 Bay of 11.9 and 8.4 mm/yr in 2050 and 2100, respectively. For example, their models showed that exceedance of a  
376 SLR rate of 8.4 mm/yr by 2100 will result in a loss of roughly 56% of wetland area. A more recent estimate reduces  
377 these thresholds to 10.8 and 7.2 mm/yr by 2050 and 2100, respectively, and stresses the importance of belowground  
378 biomass for elevation maintenance and marsh persistence in the marine-dominated Grand Bay estuary (Wu et al.  
379 2020). A coupled-hydrodynamic marsh model called Hydro-MEM predicts changes to marsh extent within Grand  
380 Bay under four different SLR scenarios by 2100: 0.2 m, 0.5 m, 1.2 m, and 2 m (Alizad et al. 2018). There was a  
381 predicted increase in marsh extent for all scenarios from current levels (e.g., current marsh extent was estimated at  
382 3,612 ha versus 3,800 ha in 2100). However, predicted marsh expansion assumes successful migration of marshes  
383 into current upland areas as much of the current marsh footprint is predicted to become open water by 2100,  
384 especially in the higher SLR scenarios.

385

### 386 *Management Implications*

387 Grand Bay marshes face many challenges for persistence in their current footprint (e.g., shoreline erosion,  
388 ebb-dominance, etc.). While the diminishment of a retrograding delta is a natural process, Grand Bay is one of the  
389 more pristine and undeveloped marsh ecosystems along the north-central Gulf Coast that is functionally important  
390 for many species, including humans. Future increases in SLR and exorbitant shoreline erosion rates suggest that the  
391 persistence of marsh habitats will depend on continued accretionary inputs, vegetative growth in response to SLR,  
392 landward migration, and potentially the use of natural and nature-based features (NNBFs) (e.g., living shorelines,  
393 thin-layer placement, reconstruction of historical barriers). Human intervention on a broad scale would carry some  
394 uncertainty. For example, rebuilding the Grand Batture Islands, a set of barrier islands that once protected the Grand

395 Bay estuary from the larger Mississippi Sound, has been proposed for more than three decades as a strategy to  
396 increase habitat and protect inland marshes from erosion (Meyer-Arendt and Kramer 1991; Eleuterius and Criss  
397 1991). However, hydrodynamic models have shown that restoring the islands to their historic footprint would  
398 increase tidal velocities, thereby making the system more ebb-dominant (Passeri et al. 2015). The result could be an  
399 inadvertent increase in sediment export from the system, causing an acceleration of marsh loss. Constructing  
400 shoreline protection structures (e.g., living shorelines) is another option, but this would also carry uncertainty  
401 because shoreline hardening neglects to account for impacts on the net sediment budget (Ganju 2019) and could  
402 inhibit elevation maintenance in nearshore areas by reducing shoreline erosion (Smith et al. 2021). More research  
403 needs to be done in Grand Bay and in other areas of the northern Gulf of Mexico to understand the impact of  
404 NNBFs on sediment budgets, including long-term studies that incorporate increases in sea level. Future research  
405 should focus on assessing the effects of thin layer placement and/or the effects of NNBFs on sedimentary processes  
406 to better understand both the benefits and limitations of these approaches, which would inform restoration planning  
407 and implementation within the Grand Bay estuary and beyond.

408 For undeveloped areas like Grand Bay, marsh migration is a good option for conservation of marsh  
409 structure and function (Enwright et al. 2016). Adjacent upland habitats receive periodic applications of prescribed  
410 fire, which can facilitate upslope marsh migration (Hacker 2018). The CLMAJ site represents an upland area within  
411 a marsh migration corridor that receives prescribed fire. Our comparison of elevation change rate (4.272 mm/yr;  
412 95% CI: 3.098 – 5.447) to WLR showed that the site is maintaining elevation relative to water level. Monitoring  
413 efforts in this location over the long-term could prove to be valuable for understanding elevation and accretion  
414 dynamics with respect to marsh migration. Regardless, more research needs to be done to better understand the  
415 current rate of marsh migration at Grand Bay with an emphasis on the marsh-upland ecotone (e.g., JURO High).  
416 Research in other areas has shown that ecotones are excellent places to study SLR impacts, even over short  
417 timescales (Wasson et al. 2013). Grand Bay is fortunate to have several “pine islands” adjacent to bayous that have  
418 marsh-upland ecotones that are very accessible for study. These areas are the focus of several ongoing research  
419 projects aimed at understanding SLR impacts. Future work could be focused on determining the rate of marsh  
420 migration along the marsh-upland ecotone in a variety of areas to determine where conservation efforts (e.g., land  
421 acquisition, prescribed burning) are most needed to preserve highly valued marsh functions.

422

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551

552 *Statements and Declarations*

553 *Funding*

554 This work was funded in part by an award from the Office for Coastal Management, National Ocean Service,  
555 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (award number NA21NOS4200046) and the Mississippi  
556 Tidelands Trust Program administered by the Mississippi Department of Marine Resources.

557

558 *Competing Interests*

559 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

560

561 *Author contributions*

562 Study conception and design were performed by Jonathan L. Pitchford, Kimberly Cressman, Julia A. Cherry, Brook

563 T. Russell, and William V. Underwood. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by

564 Jonathan L. Pitchford, Kimberly Cressman, Brook T. Russell, Jay McIlwain, and Michael J. Archer. The first draft

565 of the manuscript was written by Jonathan L. Pitchford, and all authors commented on previous versions of the

566 manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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568 *Data availability*

569 The elevation and accretion datasets analyzed during the current study are available from National Oceanic and

570 Atmospheric Administration's Centralized Data Management Office at <https://cdmo.baruch.sc.edu/get/landing.cfm>.

571 This data and other generated datasets (e.g., water level rise data) can be provided by the corresponding author on

572 reasonable request.