

DREDGED MATERIAL RESEARCH PROGRAM



TECHNICAL REPORT D-78-3

MINERAL CYCLING IN SALT MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEMS

ECOSYSTEM STRUCTURE, FUNCTION, AND GENERAL COMPARTMENTAL MODEL DESCRIBING MINERAL CYCLES

by

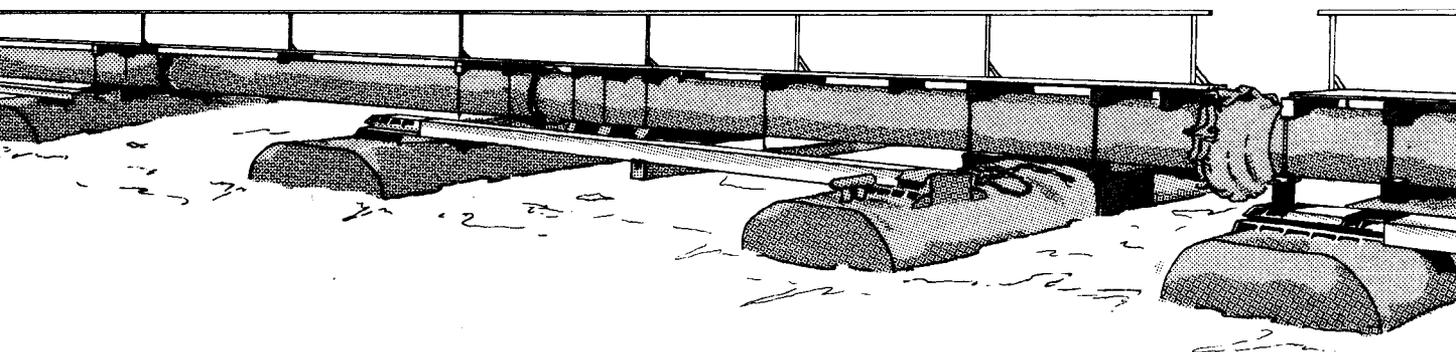
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Final Report

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Prepared for Office, Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army
Washington, D. C. 20314

Under DMRP Work Unit No. 2A05

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IN REPLY REFER TO: WESYV

15 February 1978

SUBJECT: Transmittal of Technical Report D-78-3

TO: All Report Recipients

1. The technical report transmitted herewith represents the results of Work Unit 2A05 regarding mineral cycling in salt marsh-estuarine ecosystems. This work unit was conducted as part of Task 2A (Effects of Marsh and Terrestrial Disposal) of the Corps of Engineers' Dredged Material Research Program (DMRP). Task 2A is a part of the Habitat Development Project (HDP) of the DMRP and is concerned with defining and quantifying the effects of dredged material disposal on shallow water, wetland, and terrestrial sites.

2. The purpose of this work unit was to address nutrient and heavy metal cycling in marsh-estuarine ecosystems through an intensive literature survey, discussions with recognized authorities, and application of information from allied fields. The specific area of concern was the environmental impact of dredged material disposal in marsh and estuarine environments. A major conclusion of this report is that present knowledge is inadequate to permit accurate predictions of environmental impacts resulting from marsh development with heavily contaminated material. Consequently the author recommends that only those materials containing nutrients and heavy metals in no greater amount than those in nearby natural marsh soils should be used for marsh development. This recommendation is justified at this time. However, several DMRP work units (4A06, 4A11H, 4A11L, 4A15A, 4A26, introduced below) have specifically addressed the potential hazards involved in shallow-water disposal of contaminated materials. A preliminary assessment of the resultant data indicates that accurate quantification techniques will be forthcoming with a synthesis of this research information.

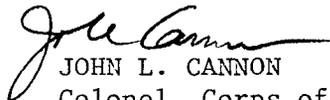
3. Work Unit 2A05 was one of several research efforts designed by the DMRP to assess the potential for the uptake and mobilization of contaminants through disposal of dredged material in marsh and estuarine systems. Closely related work units were 4A06, which demonstrated the effect of Eh, pH, and salinity on heavy metal uptake by marsh plants;

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4A11H, which compared the water quality and sediment status of a natural and a man-made marsh on the James River, Virginia; 4A11L, which evaluated the uptake of organohalides from contaminated sediments into plant and animal tissues; 4A15, in which marsh plants were subjected to various concentrations of heavy metals in a hydroponic solution; 4A15A, in which an extraction procedure was developed to predict heavy metal uptake from dredged material; and 4A26, which provided a rapid, inexpensive bioassay technique for predicting heavy metal uptake from dredged material under field conditions. Additional supportive and comparative data will be forthcoming with the final analysis of the results of field studies at Windmill Point, Virginia (4A11); Buttermilk Sound, Georgia (4A12); Apalachicola, Florida (4A19); Bolivar Peninsula, Texas (4A13); Pond No. 3, California (4A18); and Miller Sands, Oregon (4B05). The results of these research products will be integrated in a synthesis report entitled "Upland and Wetland Habitat Development with Dredged Material: Ecological Considerations" (2A08). That document will provide the Corps with a comprehensive basis for sound management decisions regarding disposal in marsh-estuarine systems and habitat development on potentially contaminated dredged material.



JOHN L. CANNON

Colonel, Corps of Engineers
Commander and Director

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20. ABSTRACT (Continued).

Marshes and estuaries function as a single integrated ecosystem. Marshes are dependent on estuaries for their origin and maintenance, and supply 50 to 95 percent of the total organic matter contained in the estuarine water column. Detritus of marsh origin forms the major portion of a food chain that supports an extensive estuarine-based fishery.

The proximity of oxidizing and reducing environments within marsh-estuarine ecosystems permits the nitrogen and sulfur biogeochemical cycles to exist in complete forms. The intimacy of oxidizing-reducing zones permits oxidation of ammonium to nitrate, followed by anaerobic production of molecular nitrogen. Reduction of sulfate to sulfur and sulfide also requires anaerobic conditions.

Marsh-estuarine ecosystems regulate phosphorus release to the sea. Marsh grasses mobilize phosphorus by acting as pumps, steadily removing phosphorus from soil and then losing phosphorus to estuarine water. Estuarine regenerative processes remove phosphorus from decomposing marsh grasses. Some of this phosphorus also moves to the ocean.

Heavy metals, including dissolved inorganic cadmium, copper, and lead, move out to sea through the estuary. The particulate forms of these metals are deposited within the ecosystem along with insoluble compounds formed from iron and manganese. Zinc and mercury move through the system, but are slowed in their passage because of their involvement with estuarine biota and organic particulates.

Chemical release of contaminants from dredged materials may cause problems. Oxygen demands exerted by reduced materials placed in aerobic waters can deplete oxygen. Several heavy metals have increased mobility once their binding sulfides have been oxidized. Oxidation of heavily contaminated marsh soils can cause metal toxicity for plants and cat clay formation. Eutrophication resulting from use of contaminated materials for marsh creation is not a problem, except in unproductive estuaries. Present knowledge is inadequate to permit accurate predictions of environmental impacts resulting from use of heavily contaminated materials in marsh creation. It is recommended that only those dredged materials containing nutrients and heavy metals in quantities no greater than those in marsh soils at the creation site be used for marsh development.

SUMMARY

A nutrient and heavy metal cycling study of marsh-estuarine ecosystems was undertaken for the Dredged Material Research Program to address problems concerning: (a) environmental impacts of dredged material disposal in marsh-estuarine ecosystems, (b) pollution of estuaries from use of contaminated dredged materials for marsh creation, (c) heavy metal mobilization by marsh primary producers and subsequent metal concentration in the biota, and (d) harmful effects of dredged material disposal on marsh-estuarine ecology.

The study objective was to gather as much of the existing information as possible on mineral cycling in marsh-estuarine ecosystems; this was used to construct a compartmental model outlining pathways of mineral cycling within the ecosystem. The study approaches included an intensive literature survey and discussions with authorities in marsh-estuarine ecology. Indirect information from allied fields of research was used to supplement direct sources.

Marshes and estuaries function as a single integrated ecosystem. Marshes, while dependent on estuaries for their origin and maintenance, supply 50 to 95 percent of the total organic matter contained in the estuarine water column; this forms the base of a food chain supporting an extensive estuarine-based fishery.

The proximity of oxidizing and reducing environments within marsh-estuarine ecosystems permits the nitrogen and sulfur biogeochemical cycles to be completed. The intimacy of oxidizing-reducing zones permits aerobic oxidation of ammonium to nitrate, followed by anaerobic production of molecular nitrogen. Reduction of sulfate to sulfur and sulfide also requires anaerobic conditions.

Marsh-estuarine ecosystems regulate phosphorus release to the sea. Marsh grasses mobilize phosphorus by acting as pumps, steadily removing phosphorus from soil and then losing it to estuarine water. Estuarine regeneration processes remove phosphorus from decomposing marsh grasses. Some of this phosphorus then moves to the ocean.

Heavy metals, including dissolved inorganic cadmium, copper, and

lead, move easily out to sea through the estuary. The particulate forms of these metals are deposited within the ecosystem along with insoluble compounds formed from iron and manganese. Zinc and mercury move through the system but are slowed because of involvement with estuarine biota and organic particulates.

Present technology does not give a viable means of assessing the exact or even a general value of each unit area of marsh. However, destruction of marshes is environmentally unsound and should be avoided when possible.

Chemical release of contaminants from dredged materials can cause problems. Oxygen demand exerted by reduced materials placed in aerobic waters may deplete oxygen. Several heavy metals have increased mobility once binding sulfides are oxidized. Oxidation of heavily contaminated marsh soils can cause metal toxicity for plants and cat clay formation. Eutrophication resulting from use of contaminated materials for marsh creation is not a problem, except in unproductive estuaries. Present knowledge is inadequate to permit accurate predictions of environmental impacts resulting from use of heavily contaminated materials in marsh creation. It is recommended that only those dredged materials containing nutrients and heavy metals in no amounts greater than those in marsh soils at the creation site be used for marsh development.

PREFACE

This research was supported by the Dredged Material Research Program (DMRP), Work Unit 2A05, of the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers. The DMRP is sponsored by the Office, Chief of Engineers (DAEN-CWO-M), and administered by the Environmental Effects Laboratory (EEL), U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (WES).

The research was conducted during the period November 1974 to October 1975. The study was conducted by Dr. Douglas Gunnison, Research Microbiologist, Ecosystem Modeling Branch, EEL, under the direct supervision of Dr. R. L. Eley, Chief, Ecosystem Research and Simulation Division, EEL, and general supervision of Mr. D. L. Robey, Chief, Ecosystem Modeling Branch, EEL. Dr. John Harrison was Chief, EEL. The study was funded as part of the DMRP Habitat Development Project with Dr. H. K. Smith serving as Project Manager. Many persons provided valuable assistance during the information-gathering phase of the study. The staff and students of the University of Georgia Marine Institute, Sapelo Island, Georgia, and the Department of Agronomy and the Coastal Studies Institute, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, were particularly helpful in providing literature and technical information. Dr. W. H. Allaway, U. S. Plant, Soil, and Nutrition Laboratory, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York; Dr. W. M. Dunstan, Skidaway Institute of Oceanography, Savannah, Georgia; Dr. J. L. Gallagher, University of Georgia Marine Institute, Sapelo Island, Georgia; Dr. S. P. Meyers, Department of Food Science, Louisiana State University; Dr. W. H. Patrick, Jr., Department of Agronomy, Louisiana State University, Dr. L. R. Pomeroy, Department of Geology, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia; Dr. R. J. Reimold, University of Georgia Marine Resources Extension Program, Brunswick, Georgia; Dr. J. W. Teal, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute, Woods Hole, Massachusetts; and Dr. I. Valiella, Boston Marine Program, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, contributed much of their valuable time in providing the principal investigator with background on marsh-estuarine ecosystems and on various aspects of mineral cycling in aquatic ecosystems. Many of these

persons also kindly provided detailed descriptions of their own research programs.

Directors of WES during the study and preparation of this report were COL G. H. Hilt, CE, and COL J. L. Cannon, CE. Technical Director was Mr. F. R. Brown.

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CONVERSION FACTORS: METRIC TO U. S.
EQUIVALENT UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

Metric (SI) units used in this report can be converted to U. S. customary units of measurement as follows:

<u>Multiply</u>	<u>By</u>	<u>To Obtain</u>
centimetres	0.3937	inches
litres	0.264	gallons
metres	3.281	feet
square metres	10.76	square feet
microns	0.00004	inches
hectares	2.471	acres
square centimetres	0.155	square inches
grams	28.35	ounces
milligrams	0.028	ounces
micrometres		
millimetres	0.0394	inches
kilograms	0.454	pounds
micrograms per gram	1.00	parts per million (ppm)
milligrams per kilogram	1.00	parts per million (ppm)
milligrams per litre	1.00	parts per million (ppm)
micrograms per litre	1.00	parts per billion (ppb)

MINERAL CYCLING IN SALT MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEMS

ECOSYSTEM STRUCTURE, FUNCTION, AND GENERAL COMPARTMENTAL MODEL DESCRIBING MINERAL CYCLES

PART I: INTRODUCTION

Problem

1. As a result of the passage of the River and Harbor Act of 1970 (Public Law 91-611), the Corps of Engineers was authorized to initiate an extensive environmental research program on dredged material disposal. In a subsequent study by the U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (WES) (Boyd et al., 1972), one of the possible productive uses contemplated for dredged material was as a source of new marsh substrate for the creation of additional salt marsh habitat.

2. During the process of artificial salt marsh establishment, several potential difficulties may be encountered, including the achievement of proper substrate elevations for marsh plant development, the selection of marsh species that are compatible with the environmental conditions at the site, and the successful dissemination and establishment of marsh plant propagules in the new marsh. Hopefully, several ongoing studies being conducted as part of the Dredged Material Research Program (DMRP) will provide adequate guidance to solve these potential problems. However, a field office conducting a marsh development project or any other activity involving the movement or disposal of dredged material in marshes and estuaries always must answer a question that poses problems of even greater magnitude: What will be the environmental impacts of dredged material disposal in the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem? The National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (Public Law 91-190) and the Federal Water Pollution Control Act Amendments of 1972 require an evaluation of the potential environmental impacts of proposed management activities in an ecosystem prior to the initiation of such work.

3. Coastal wetlands in general and marsh-estuarine ecosystems in particular require close examination to assess the potential effects of dredged material disposal within these environments. Marsh-estuarine ecosystems are biologically and economically important to man and to nature. Their high productivity and consequent importance is partially a result of the close biogeochemical and physical coupling between marshes and estuaries. The coupling, as will be described later, is intense enough to warrant consideration of salt marshes and estuaries as one ecosystem. Therefore, perturbations in a marsh have potential effects on the ecology of the estuary and vice versa (Teal, 1962; Pomeroy et al., 1972; Gosselink et al., 1973; and Eley et al., 1975a). For example, if the dredged material used for marsh development were contaminated, would the new marsh be a source of contamination for the surrounding estuaries? If the dredged material contained excessive levels of plant nutrients, would the developing marsh be overproductive and, perhaps, be responsible for the eutrophication of adjacent estuaries? In addition, if the dredged material were contaminated with high concentrations of heavy metals, could these metals be mobilized by some biogeochemical mechanisms with the subsequent concentration of such contaminants in the salt marsh-estuarine food web? Also, dredging and dredged material disposal in estuaries might have significant and harmful consequences on the ecology of marshes or might serve to decrease the total area of productive marshes at a given site.

4. Several projects have been initiated by the DMRP to assess the impact of artificial marsh creation, and several reports on this subject have been prepared (Barko et al., 1977; Eley et al., 1975a; and Lee et al., 1976). However, the ability to effectively address the problem of Corps activities in the marsh-estuarine ecosystem has been somewhat hampered by the failure to have available all current information on nutrient and heavy metal cycling in these coastal ecosystems.

Study Objectives

5. The major purpose of this study was to gather as much of the currently existing information on nutrient and heavy metal cycling in

marsh-estuarine ecosystems as possible under existing constraints of time and money. In order to make this knowledge available in an easily used form, a diagrammatic compartmental model was to be formulated that would outline the pathways of mineral cycling within the ecosystem and between its compartments. The compartmental model had the following constraints placed on its construction:

- a. It was to be developed in a detail reflective of the current state of the art.
- b. The format was to consist of a generalized set of compartments (marsh substrate, detritus, marsh grasses, decomposers, herbivores, carnivores, water, plankton, benthos, sediment, etc.); for each of these compartments, a detailed subcompartmental model was to be formulated.
- c. The data obtained on mineral cycling, specifying the rate, form, amount, and direction of transfer of minerals among the components, were then to be integrated into the compartmental model.

6. The information thus summarized would be available to the DMRP for the following purposes:

- a. To serve in guiding work unit experimental studies by pointing out areas where pertinent environmental information was weak or lacking.
- b. To provide Corps of Engineers District and Division offices concerned with coastal activities with a factual body of available information on the mineral cycling and associated ecology of marsh-estuarine ecosystems.
- c. To emphasize the implications of these mineral cycles to the environmental effects of dredged material disposal in coastal ecosystems.
- d. To serve as a reference document for the preparation of environmental impact statements in conjunction with Corps of Engineers activities in coastal ecosystems.

In addition, the data on mineral cycling would be available to any persons desiring general information on marsh-estuarine ecosystems for research purposes or for mathematical modeling.

7. In order to effectively integrate all aspects of mineral cycling in marsh-estuarine ecosystems, a second parcel of knowledge was assembled and incorporated into the compartmental model. This information consists of the biological, chemical, and physical entities, which

collectively characterize marsh-estuarine ecosystems. Thus, this report will provide the reader with a general knowledge of:

- a. The important major biological, chemical, and physical processes operating within marsh-estuarine ecosystems and the names of the organisms, materials, or processes involved.
- b. Several important ecological functions of marshes and estuaries.
- c. Some of the predominant biological, chemical, and physical interactions between marshes and estuaries.
- d. Some of the possible origins and potential fates of marshes and estuaries.

Study Approaches

8. To provide information on the structure and function of marsh-estuarine ecosystems as well as on mineral cycling within these ecosystems, a series of three separate study approaches were used. In order to ensure that the facts obtained were both current and accurate, an attempt was made to obtain corroborating evidence for the same information with each of the approaches. The following methods were used to gather the information: intensive survey of literature, contact with authorities in marsh-estuarine ecology, and recourse to indirect information.

9. Intensive survey of literature. Many current journal articles were surveyed in the areas concerned. Books were used where appropriate. The work of Teal and Teal (1969) on the salt marsh and Perkin's (1974) treatise on estuarine and coastal water biology were particularly useful starting points. Pertinent articles supplied by authorities in the field of marsh-estuarine ecology were also helpful. In addition, the normal literature survey methods of examining literature obtained by cross-reference from journal and review articles and backtracking of references from abstracting journals were used.

10. Contact with authorities in marsh-estuarine ecology. Personal contacts were made and discussions held with known authorities in marsh-estuarine ecology or closely allied fields either by telephone, at pertinent regional and national meetings, or by on-site visits with authorities conducting relevant ongoing research.

11. Recourse to indirect information. When information was unobtainable directly from the literature or from appropriate authorities, indirect information obtained from other relevant areas of research was used. The fields of agronomy, plant ecology, aquatic and soil microbiology, plant-soil chemistry, and fisheries biology were especially useful sources of data.

Formulation of compartmental model

12. The development of a compartmental model was a process of continual evolution and refinement during the entire study. However, three distinct stages occurred during the model formulation process. An initial model formulated by Eley et al. (1975b) served both as the starting point for the literature search and as the prototype from which succeeding models were developed. In addition, this model also provided the organizational structure upon which particular details concerning marsh-estuarine biology, chemistry, ecology, and physics could be assembled as they were obtained.

13. The general model, which is described in this report, is a direct descendant of the initial model of Eley et al. and differs in only a few important details from the initial model. The general model serves to integrate the major compartments of the marsh-estuarine ecosystem into a descriptive diagram that outlines the major pathways or potential pathways of mineral cycling in the ecosystem.

14. The final stage in the model development was the construction of rate tables for each of the nutrients and heavy metals examined. The rate tables present data on the amount, form, and direction as well as the rate of transfer of each of the minerals between compartments of the general model. Each rate table has been related to the appropriate part of the model by numbers of the various compartments or arrows within the general model. In addition, relationships between each of the tables and its corresponding model component have been explored in depth by discussions in the text. A nutrient-by-nutrient and metal-by-metal accounting system was selected over the alternative process of going through all nutrients and metals for each compartment of the model on an individual bases because:

- a. It provides the greatest continuity within a given mineral's cycle; that is, one nutrient or metal and all the facets of its movement through the ecosystem have been presented in a single package. Thus, its cycling may be traced easily and any ramifications of ecosystem perturbation to the cycling of this mineral can be understood.
- b. It enables one nutrient or metal to be studied in detail separate from the clouding that could exist if all minerals were discussed simultaneously. This permits a person who is interested in only one or two of the minerals presented here to get the information without having to separate the desired facts from all other details.

15. While this method of presentation does have these advantages, the method necessarily entails a large degree of repetition. To avoid overwhelming the reader who is interested only in the general patterns of mineral cycling while providing access to details for the research worker, a special approach has been used to separate general knowledge from details. The differences between the packages of information are as given below.

Contents of main text

16. The main text presents general descriptions of salt marshes and estuaries and describes in detail the manner in which the general compartmental model is related to the natural ecosystem. Once the general model itself has been presented, a description of the types of organisms or abiotic entities occupying each of the compartments is given. A description is presented for each of the interactions listed as occurring between compartments in the model. Following this, general descriptions are made of the cycling of each nutrient or heavy metal; these are then related to the patterns evident in the general model. Data are presented in the text for mineral cycling within the constraints of the general model and from this, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made with respect to the use of marsh-estuarine ecosystems for the disposal of dredged materials.

Contents of appendix

17. The appendix focuses on each of the compartments in the general model and, in turn, presents the detailed contents of the compartment. Each individual table, then, presents a study of a nutrient or heavy

metal cycling to a depth reflective of the present state-of-the-art knowledge.

18. The main text is intended for use where the details contained in the appendix may be neither needed nor desired. The appendix is intended for general reference, impact statement preparation, and research use. However, the appendix does not repeat the more general ecosystem level descriptions, which are given in the main volume. Thus, the researcher will wish to review the main text before studying the appendix.

PART II: DESCRIPTION OF THE MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEM

Overview of the Ecosystem

Estuaries

19. Estuaries are transition zones (ecotones) between freshwater streams or rivers and marine ecosystems. Functionally, the estuary is a body of water semi-enclosed by land in which fresh water of terrestrial origin meets with and dilutes seawater (Odum, 1959; Reid, 1961; Perkins, 1974). Since the estuary has a unidirectional freshwater current in its headward end and an oscillating saline tidal system at its mouth, the estuary necessarily possesses some of the properties and biota of each contributing ecosystem as well as several characteristics that are uniquely its own.

20. The dominant properties of the physical environment of the estuary that can be characterized include sediment transport, morphology of the estuarine basin, mixing and salinity, color and turbidity, current flow, heat, and temperature (Reid, 1961; Perkins, 1974).

21. Sediment transport has two facets. Sediments moved by fresh water are imported through the erosive powers of streams in their watersheds. Following transport into the estuary, dense particles are deposited as a result of the decrease in transporting stream velocity which occurs when incoming saltwater currents meet outgoing fresh water; less dense particles fall out as a result of the coagulating activities of saltwater ions. The result of depositional influences combined with estuarine currents, tides, and wave actions are the construction of deltas and tidal flats. After the erosive activities of waves have scoured materials from headlands, peninsulas, offshore dunes, sandbars, and bottom deposits, sediment can also be transported back into the estuary from the sea. If inflowing salt water has sufficient magnitude, materials are imported into the estuary from the sea (reverse flow). Alternatively, suspended sediments may be imported by incoming tides providing the incoming tidal current is sufficiently stronger than the outgoing stream currents. For materials imported by seawater to build

up in an estuary, the import of materials must obviously exceed the export by outgoing tides and currents. Both stream and tidal deposits can contribute substantially to the filling of the estuary. Filling, in concert with the erosion of coastline features and in the absence of compensational uplifting or sinking of a region, can cause the demise of an estuary.

22. Estuarine basin morphometry can play a determining role in the establishment or lack of salinity gradients, the development of sedimentary features, and the degree of fluctuation of tides.

23. Although mixing and salinity are interrelated in estuarine ecosystems, salinity is a physicochemical factor rather than a purely physical phenomenon. Salinity is, perhaps, the dominant factor in the estuarine ecosystem. Because salinity increases the density of water, the lighter fresh water flows seaward through the estuary over the inland-flowing, denser, more saline seawater. As fresh water flows seaward, it gradually becomes more saline as a result of diffusive or turbulent exchanges with seawater. By contrast, because salt water becomes increasingly diluted with fresh water as it moves landward, the seawater becomes indistinguishable from fresh water. The amount and rate of this mixing are dependent not only on diffusion and turbulence at the saltwater and freshwater boundary, but also on the strength of winds and tides; these, if of sufficient strength, can hold back or even reverse the flow of the freshwater stream at flood tide. The pattern of outward flow in the estuary is dependent on morphometry of the estuary basin, direction and height of tides and winds, Coriolis' forces, degree of stratification (thermal or saline), and the current velocity. The magnitude of freshwater inflow into the estuary will also influence the pattern of outward flow. In general, the freshwater stream has greater influence on estuary composition during the heavier precipitation seasons (Reid, 1961).

24. Color and turbidity are often produced by dissolved humic substances and by suspended silt and organic detritus particles. These often impart a brownish appearance to estuarine waters that can be aerially visible for many miles seaward. Excessive turbidity in

estuaries often causes light extinction at such a shallow depth as to make light limiting to phytoplankton growth and to bottom floral production. Heavy phytoplankton blooms can themselves impart coloration to waters, particularly in estuaries having little or no turbidity. In the case of more turbid estuaries, phytoplankton blooms may reach significant levels within a few centimeters of the surface of the water. In turbid estuaries, a zone of higher turbidity may be flanked on both the upstream and downstream sides by zones in which the turbidity decreases with increasing distance from the central region of greater turbidity. Such zones (turbidity maxima) oscillate upstream and downstream with each respective flood and ebb tide and may persist for prolonged periods in a given section of estuary.

25. There are two important aspects of current flow in estuaries: flushing number and tidal prism volume (Reid, 1961; Perkins, 1974). Flushing number is a mathematical description of the time required for a parcel of water to move out of the estuary and is, therefore, a measurement of discharge (Perkins, 1974). Tidal prism volume is that amount of water imported into the estuary from the sea during a flood tide. Knowledge of these two parameters plus stream inflow will give some idea of water exchange dynamics occurring in the estuary. The forces that actually generate estuarine currents are tides, stream flow, and wind. The impact of these forces depends on estuarine basin morphometry, stream channel morphometry, seasonal variation in stream flow, tidal height, and tidal movement along with related wind effects (Reid, 1961).

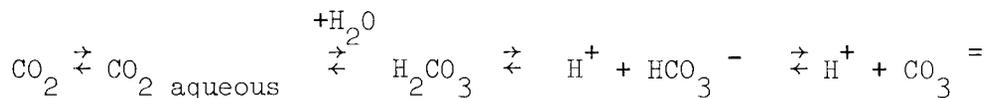
26. Heat and temperature are additional physical parameters of importance in estuaries. Heat content may be imparted to estuarine water directly by solar radiation (insolation) or indirectly by stream and tidal additions (Perkins, 1974). The thermal regime in estuarine water is greatly affected by the depth of the sea into which the water enters, the tides, and the stability of the intruding salt wedge. The temperature regime also reflects fluctuations in thermal input from the stream source; a spring-fed stream would probably have less effect on temperature than a stream possessing a large watershed. More general temperature determinants of estuaries include climate, adjacent sea currents,

and the seasonal periodicity of flooding of the marshes and mudflats (Reid, 1961; Perkins, 1974). The latter can be strongly warmed by summer sunshine but also may be severely cooled by winter climates. Estuarine vertical temperature distributions reflect depth, stream and tidal flow, and seasonal variation in latitudinal and longitudinal distribution. In temperate climates, temperature may vary seasonally in a pattern analogous to that occurring in dimictic lakes (Hutchinson, 1957; Perkins, 1974).

27. The chemical entities that dominate in estuarine waters include: oxygen, carbon dioxide, dissolved organic matter, pH, salinity, and dissolved solids.

28. Dissolved gases are influenced in estuarine waters by salinity, temperature, turbulence, current biological properties, and dissolved materials. The current biological properties and dissolved materials in estuarine waters are, in turn, determined by the chemical contents of the stream and seawaters and the position in the estuary of the gradient between these two waters (Nash, 1947).

29. The concentration of carbon dioxide is primarily influenced by salinity. An increase in salinity causes a corresponding decrease in carbon dioxide solubility. Solubility decreases with increasing temperature. However, salt water does have a chemical feature that tends to favor the solubilization of carbon dioxide. Carbon dioxide reacts with water in accordance with the equation:



This equation is strongly pushed toward the bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) - carbonate ($\text{CO}_3^{=}$) side by the alkaline nature of seawater arising from an excess of cations of strong bases (Na^+ , K^+ , and Ca^{++}) over the anions of strong acids (Cl^- , $\text{SO}_4^{=}$, $\text{PO}_4^{=}$) [618 milliequivalents of cations/kg of seawater vs 609 milliequivalents of anions/kg of seawater (Perkins, 1974)]. For this reason, the total amount of CO_2 in solution in

estuarine waters will increase in the seaward direction, regardless of other factors.

30. There are many relationships between the occurrences of oxygen and carbon dioxide. The solubility of oxygen is greatly affected by salinity and temperature, an increase of either causes the concentration of oxygen in solution to decrease. Since temperature and salinity undergo both diurnal and seasonal variations, the levels of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the water are likewise subject to such shifts. Changes in oxygen and carbon dioxide are primarily biological and thus opposite in pattern. This difference is accentuated by the lack of reaction of oxygen with water in a manner that can be shifted by alkalinity. Bottom flora can use CO_2 and produce O_2 if not shaded out by turbidity. The presence or absence of salinity and temperature stratification also affects dissolved oxygen content at the bottom of the estuary.

31. Dissolved organic matter can enter the estuary from streams, groundwater, and, to a lesser extent, rain water (Valiela et al., report in preparation). Alternatively, dissolved and particulate organic materials can enter from local sources including tidal marshes. Dissolved organic materials consist largely of humic acids that have their primary origins in the marshes, but some fraction may also be generated in the watershed. Most of the particulate organic particles occurring in turbid estuaries consist of organic detritus of tidal marsh origin; such particles may comprise up to 90 percent of total seston (living and dead particulates suspended in the water) in an estuary in the immediate vicinity of the marsh (de la Cruz, 1973). Much of the humic matter transported to the estuary by incoming streams is acidic in nature. The humates often will tend to coagulate and precipitate upon meeting the cations found in salt water.

32. The pH of seawater, in contrast to that of most fresh water, is remarkably well buffered and tends to resist pH changes as a result of the presence of the carbon dioxide-carbonate buffer system, and the boric acid borate buffer system. This tends to restrict the saltwater pH range to 7.8-8.4 with a mean of approximately 8.2 (Harvey, 1955).

33. The dissolved salts contributed to estuarine waters by the sea are nearly constant as a result of the sea's relatively homogeneous complement of major dissolved components relative to that of estuaries (Hoar, 1966). By contrast, fresh water can vary widely in its content of dissolved solids, although river waters generally contain more sulfate than chloride and more calcium than magnesium (Ross, 1970). This reason is, in itself, sufficient to permit estuaries to differ from each other in their chemistries without consideration of the tremendous variations in flow rate and dissolved solids content that a given inflowing stream may undergo on an annual basis. Since the estuarine salt water is diluted by its freshwater component, the dissolved solids can vary in concentration along the length of the estuary, with concentration increasing towards the mouth.

34. The amount and direction of movement of water, the salinity, temperature, and chemical factors are each critical to the organisms and have an impact on their distribution and well-being. Estuarine organisms must either be widely tolerant of fluctuations in temperature and salinity or else have adapted some means of confining themselves to a single, fairly homogeneous parcel of water that oscillates with the tides. The estuarine biota must adapt to a wide range and magnitude of diurnal and seasonal variations in salinity and dissolved chemicals rather than to a set of mean conditions. Tolerance to alterations in salinity with an emphasis on osmoregulatory adaptation is probably the most important response (Reid, 1961; Hoar, 1966).

Marshes

35. The salt marsh ecosystem develops on flat areas of mud or sand, which are sheltered from strong wave action by sand dunes, sand bars, or other barriers, or along river banks. An elevation of the physical substrate at or slightly above midtide height is optimal for marsh development. Such a flat elevation may result from the submergence or emergence of a section of coastline relative to sea level, the physical activities of winds, tides, and waves upon a section of land, or the deposition of mud and sand by the estuarine sedimentary processes previously described (Teal and Teal, 1969; Ranwell, 1972).

36. Once the substrate has reached the proper elevation, propagules from one of the marsh plant species that prefer the shoreline habitat can move in and, under proper conditions, develop. As many marsh grasses mature, they send out rhizomes from which separate plant populations develop. The presence of vegetation presents an obstacle to the tidal excursions. As a result, the currents in incoming tides can be slowed sufficiently to cause deposition of suspended sediments (Teal and Teal, 1969; Ranwell, 1972). In addition, organic materials are added to the marsh surface in the form of dead grass roots and rhizomes plus any decomposing aboveground vegetation that has not been scoured from the marsh by tide and storm. Thus, the marsh surface develops from its initial mud or sand composition to a mixture of muds or sands and plant residues.

37. With continued addition of sediments and plant materials, the level of the marsh surface can actually rise above mean midtide. If the rate of marsh growth is sufficient to permit the surface level to reach that of mean high tide, the marsh will then be flooded by only one half of the tides while being exposed during the other half. This lack of flooding causes a decrease in tidal sediment input, decreases the rate of growth in marsh surface height, and also limits the amount of nutrients available to marsh grasses. Once the marsh surface has risen to a level approximately 30 cm, about the level of mean high tide, an equilibrium between marsh growth and tidal input is achieved. As a consequence of the lack of tidal sediment input, the presence of poorer substrate-stabilizing grasses, and a decreased rate of plant matter accretion that shifts the marsh soil from an accumulating to a decomposing economy, the marsh level ceases to rise as rapidly (Teal and Teal, 1969). Continued decomposition of organic matter coupled with marsh soil compaction and erosion of marsh soil can cause an actual subsidence in the marsh surface level. Once the level of the marsh has been lowered to a point where marsh-building grasses can become reestablished, the level of the marsh can rise again. Normally, however, marsh building continues in a seaward direction from the original site. A large estuary may be formed at the confluence of several rivers and streams with the

central estuary's salt wedge intruding along the bottoms of many or all of the component streams (as, for example, in Chesapeake Bay); in this case, each stream may possess a gradation of marsh types ranging from brackish marsh at the point of main estuary entrance to freshwater marsh farther upstream. The formation of pools in the marsh surface and the destruction of sections of marsh by storms or by submergence and elevation may proceed at rates in excess of the marsh's adjustment ability. However, the marsh surface is normally maintained at slightly above mean tide level by the elevating and depressing forces of tides, erosion, plant growth, compaction, and decomposition of peat (Teal and Teal, 1969; Ranwell, 1972).

38. Salt marshes are irrigated and drained by a series of channels that connect directly to the main body of the estuary. The channel system is, in fact, a part of the estuary and the component channels are termed tidal streams or creeks. Once developed in the marshes, these creeks may undergo changes in position similar to other rivers, including formation of oxbows, meandering, etc. Since the amount of water necessary to flood the marsh cannot be moved in channels of lesser capacity, the outgoing (ebb) tides are able to erode from the creeks any filling resulting from collapsing creek banks or deposition by the incoming (flood) tides (Teal and Teal, 1969; Chabreck, 1972).

39. The biota of the marshes are attuned to the periodic inundations by the tidal waters. In addition, the vegetative composition of the marsh itself is determined to some extent by the salinity of the flooding waters as well as the properties of the marsh soil (Chabreck, 1972). In a riverine estuary, the type of marsh on its borders will vary in a continuous gradation from a true salt marsh near the mouth of the estuary through brackish marshes at midestuary to freshwater marsh at the headwaters of the estuary (Reid, 1961). Similar gradations in marsh type may also be seen along tidal creeks with freshwater sources at their headwaters.

Interactions Between Marshes and Estuaries

40. Salt marshes and estuaries are closely coupled, and many

interactions occur between them. As previously discussed, estuaries are the sources of various physical and chemical substrates necessary for marsh formation and development. The addition of nutrients to the marsh either in the form of nutrient-laden sediments deposited on the marsh surface or in the case of nutrient-poor sandy soils, in the form of nutrient-rich tidal waters, is a mechanism of plant fertilization.

41. Estuaries also support various herbivorous, detritivorous, and carnivorous organisms that move up into the marsh with the flooding tides in order to feed. In this manner, estuarine species are quite dependent upon marsh production.

42. The destructive power of waves and shifting currents in estuaries can tear up the same marshes that have been built up by estuarine-marsh interactive processes. In addition, the erosive power of rainfall on the marsh at low tide can tear at the banks of tidal creeks, promoting headward erosion of their tributaries, thus causing a further dissection of the marsh surface with channels (Teal and Teal, 1969).

43. The processes of nutrient uptake from the sediments and scrubbing of nutrients from tidal waters enable marshes to store and subsequently to regulate the re-release of some of the nutrients to the estuary in the form of particulate organic matter (especially carbon and nitrogen). The dominant mechanisms of nutrient release from a marsh include uptake of marsh soil nutrients by marsh grasses through their root systems followed by release of some of these nutrients to water through excretion from stems or leaves of living marsh plants and through microbial decomposition of dead plant and animal materials.

44. Apparently marshes are important as a source of nutrition for those estuarine animals that feed upon organic detritus (although some authors feel otherwise; see Heinle and Farmer, 1976). The marshes are the principal source of detritus to the estuaries. The continuous input of large quantities of detritus permits estuaries to serve as nursery grounds for large numbers of species of animals, many of which are prized as sources of food or sport by man (Schelske and Odum, 1961; de la Cruz, 1973).

45. In many ways, salt marshes act as buffers for estuaries. By

regulating the release of nutrients to the estuaries, marshes provide a steady input level that minimizes periods of slack production in the estuary (de la Cruz, 1973). By serving as a source of detritus for the estuary, marshes enable the estuary to support trophic pathways that supplement many estuaries that have a light-limited low level of primary production. Indeed, the maximum detritus supply made available to the estuary often occurs during the winter months when estuarine primary production is at or near its minimum (Day et al., 1973). By functioning as tortuous passageways for water during periods of localized heavy terrestrial runoff, marshes can decrease or ameliorate the suddenness with which slugs of local runoff materials are discharged into the estuary.

46. The intimate relationship between marsh and estuarine ecosystems has several implications with respect to the importance of these ecosystems to terrestrial and marine environments. Marsh-estuarine ecosystems are buffer zones on which marine storms may dissipate their energies before moving inland and through which terrestrial runoff must move before flowing out to sea (Teal and Teal, 1969). In addition, these ecosystems are exceedingly important to marine ecosystems and to a lesser degree to freshwater ecosystems as nursery grounds for biota. Many marine organisms and several freshwater species use highly productive estuaries as a source of food and shelter during at least a portion of their development. As a consequence of these functions, any of man's activities that result in the destruction, contamination, or other perturbation of the marsh-estuarine ecosystem can have far-reaching effects on marine, freshwater, and marsh-estuarine productivity and, ultimately, upon man himself.

PART III: GENERAL COMPARTMENTAL MODEL
OF THE MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEM

Structure of the Model

Organization of the model

47. The diagram presented in Figure 1 depicts the format used in the construction of the compartmental model. The major subdivisions of the model are the ecosystem components. These are the elements that either form or exert major influences on the marsh-estuarine ecosystem. The ecosystem components are contained within the blocks denoted by Roman numerals I and II in Figure 1 and by the name "Ecosystem Component" appearing in boldface type in the upper left-hand corner of each component block.

48. The Ecosystem Component I block surrounds three smaller blocks or compartments that contain the major biotic and abiotic elements of this ecosystem. Although Ecosystem Component II could be similarly divided, the detail is unnecessary here; this is also the case with several of the components in the general compartmental model. Each of the compartments is identified by a compartment name and a compartment number. The latter is composed of a Roman numeral, which denotes the larger component of which the compartment is a member. Specific compartments within components are denoted by the hyphenated capital letter following the component number. In the case of a compartment that consists of two or more sections, the compartment number will further contain a section number in Arabic numerals, as is the case with Compartment I-C of Figure 1 that possesses Sections I-C1 and I-C2.

Interactions between components and compartments

49. The arrows that run between the various components and compartments in Figure 1 represent interactions occurring between and among the various constituents of the model. The direction of an interaction is indicated by an arrow. The number closest to an arrow designates the interaction number. Double-headed arrows indicate two-way interactions.

50. When reference is made to an interaction, the interaction

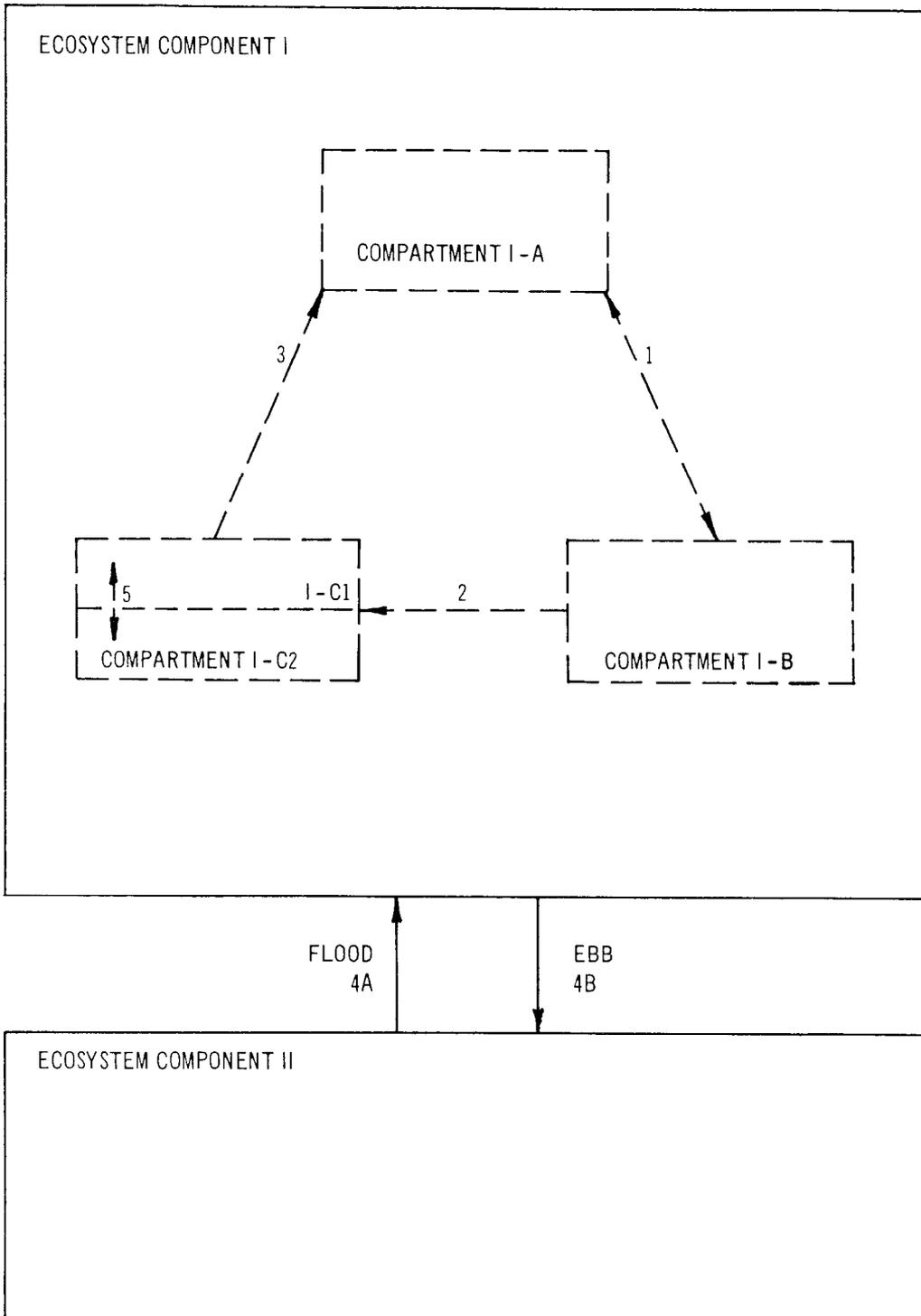


Figure 1. Format used for construction of diagrammatic compartmental model. Labels in bold face type are ecosystem components or events occurring between components. Compartments within a component are outlined with dashed lines. Solid arrows represent interactions between components. Dashed lines are interactions within compartments or between compartments. Details are in text

number will be used. In the case of a two-way interaction, each direction of the interaction will be referred to separately. In order to specify the direction of such an interaction, the interaction will be followed by the numbers of the compartments involved; these numbers will be enclosed in parentheses and separated by a comma. The compartment number appearing first in the parentheses designates the source or origin (donor) of the interaction, while the second compartment number denotes the target (recipient) of the interaction. For example, in Figure 1 the term 1(I-A, I-B) would indicate the interaction running along arrow 1 from compartment I-A to I-B. The term 1(I-B, I-A) would indicate an interaction in the opposite direction. The number assigned to a given arrow does not assign a priority to that interaction that is greater or less than that of an interaction of lower or higher number.

51. In certain cases two arrows rather than a double-headed arrow will be used to designate a two-way interaction. In this instance, each arrow will bear the same interaction number, but the directions of the arrows will be differentiated by the letters A and B included as a part of the interaction number. See, for example, interactions 4A and 4B in Figure 1. This system of interaction designation is used only when an interaction is of a large magnitude and consists of only a single process that occurs in more than one direction. In Figure 1, interactions 4A and 4B represent the flooding and ebbing of the tide, respectively. While the motion of the tide is really only one process (movement of water), it is of fairly large magnitude and runs in two directions (flood and ebb).

52. Interaction 5 in Compartment I-C is a two-way interaction in the same sense as interaction 1, but interaction 5 is occurring between two sections within one compartment rather than between two compartments or components. The meaning is the same as for an interaction between compartments.

Components and Compartments of the Model

53. The details of the general compartmental model are presented in Figures 2 and 3. Figure 2 depicts the salt marsh ecosystem component

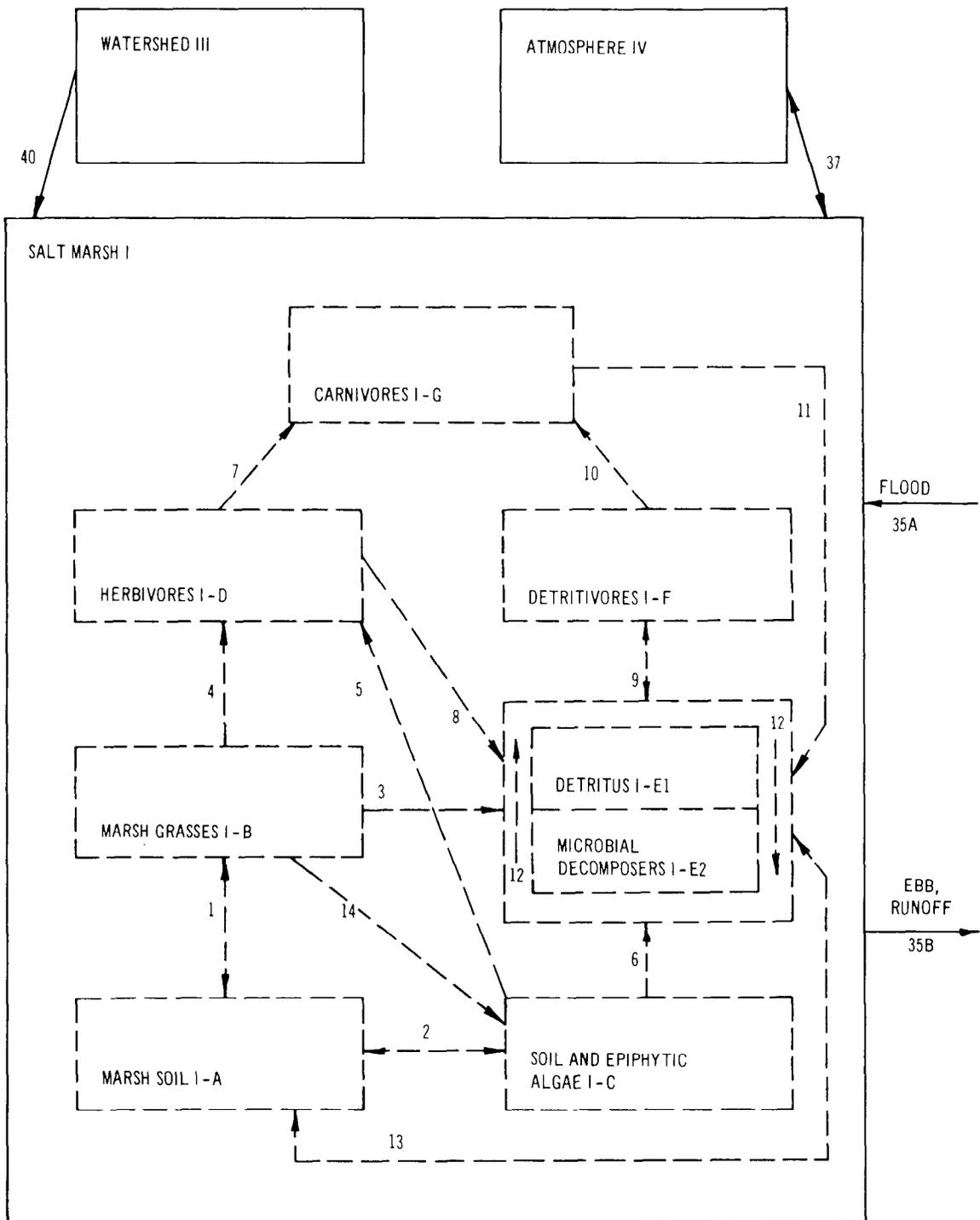


Figure 2. Salt marsh ecosystem component. For details of compartment contents, see text. Table 1 gives a description of interactions

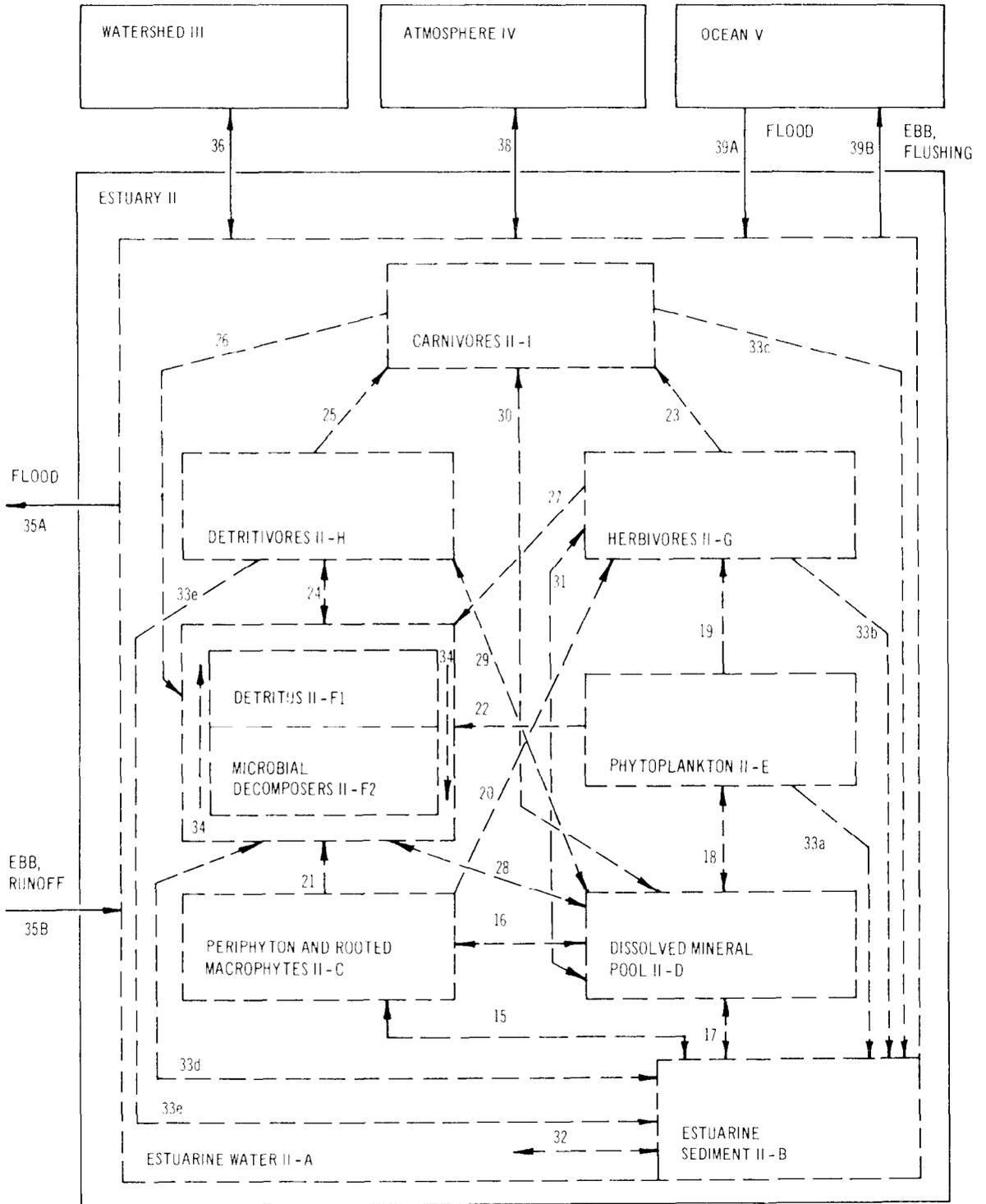


Figure 3. Estuary ecosystem component. For details of compartment contents, see text. Table 1 gives a description of interactions

along with the major links to other components that are vital to the functioning of the salt marsh. Figure 3 describes the estuary ecosystem component and gives the major links of this component with other components pertinent to estuarine ecology. The watershed (Component III), the atmosphere (Component IV), and the ocean (Component V) ecosystem components were not the major concern in this study and, thus, were not refined enough to require detailed compartmentalization.

Salt marsh ecosystem component

54. The salt marsh ecosystem component (Component I) houses a total of seven different compartments including: marsh soil (I-A), marsh grasses (I-B), soil and epiphytic algae (I-C), herbivores (I-D), detritus-microbial decomposers (I-E1, I-E2), detritivores (I-F), and carnivores (I-G).

55. When tidal waters flood the marsh (arrow 35A), the salt marsh and estuarine components are effectively joined to form a continuous ecosystem. At this time, the salt marsh component will acquire three additional compartments from the estuary component including: estuarine water (II-A), dissolved mineral pool (II-D), and phytoplankton (II-E).^{*} In addition, the compartments of the marsh component that have corresponding compartments in the estuary component may be modified at high tide to contain a few estuarine representatives of the same category. For example, the brown shrimp Penaeus aztecus is normally an estuarine inhabitant that feeds largely upon detritus. As a result, this organism should be classified as a member of estuary ecosystem Component II, detritivore Compartment II-H. However, when the high tide moves up onto the marsh, Penaeus may move with it in order to browse upon the detritus lying on the marsh surface. At this point Penaeus might technically be considered a member of salt marsh ecosystem Component I, Detritivore Compartment I-F. Also, some fish (Fundulus heterclitus) enter the marsh to feed (Vince et al., 1976). Many other constituents of the estuary

* As will be noted later in this paper, the intimacy of compartments at high tide is such as to permit an exchange of substances between the marsh and the estuary. Some substances, for example, nitrogen, show a net export from the marshes.

will participate in the same phenomenon. For simplicity, however, any organism or material that tends to remain chiefly within a single component will be considered as a permanent member of that component regardless of temporary translocations.

56. Compartment I-A. Compartment I-A of the salt marsh is the marsh soil. While the exact composition of marsh soil varies extensively both within the same marsh system and among different salt marshes, a marsh soil may be generally considered to consist of sand, silt, clay, and varying amounts of organic matter in the form of peat and humic acids (Kurz and Wagner, 1957; Teal and Teal, 1969; Chabreck, 1972; Ranwell, 1972). While the muds and sands can come from terrestrial, riverine, estuarine, or marine sources, the soil organic substances are mainly formed within the ecosystem. The amount and nature of organic materials in the soil is dependent upon: the geographical situation of the marsh site; the types and productivity of plant species growing at the site; in situ decompositional capacity of the site; the geological age and history of the site; and the meteorologic, erosive, and tidal characteristics of the site (Alexander, 1961; Buckman and Brady, 1969; Chabreck, 1972; Ranwell, 1972).

57. Compartment I-B. Marsh grasses form Compartment I-B of the salt marsh ecosystem component. Marsh grasses, like their terrestrial counterparts, may be considered as plants of the family Graminae, which includes plants having jointed stems, sheathed leaves, flowers borne on spikelets, and fruits consisting of seedlike grains (Hitchcock, 1971). The salt and brackish water grasses differ from their freshwater and upland counterparts in their ability to tolerate saline conditions. It is probably the tolerance of saline conditions rather than a strict requirement for salt water that is responsible for their coastal distribution. Most salt-adapted plants are unable to successfully compete with other plants in nonsaline environments (Uphof, 1941; Reimold and Queen, 1974). There are many species of marsh plants that are important in the marsh-estuarine ecosystem. However, for the sake of brevity, the present general discussion will be limited to the grass Spartina alterniflora, which is important in Gulf Coast marshes and is the dominant

species along Atlantic Coast marshes (Adams, 1963; Teal and Teal, 1969; Stowe et al., 1971; Chabreck, 1972; Day et al., 1973; de la Cruz, 1973). Available data for other marsh grasses are given in Appendix A.

58. Compartment I-C. Compartment I-C includes the soil and epiphytic algae. The soil algae (the edaphic algae of Gallagher, 1974; Van Raalte et al., 1974) consist of those species that live within or on the marsh soil surface. Algae living within the soil are most commonly diatoms, while the surface forms include green and blue-green algae in addition to diatoms and others (Hustedt, 1955; Pomeroy, 1959; Stowe et al., 1971; Brkich, 1972). Many of these algae are also representative of the epiphytic algal community, i.e., those algae that attach themselves to and grow upon the marsh grasses. Many of these forms are intertidal or estuarine organisms that because of the frequency of tidal inundation, are able to extend their domain into the marsh. Some algae, typically diatoms, migrate into and out of the base marsh soil, moving out at the onset of flood tide and burying themselves in the mud at low tide in order to prevent direct exposure to the overly strong summer sun that may damage their photosynthetic processes. This situation is eliminated during the less intensive sunlight of winter when the algae usually remain on top of the mud (Teal and Teal, 1969). In New England marshes, however, diatoms move into the sand at high tide and during the night, coming to the surface only at low tide and in the daylight during cloudy weather; these organisms are able to do this because of the relatively lower intensity of the New England summer sunlight (Teal and Teal, 1969). During the marsh growing season, algal growth in the grassy areas of the marsh containing a canopy of marsh plants is limited by light. During the winter, however, when the aerial portions of the marsh plants have died back, light no longer limits algal production.

59. Evidence has been found that suggests that some soil algae float as a film upon the surface of the flood tide (Gallagher, 1956); they conduct their activities on this surface and subsequently return to the soil surface as the tide moves out.

60. Compartment I-D. Compartment I-D contains the salt marsh

herbivores, those organisms that obtain most of their food directly from the marsh primary producers (algae, marsh plants). Many of the other organisms in Compartment I-D are not truly herbivorous. Indeed, many of the marsh-estuarine animals are not strict herbivores, detritivores, or carnivores, but instead are opportunists, i.e., omnivores that are able to consume and use any of the appropriate-sized organisms or organic particulates that they happen across. In addition, season can have much to do with the types of food that are available. For the purposes of this report, the various categories of herbivore, detritivore, and carnivore serve as functional definitions to describe the food that comprises the bulk of the intake of the organisms. In many cases, the organism classified as an herbivore will secondarily feed on detritus, which is mainly a plant product. The dominant marsh herbivores are insects that graze on the grasses and the snails that feed on the algal mats (Smalley, 1958). Raccoons, muskrats (nutria in the gulf Coast marshes), ducks, and geese feed upon roots and rhizomes of marsh grasses while several bird species consume the seeds of the various grass species (Teal and Teal, 1969; Chabreck, 1972; Day et al., 1973).

61. Compartment I-E. Compartment I-E represents the detritus-microbial decomposer unit of the salt marsh ecosystem component. Although this compartment is considered as a single unit, it possesses two functional subdivisions, the organic particles and the decomposer microorganisms attached to these particles. Detritus consists of all types of materials of biological origin in various stages of biological decomposition. These materials serve as energy sources for the consuming organisms (detritivores). Detritus encompasses all dead organisms (including dead decomposer microorganisms) together with all subsequent particulate decomposition products that still represent potential energy sources (Darnell, 1967a; Mann, 1972). The decomposer microflora is itself a potential energy source, and these organisms often form the bulk of the critical or usable portion of organic detritus (Newell, 1964; Fenchel, 1970).

62. Detritus is often divided into subcategories based upon size. One of the more common fractionation schemes involves: (a) "particulate

organic detritus," which is considered as that material retained by filters having a pore diameter in the 0.2- to 2.0- μ size range, and (b) "subparticulate organic detritus," which is composed of colloidal and dissolved organic material that is able to pass through these filters (Holm-Hansen, 1972; Sharp, 1973).

63. Many of the organisms that function as the "microbial decomposers" (Compartment I-E2) are intimately associated with the decomposing substrates. The decomposer microflora help to increase the nitrogen content of detritus (often in the form of microbial cellular protein) to the point where detritus can serve as a nitrogen source of substantial nutrient value (Mann, 1972; de la Cruz, 1973). Marsh grasses and algae often have high carbon-to-nitrogen ratios with the former material often being so nitrogen-poor as to be unsuitable as a food source (de la Cruz, 1973). Decomposing microorganisms acting upon dead marsh vegetative materials can decrease the substrate carbon-to-nitrogen ratio by two mechanisms including: (a) metabolism of organic matter with subsequent loss of carbon as CO_2 , while retaining substrate nitrogen either in the substrate (nonutilization) or incorporating the nitrogen into microbial cellular materials (immobilization); and (b) concentration of free nitrogen compounds (ammonium, nitrate, amino acids, etc.) from the ambient aquatic environment followed by incorporation of this nitrogen into cellular materials (Alexander, 1961; Thimann, 1963). In either case, little or no nitrogen from the substrate is excreted as waste products by the microflora until the carbon-to-nitrogen ratio has declined to a favorable level (Alexander, 1961).

64. Compartment I-F. The detritivore compartment contains those organisms that obtain their nutrition primarily from detritus particles and the decomposition products and the attached decomposer microflora sorbed or attached to the detritus. As a result of their food sources, the detritivores are primarily filter feeders and scavengers. Because of their ability to utilize substrates, which would otherwise be lost to processes of decomposition, and to "package" the nutrients so obtained into a form usable by other organisms (carnivores), the detritivores form the base of a secondary food chain (Lindeman, 1942).

Moreover, detritus feeders also comminute detritus, thus increasing the surface to volume ratio, thereby increasing decomposition rates. In the marsh-estuarine ecosystem, the detritus-based food chain is the major mechanism by which marsh primary production is exploited (Mann, 1972). While there are only two or three marsh-estuarine species that may be considered to be true detritivores in the sense that they obtain all of their nutrition from detritus (Odum, 1970), many species are so classified because they derive a minimum of 20 percent of their sustenance from detritus (Odum, 1970; de la Cruz, 1973).

65. Compartment I-G. Compartment I-G contains those carnivores that are secondary consumers. Their foods consist of live prey drawn from the herbivore (I-D) and detritivore (I-F) compartments and, often, other carnivores (tertiary consumers) (I-G). While some marsh animals are carnivorous, the majority of the carnivores having an impact upon marsh inhabitants are estuarine species that hunt in the marsh during flood tides or terrestrial species that move onto the marsh at low tide.

Estuary ecosystem component

66. Figure 3 depicts the water of the estuary as compartment II-A; this compartment envelopes each of the other compartments in the estuarine ecosystem component. In addition, the water of the estuary is always in intimate contact with the sediment (Compartment II-B) surface directly and, more remotely, with the lower sediment layers by way of interstitial waters. The remaining seven compartments of the estuary ecosystem component are either dissolved or suspended in, project into, or swim actively in the estuarine waters.

67. Compartment II-B. Compartment II-B represents the sediments of all parts of the estuarine basin up to the elevation at which these become exposed at extreme low tide. Estuarine sediments, like the marsh soil, have unique sets of organic and inorganic properties that are determined by local geographic, geologic, and physical characteristics. The three major components of the sediments (or sections of the compartment) include: (a) the organic fraction that consists of peats and/or deposits of detritus, biologically produced pseudofeces and feces, and/or humates; (b) the inorganic fraction composed of sands, silts, and

clays; and (c) the interstitial waters, the water situated between the various particles of sediment. The sediments differ from the marsh soils in their lack of air spaces and their lower level of organic matter resulting from being situated downstream from rather than underlying an active zone of growing, dying, and decomposing grass plants. At this point, it should be emphasized that the tidal creeks are also considered a part of the estuary. However, because of their proximity to the detritus-producing salt marshes, the organic levels in tidal creek sediments will more closely approximate the amounts in the marsh soils than do those of the sediments in the main body of the estuary. Nevertheless, an estuarine sediment that formed from materials contained in a submerging marsh or supported a dense bed of sea grass (Zostera spp. or Thalassia) or macro-algae can have a high content of organic materials. In no case, however, does the estuarine sediment organic content rival that of the marshes where levels of over 50 percent can be achieved (Chabreck, 1972).

68. Compartment II-C. Compartment II-C contains the periphyton and rooted macrophytes. Periphyton, or attached algae, contain both microscopic and macroscopic forms. The microscopic forms occur both individually and in colonies and are attached to the bottom sediment surfaces or to materials situated on the bottom, including rocks (epilithic algae) and the rooted macrophytes (epiphytic algae). Submerged rooted macrophytes, by contrast, are those plants that are macroscopic in size and have special structures (basal cells) adapted for attachment of the organism either to the bottom sediments or to rocks situated on the bottom of the estuary. Examples of such plants include Zostera, Fucus, and Ulva (where solid peat permits attachment), and Ruppia (where freshwater springs emerge).

69. Compartment II-D. Compartment II-D, the dissolved mineral pool, is an extension of the water compartment II-A, in which the materials are dissolved. This compartment is separated because of the importance of its constituents to the other members of the marsh and estuarine ecosystem components. The dissolved mineral pool contains all materials, organic or inorganic, dissolved in the estuarine water column.

In addition, all materials that exist in the water in colloidal form are included in this compartment. The primary materials so involved include the organic humates and the inorganic clays. The dissolved mineral pool contains substances of riverine, marine, and marsh origin as well as those native to the estuary.

70. Compartment II-E. The phytoplankton is contained in compartment II-E. In this compartment are placed all species of algae and photosynthetic bacteria that (a) float freely in the estuarine water column; (b) are subject to movement by estuarine currents; and (c) conduct their photosynthetic activities in the water column. The true member of the estuarine phytoplankton must (a) be a member of an autochthonous population that normally grows and multiplies within the estuary, or (b) a member of an allochthonous marine, freshwater, or marsh population that not only survives the rigors of movement into the estuary but also multiplies to an extent sufficient to maintain its population size while in the estuary (Perkins, 1974). Ill-adapted organisms are flushed from the estuary into the ocean before any significant population size can be achieved.

71. While the particular algae that are dominant in a given estuary or portion of an estuary will vary with the particular physical and chemical conditions existent in that estuary, diatoms and dinoflagellates tend to dominate the phytoplankton of most estuaries during much of the year (Riley, 1967; Perkins, 1974). Generally, major blooms occur in spring (actually late winter) and autumn. Phytoplankton are scarcer during the remainder of the year (Riley, 1967).

72. Compartment II-F. Compartment II-F, the detritus-microbial decomposer compartment, is very much like its marsh ecosystem component counterpart except that the estuarine detritus has a greater variety of sources, including marsh grasses, phytoplankton, rooted macrophytes, and minor contributions from dead animals. While there are many viewpoints concerning the inclusion of inorganic materials in the detritus category (Duursma, 1960; Krey, 1967), inorganic particulates serve as a site for attachment and growth of many aquatic microorganisms (Alexander, 1971). In addition, dissolved organic materials are sorbed by many inorganic

particulates, thus changing the character of the inorganic particles to a more organic nature (Duursma, 1960).

73. Compartments II-G, II-H, and II-I. The herbivore, detritivore, and carnivore compartments (Compartments II-G, II-H, and II-I, respectively) have a function identical to that of their marsh ecosystem counterparts, except that (a) the detritivores and herbivores must obtain their materials from the water column or from deposits brought in by water and settled on the bottom, and (b) the carnivores living in the water column must be highly opportunistic, searching out and hunting down food both in the water column and on the sediment surface. Moreover, estuarine carnivores, especially fish, have a closely partitioned food web. This often involves more than the use of other animals as food sources. For example, Menidia is a diurnal plankton feeder, while Fundulus heteroclitus feeds predominantly on the salt marsh benthos.

Interactions between components and compartments

74. Table 1 presents a detailed listing of the interactions occurring between the various components and compartments in Figures 2 and 3. As is summarized in Table 1, the marsh soil (compartment I-A) provides the marsh grasses (compartment I-B) and the soil algae (compartment I-C) with nutrients, physical support, a site for attachments, or combinations thereof (arrows 1 and 2). In addition, the marsh soil serves as a staging area for detritus production by (a) providing an area for detritus processing upon which detritus can be incubated in wet, warm, and predominantly aerobic conditions; (b) providing a microbial inoculum from old detritus and from the soil itself for initiating the breakdown of new materials into detritus; and (c) providing a surface upon which detritivores involved in the shredding and tearing functions of detritus processing (amphipods, crabs, shrimp) can move (arrow 13). When the detritus has been fragmented into small, easily moved particles, it is subsequently suspended and removed by the ebbing tides (arrow 35B) and storm runoff into the estuary (Teal, 1962; Day et al., 1973). Alternatively, plant materials may be decomposed by microorganisms to more resistant compounds (Alexander, 1961, 1965). Such materials may also

Table 1
Description of Interactions Occurring Between Compartments
and Components in Figures 2 and 3

Interaction No.	Direction*		Description of Interaction	References		
	From	To				
1	I-A	I-B	Mineral uptake from marsh soil and soil interstitial water by marsh grasses	Kurz and Wagner, 1957 Adams, 1963 Broome et al., 1973		
	I-B	I-A	Addition of organic particulates to soil upon death of plant roots and rhizomes	Kurz and Wagner, 1957 Teal and Teal, 1969 Chabreck, 1972		
2			Aeration of soil by conduction of O ₂ to roots and diffusion from roots into soil	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961		
	I-A	I-C	Marsh soil forms surface for attachment of algae and matrix into which algae move	Day et al., 1973 Teal and Teal, 1969 Van Raalte et al., 1976a,b		
	I-C	I-A	Addition of organic particulates to soil upon death of algal cells	Alexander, 1961		
3			Excretion of photosynthate by live algae	Hellebust, 1967		
			Lysis and release of cellular materials from dead cells	Alexander, 1961		
	I-B	I-E	Death of marsh grasses contributes substrate to microbial decomposers for detritus production	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957 Odum and de la Cruz, 1963 Teal and Teal, 1969 de la Cruz, 1973		
4	I-B	I-D	Consumption of marsh grass production by herbivores (including leaves, shoots, seeds, roots, and rhizomes)	Smalley, 1959, 1960 Teal and Teal, 1969 Day et al., 1973		
5	I-C	I-D	Consumption of soil and epiphytic algae by herbivores	Smalley, 1959, 1960		
6	I-C	I-E	Death of soil and epiphytic algae contributes substrates to microbial decomposers for detritus production	Darnell, 1967b Odum and de la Cruz, 1967		
7	I-D	I-G	Predation of marsh herbivores by carnivores	Teal, 1962		
8	I-D	I-E	Contribution of herbivore fecal materials to detritus pool	Kuenzler, 1961 Darnell, 1976		
			Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of herbivores	Darnell, 1976		
9	I-E	I-F	Consumption of organic detritus by detritivore population	ZoBell and Feltham, 1938, 1942 Darnell, 1961 Darnell, 1967a&b Mann, 1972 de la Cruz, 1973		
			I-F	I-E	Contribution of detritivore fecal material to detritus pool	Kuenzler, 1961 Darnell, 1967b
					Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of detritivores	Darnell, 1967b
10	I-F	I-G	Predation of marsh detritivore population by carnivores	Teal and Teal, 1969 Teal and Teal, 1969		
11	I-G	I-E	Contribution of carnivore fecal material to detritus pool	Darnell, 1976		
			Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of detritivores	Odum and de la Cruz, 1967		
12	I-E1	I-E2	Decomposition of detritus substrate supplies, minerals, and energy to decomposer microflora	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957 Darnell, 1967a,b Odum and de la Cruz, 1967 Mann, 1972		
			I-E2	I-E1	Contribution of metabolites and microbially produced decomposition products to detritus	Darnell, 1967a,b Mann, 1972 de la Cruz, 1973
					Contribution of dead microbial cell tissue to detritus pool	Darnell, 1967 a&b Mann, 1972 de la Cruz, 1973
13	I-A	I-E	Detritus pool existing on marsh surface serves as as inoculum for new detrital substrates**	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957		
			I-E	I-A	Detritus not flushed from marsh surface by tides becomes incorporated with soil as a part of soil organic matter	Teal, 1962
14	I-B	I-C			Marsh grasses serve as a substrate for attachment of epiphytic algae	Day et al., 1973
			Marsh grasses shade out soil and epiphytic algae and decrease their growth within marsh during the normal grass growing season	Day et al., 1973		

(Continued)

* See text for explanation of details.

** Inferences made from general statements.

Table 1 (Continued)

Interaction No.	Direction		Description of Interaction	References
	From	To		
15	II-B	II-C	Estuarine sediment provides an attachment substrate for periphytic algae and rooted macrophytes	Kelley et al., 1971
			Mineral uptake from estuarine sediment and interstitial water by rooted macrophytes	McRoy and Barsdate, 1970 Zieman, 1975
	II-C	II-B	Addition of organic particulates to sediments upon death of rooted macrophyte root systems and leaves	Zieman, 1975
			Excretion of dissolved organic materials and sloughing of root materials by macrophyte roots add to sediment organic matter pool	This has not been studied for estuarine macrophytes
			Macrophyte roots stabilize sediments	Kelley et al., 1971
16	II-C	II-D	Excretion of dissolved inorganic and organic materials by periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Khalilov and Burlakova, 1969 Sieburth and Jensen, 1969 Chapman and Rae, 1969 Riley, 1970
	II-D	II-C	Sorption by leaves of rooted macrophytes and by periphyton of inorganic materials from dissolved mineral pool	McRoy and Barsdate, 1970
17	II-B	II-D	Diffusion of dissolved materials out of sediments (via interstitial water) into the dissolved mineral pool in estuary water	Ho, 1971 Ho and Lane, 1973 Ho et al., 1970
	II-D	II-B	Diffusion of dissolved materials from the dissolved mineral pool into sediments (via interstitial water)	Ho and Lane, 1973 Khalid et al., 1975
			Sorption of materials to sediment surfaces	Ho et al., 1970 Khalid et al., 1975
18	II-D	II-E	Mineral uptake from dissolved mineral pool by phytoplankton	Lund, 1965
	II-E	II-D	Release of minerals and dissolved organic matter from phytoplankton by excretion and/or autolysis	Hellebust, 1967 Lund, 1965
19	II-E	II-G	Consumption of estuarine phytoplankton by herbivores	Riley, 1967
20	II-C	II-C	Consumption of estuarine periphyton and rooted macrophytes by herbivores	Thayer et al., 1975
21	II-C	II-F	Contribution of periphyton cells and macrophyte leaf tissues to detritus pool upon death of plants	Mann, 1972
22	II-E	II-F	Contribution of phytoplankton cells to detritus pool upon death of algae	Mann, 1972
23	II-G	II-I	Predation of estuarine herbivore population by carnivores	Darnell, 1961 Riley, 1967 Caperon, 1975
24	II-F	II-H	Consumption of organic detritus by detritivore population	ZoBell and Feltham, 1942 Darnell, 1961 Darnell, 1967a,b Mann, 1972 de la Cruz, 1973
	II-H	II-F	Contribution of detritivore fecal material to detritus pool	Kuenzler, 1961 Darnell, 1967a,b
			Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of detritivores	Darnell, 1967a,b
25	II-H	II-I	Predation of estuarine detritivore population by carnivores	Darnell, 1961
26	II-I	II-F	Contribution of carnivore fecal material to detritus pool	Darnell, 1967b
			Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of carnivores	Darnell, 1967b
27	II-G	II-F	Contribution of herbivore fecal material to detritus pool	Darnell, 1967b
			Contribution of animal tissues to detritus pool upon death of herbivores	Darnell, 1967b
28	II-D	II-F	Uptake of minerals by microbial decomposers from dissolved mineral pool	Krey, 1967 Newell, 1964
			Sorption of materials from dissolved mineral pool by detritus	Darnell, 1967b
	II-F	II-D	Release of minerals and dissolved organic matter to dissolved mineral pool by:	
			(a) Extracellular digestion of detritus by microbial decomposers	Darnell, 1967b Gunnison and Alexander, 1975a&b

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 3)

Table 1 (Concluded)

Interaction No.	Direction		Description of Interaction	References
	From	To		
28 (Continued)			(b) Excretion of metabolites and excessive ions by microbial decomposers	Thimann, 1963
			(c) Autolysis of microbial decomposers and detrital tissues	Golterman, 1964
29	II-D	II-H	Uptake of minerals by detritivores--largely due to osmotic differences associated with life in salt water	Gordon, 1972
	II-H	II-D	Release of minerals and dissolved organic matter (primarily urea) by excretion of detritivores	Various physiology texts, i.e., Prosser and Brown, 1961
30	II-D	II-I	Uptake of minerals by carnivores--largely due to osmotic differences associated with life in salt water	Gordon, 1972
	II-I	II-D	Release of minerals and dissolved organic matter (primarily urea) by excretion of carnivores	Various physiology texts, i.e., Prosser and Brown, 1961
31	II-D	II-G	Uptake of minerals by herbivores--largely due to osmotic differences associated with life in salt water	Gordon, 1972
	II-G	II-D	Release of minerals and dissolved organic matter (primarily urea) by excretion of herbivores	Various physiology texts, i.e., Prosser and Brown, 1961
32	II	II-B	Sedimentation of inorganic materials from the water column to surface of bottom sediments	Darnell, 1967b Perkins, 1974
33	Several Compartments	II-B	Settling of dead materials onto surface of bottom sediments from each of the following compartments: 33a Phytoplankton (II-E) 33b Herbivores (II-G) 33c Carnivores (II-I) 33d Detritus-Microbial Decomposers (II-F) 33e Detritivores (II-H)	Day, 1952
34	II-F1	II-F2	Decomposition of detritus substrate supplies, minerals, and energy to the decomposer microflora	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957 Darnell, 1967a,b Odum and de la Cruz, 1967 Mann, 1972
	II-F2	II-F1	Contribution of metabolites and microbially released decomposition products to detritus Contribution of dead microbial cell tissue to detritus pool	Darnell, 1967a,b Mann, 1972 de la Cruz, 1973
35A	II	I	Flood tide estuary waters and attendant organisms, dissolved minerals, and particulate matter move onto marsh	Teal and Teal, 1969
35B	I	II	Ebb tide waters and attendant organisms, dissolved minerals, and particulate matter move off of marsh	Teal and Teal, 1969
36	II-A	III	Watershed adds fresh water and particulate matter to estuary	Reid, 1961 Perkins, 1974
37	I	IV	Marsh contributes gaseous products of respiration, photosynthesis, and decomposition to atmosphere	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961
	VI	I	Atmosphere contributes gaseous requirements for respiration, photosynthesis, and N-fixation to the marsh	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961 Teal and Teal, 1969
	VI	I	Rain erodes marsh at low tide	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961 Teal and Teal, 1969
38	II-A	IV	Estuarine water contributes gaseous products of respiration, photosynthesis, and decomposition to atmosphere	Kanwisher, 1963 Teal and Kanwisher, 1961
	IV	II-A	Atmosphere contributes gaseous materials needed for respiration, decomposition, photosynthesis, and N-fixation to estuarine water	Kanwisher, 1963 Teal and Kanwisher, 1961
39A	V	II-A	Saltwater intrusion moves organisms, dissolved minerals, and particulate matter into estuary from ocean	Reid, 1961
39B	II-A	V	Normal currents flowing through estuary and ebb tide estuary waters and attendant organisms, dissolved minerals, and particulate matter move into ocean although estuary traps many nutrients	Reid, 1961 Perkins, 1974
40	III	I	Springs come up in marsh	Personal communication, April 1975, John Teal, Ecologist, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA. Personal communication, April 1975, Ivan Valiela, Associate Professor, Woods Hole, MA.

enter estuaries in tidal and storm runoff or may be incorporated into the soil organic matter.

75. Both fresh and estuarine water may interact with marsh soils. Fresh water may form a true water table beneath the marsh, coming from terrestrial environments and debouching upon lower lying areas, such as tidal creeks (arrow 40). Alternatively, fresh waters may surface at various locations in the marsh forming actual springs that then run over the marsh surface to various marsh channels (Personal Communication, April 1975, John Teal, Ecologist, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Mass.; Personal Communication, April 1975, Ivan Valiela, Associate Professor, Woods Hole, Mass.). Finally, fresh water may enter from the atmosphere as rain or snow (arrow 36) and, under the proper conditions, move through the soil. Under any condition, the movement of fresh water through salt marsh soil will leach out deposited salts.

76. Arrows 35A and 35B. The ebbing and flooding of tides over the marsh surface exerts influences in addition to deposition and removal of materials. Tidal waters exchange dissolved materials with the interstitial waters of the marsh soil. The amount, rate, and form of the materials exchanged are largely determined by the composition of the soil. All other factors being the same, a sandy soil tends to have more of its void volume replaced by tidal waters than does a soil with a high organic and clay content. Thus, the plants growing in a sandy soil are more largely influenced by nutrients borne in tidal waters than are plants in a more organic-clay soil. Composition also determines the amount of air contained in marsh soil, especially at low tide.

77. Arrows 1, 2, 3, 4, and 14. Marsh grasses (compartment I-B) interact with four other salt marsh compartments (I-A, I-C, I-D, and I-E). In addition, marsh grass interacts with the tidal waters (compartment II-A of the estuarine ecosystem component) and with the atmosphere (ecosystem component IV). The marsh soil provides grass with a firm substrate in which to anchor its roots for support purposes and also supplies the grass with nutrients required for growth and maintenance [arrow 1 (I-A, I-B)]. The marsh grass, in turn, supplies the soil with inorganic and organic materials released during metabolism or

solubilized or sloughed from its roots and rhizomes [arrow 1 (I-B, I-A)]. In addition, death provides the marsh soil with plant roots and rhizomes that become a part of the soil organic matter as a consequence of various decompositional processes [also arrow 1 (I-B, I-A)]. Some marsh grass production is lost to compartment I-D, the herbivores (arrow 4). In terms of total marsh grass production, however, this is minimal and accounts for approximately 10 percent of the total production (Smalley, 1958; 1959). The remaining grass dies and becomes a part of the detritus pool in the marsh (arrow 3), or is rafted out of the marsh into the estuary by receding tides (compartment II-A, arrow 35B) to become a part of the estuarine detritus pool (compartment II-F). Epiphytic algae (compartment I-C) depend upon marsh grasses at the edges of creekbanks and other fringes of the marsh to supply the substrates to which they can attach (arrow 14). Both epiphytic and soil algae depend on an abundant supply of sunlight for their growth; therefore, in the denser areas of marsh grass growth, both of these algal groups may become shaded out (arrow 14).

78. Marsh grass exchanges with the atmosphere, ecosystem component IV, [arrow 37 (IV, I) and 37 (I, IV)] include uptake of gases needed for photosynthesis (during daylight hours) and respiration (day and night). In turn, marsh grasses release gases produced during photosynthesis and respiration and water vapor from transpiration [arrow 37 (I, IV)] back to the atmosphere.

79. Whether the soil algae (compartment I-C) attach to the soil surface or burrow into the soil matrix, an interaction is still indicated (arrow 2). Other algal species attach to both soil and marsh grasses (arrow 14). Soil algae undergo gaseous exchanges with the atmosphere [arrow 37 (I, IV) and 37 (IV, I)]. However, most algal nutrients are obtained from flood tide waters (35A) into which metabolic wastes are eliminated and carried away by ebbing tides (35B).

80. Soil algae are an important source of energy and nutrient input into the marsh herbivore and detritus compartments (compartments I-D and I-E, respectively) by grazing (arrow 5) or by death (arrow 6). Several of the marsh invertebrates obtain a major portion of their food,

either from the soil and epiphytic algae or from a mixture of these algae and the detritus located on the marsh soil surface (Day et al., 1973).

81. The detritus-microbial decomposer compartment (compartment I-E, sections 1 and 2) is a key compartment, because it interacts with all other compartments on the marsh as well as with portions of several other ecosystem components. Although all of the compartments that house biotic components of the marsh can contribute to the pool of detritus (arrows 3, 6, 8, 9, 11, and 12), the largest source of detritus is marsh grass that, in turn, is the largest producer on the marsh. Detritus can be consumed by the marsh detritivore population [arrow 9 (I-E, I-F)] or completely degraded into resistant materials that subsequently can become a part of the marsh soil [arrow 13 (I-E, I-A)]. However, an estimated 50 percent of the production will be exported to the estuary (arrow 35B), where it becomes a part of the detritus compartment (II-F) or settles to the bottom of the estuary (arrow 33d) to become deposited in the estuarine sediment (compartment II-B) (Teal, 1962; Day et al., 1973). Alternatively, this detritus may be carried out of the estuary by oceanward ebbing tides (39B) or be redeposited elsewhere on the marsh by subsequent flood tides (35A). The marsh-based detritus can also interact with the atmosphere component at low tide (arrow 37) by taking up oxygen required for aerobic decompositional processes (37 IV, I) and releasing carbon dioxide (37 I, IV).

82. The marsh herbivore compartment (I-D) has few direct interactions with the other marsh compartments. Herbivores do exert an indirect action on nitrogen supply through consumption of protein in grasses. Herbivores obtain food by grazing on marsh grasses (I-B) or algae (I-C) (arrows 4 and 5). Losses from the compartment occur through predation by carnivores (arrow 7), death (arrow 8), or defecation (arrow 8). The detritivore compartment also has few direct interactions with other marsh compartments. While detritus is the food source for these organisms [arrow 9 (I-E, I-F)], many of the organisms that are not consumed by predators (arrow 10) will themselves contribute to the detritus pool [arrow 9 (I-F, I-E)] either through their own death or by waste product production.

83. Marsh carnivores (compartment I-G) depend on both the herbivores and the detritivores as sources of prey (arrows 7 and 10, respectively). The carnivores make minor contributions to the detritus-microbial decomposer compartment either through death or defecation (arrow 11). There is also some intracompartmental predation (cannibalism, consumption of lower carnivores by higher carnivores).

84. Reference is again made to Table 1 for the interactions occurring in Figure 3, the Estuary Ecosystem Component. While many of the interactions that occur in the estuary are identical to their marsh-based counterparts, the difference brought about by the suspension of many of the estuarine compartments in the water column is sufficient to warrant a separate consideration of the estuary.

85. Compartment II-B, the Estuarine Sediment, contains all the particulate matter located in the bottom (bed, basin) of the estuary. All those suspended inorganic materials are considered as suspended sediments (that portion of compartment II-B retained in estuarine water by action of arrow 32 (II-B, II-A)). All suspended organic materials are considered as detritus (II-F).

86. The estuarine sediment receives inputs from several estuary components. Unsuspended detritus settles to the bottom of the estuary to serve as a nutrient and energy source for communities of the estuarine sediment [arrows 15 (II-C, II-B), 33a, b, c, d, and e]. Additional input to the estuarine sediment includes settling of inorganic suspended sediments from the water column [arrow 32 (II-A, II-B)]. Suspended sediments may be recruited from upstream in the watershed (arrow 36), by tidal and storm scouring from marsh surfaces (arrow 35B), through wind transport [arrow 38 (IV, II-A)], and, to a lesser extent, from flood tide input of oceanic debris (arrow 39A). Alternatively, suspended sediments may also originate by resuspension of estuarine sediments [arrow 32 (II-B, II-A)]. A final source of sediment materials is the formation of crystalline particulates from dissolved minerals (compartment II-D) followed by sedimentation of these materials from the water column [arrow 17 (II-D, II-B)].

87. The estuarine sediment has intimate relationships with the

periphyton and submerged rooted macrophyte compartment (II-C). The sediment provides a support medium for the macrophytes and an attachment surface for the periphyton [arrow 15 (II-B, II-C)]. Whether the interstitial water in the estuarine sediment also provides macrophytes with nutrients in situ has not been established, although in vitro studies do indicate that macrophytes take up nutrients via this route (McRoy and Barsdate, 1970). Finally, both submerged macrophytes and periphyton may contribute particulate matter to the organic matter of the estuarine sediment [arrow 15 (II-C, II-B)].

88. The periphyton and submerged rooted macrophytes compartment (II-C) has four interactions with estuarine compartments other than those already enumerated for the sediment. Periphyton and leaf sections of submerged rooted macrophytes are able to take up needed nutrients and dissolved gases from the dissolved mineral pool [arrow 16 (II-D, II-C)]. In turn, these organisms resupply the dissolved mineral pool with organic matter and gaseous products resulting from their metabolic and photosynthetic processes [arrow 16 (II-C, II-D)]. Constituents of compartment II-C also supply (a) a source of estuarine-sediment based vegetation for herbivores (arrow 20) and (b) one of two estuarine-based sources of vegetative detritus (arrow 21).

89. The dissolved mineral pool (compartment II-D) is one of the principal focal points in the chemical environment of the estuary. All estuarine biotic and abiotic agents have some degree of interaction with this compartment. While all biotic agents take up at least some minerals from the pool [arrows 16, (II-D, II-C); 18 (II-D, II-E); 28 (II-D, II-F); 29 (II-D, II-H); 30 (II-D, II-I); and 31 (II-D, II-G)] and excrete some minerals or organic compounds back into the pool [arrows 16 (II-C, II-D); 18 (II-E, II-D); 28 (II-F, II-D); 29 (II-H, II-D); 30 (II-I, II-D); and 31 (II-G, II-D)], the abiotic agents also all make some contribution, albeit a passive role rather than an active one. Dissolved materials may be recruited by transport of mineral-bearing waters into the estuary (arrows 35B, 36, and 39A), by solubilization of gases from the atmosphere [arrow 38 (IV, IIA)], or by solubilization of minerals from either solid materials in the sediment [arrow 17 (II-B, II-D)],

or from solid materials brought into the estuary from upstream (arrow 36), from the marsh (arrow 35B), the atmosphere [arrow 38 (IV, II-A)], or the ocean (arrow 39A). Dissolved minerals may also be lost from the pool either after the formation of solid precipitates or flocculates or sorption to existing solids. These materials may then be moved out of the estuary by transport (arrows 35a, 39B) or sedimentation [arrow 32 (II-A, II-B)]. Alternatively, dissolved gases may diffuse into the atmosphere [arrow 38 (II-A, IV)].

90. Phytoplankton (compartment II-E) forms the second compartment of estuarine-based primary producers. Productivity of this compartment is governed not only by the level of nutrients available to it from Compartment II-D via arrow 18 (II-D, II-E), but also by the density of particulate materials in the water column from compartments II-B (suspended sediments), II-F (detritus), and even other phytoplankton, each of which may exert a shading influence with a resultant decrease in phytoplankton productivity. These same factors will influence the growth of the periphyton and rooted macrophytes (compartment II-C). Phytoplankton may be recruited from organisms brought into the estuary from upstream (arrow 36), from the oceans (arrow 39A), or from the marsh (arrow 35B). However, the bulk of the phytoplankton is composed of autochthonous species that multiply in the estuary.

91. Phytoplankton losses may occur through herbivore grazing (arrow 19), by death and subsequent loss of material to detrital pools (arrow 22), or by settling of phytoplankton cells to the bottom of the estuary (arrow 33a). The phytoplankton may also lose some of its cellular constituents as a result of the solubilization of cell wall material, loss of internal photosynthate by leaching or lysis, or by actual excretion of dissolved substances [arrow 18 (II-E, II-D)] (Gunnison and Alexander, 1975a and b).

92. Compartment II-F, the detritus-microbial decomposer compartment, functions in the same manner as its marsh counterpart (denoted by arrow 34), except that it has several other sources in addition to marsh grasses and soil and epiphytic algae including: periphyton and rooted macrophytes [arrows 21 and 33d (II-B, II-F)], phytoplankton (arrow 22),

herbivores (arrow 27), detritivores [arrow 24 (II-H, II-F)], and carnivores [arrow 26 (II-I, II-F)]. In addition, ebbing tides and storm runoff flush a large amount of marsh detritus into the estuary (arrow 35B). This can represent a considerable proportion of the total detrital material in compartment II-F (Teal, 1962; Day et al., 1973; de la Cruz, 1973).

93. Detritus also has close ties with the dissolved mineral pool (compartment II-D). The microbial decomposers may remove needed nutrients and heavy metals plus dissolved gases from the mineral pool [arrow 28 (II-D, II-F)]. Additionally, the detritus portion itself may sorb many materials from the pool [also arrow 28 (II-D, II-F)]. The detritus decomposition processes add many products back into the mineral pool including dissolved gases and other metabolic wastes produced by metabolic activities of the decomposers, products solubilized during the extracellular decomposition of the detritus, and soluble cellular materials released upon autolysis of the decomposers [arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)].

94. Detritus may be lost from the system by one of four possible mechanisms including: (a) complete decomposition to soluble materials [via arrow 34 to arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)], (b) sedimentation to the bottom of the estuary (arrow 33d), (c) consumption by detritivores [arrow 24 (II-F, II-H)], and (d) flushing from the estuary into the ocean (arrow 39B). It is possible for flood tides to place some detritus back onto the marsh (arrow 35A), however, the amount of organic matter accumulated as peat per year is approximately two orders of magnitude lower than the net production of marsh grasses (Personal Communication, April 1975, Ivan Valiela, Associate Professor, University of Boston Marine Program, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Mass.). Moreover, Teal reports that he and his colleagues have measured significant capture of waterborne detritus by marshes (Personal Communication, April 1975, John Teal, Ecologist, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Mass.). Finally, a marsh having deep pools that can trap organic detritus may result in detritus of estuarine or coastal origins (such as from eel grasses) being retained in amounts albeit in amounts less than the export of Spartina detritus (Woodwell et al., 1973). Most of the detritus remains entrained in

Compartment II-F, moving back and forth with the tides until it is either decomposed, consumed, or sedimented (Personal Communication, December 1975, John Hall, Microbiologist, University of Georgia Marine Institute, Sapelo Island, Georgia).

95. The estuarine herbivore compartment (II-G) includes those animals that feed on periphyton, rooted macrophytes (II-C via arrow 20), and phytoplankton (II-E via arrow 19). In turn, herbivores serve as prey for carnivores (II-I via arrow 23) and, upon death, as a source of detritus (II-F via arrow 27) or other organic matter in the estuarine sediment (arrow 36b). While some herbivores, particularly algae-consuming protozoa, do take up minerals from the mineral pool [arrow 31 (II-D, II-G)], the larger interaction between these compartments occurs in the reverse direction [arrow 31 (II-G, II-D) through excretion of soluble organic and inorganic wastes.

96. Estuarine detritivores (compartment II-H) obtain most of their nutrition from the detritus compartment [arrow 24 (II-F, II-H)] and may obtain supplemental nutrients from the dissolved mineral pool [arrow 29 (II-D, II-H)]. The detritivore population may lose many members to predation (arrow 25), to death and decomposition [arrow 24 (II-H, II-F)], and to death and sedimentation (arrow 33e). Many detritivores, however, mature and migrate out of the estuary, either upstream into fresh water [arrow 36 (II-A, III)] or out into the ocean (arrow 39B). While the predominant teleological reason for such migration is to permit the species involved to spawn, few of the adults of any migrating species return to the estuary. Thus, much of the production is lost from the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem and only a small portion of this returns in the form of new progeny (Perkins, 1974).

97. Carnivores (compartment II-I) migrate from the estuary to the watershed [arrow 36 (II-A, III)] or out into the ocean (arrow 39B). A few carnivores are lost to compartmental self-predation (not described), through death to detritus (arrow 26), or through death and sedimentation to the estuarine sediment (arrow 33c). While some substances (principally oxygen for respiration) are taken from compartment II-D [arrow 30 (II-D, II-I)], more of the materials are obtained from food; thus, the larger interaction described by arrow 30 runs from II-I to II-D.

Finally, the carnivores also contribute to the detritus pool through their waste products (feces) via arrow 26.

Summary of Function of Compartmental Model
of the Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystem

98. The general compartmental model of the marsh-estuarine ecosystem describes the predominant constituents and processes in existing marshes. Since newly developing marshes are somewhat unpredictable, no attempt has been made to characterize them here. The following discussion places the previously described compartmental model within the context of a functional ecosystem.

99. Marsh soil (I-A) and the dissolved mineral pool (II-D brought in with flooding tide waters 35A) interact with air (IV) to supply minerals to the marsh grasses (I-B) and the soil and epiphytic algae (I-C) - the primary producers of the salt marsh ecosystem component (I). Marsh grasses and marsh algae are a food source for herbivores (I-D) while alive (arrows 4 and 5). However, the bulk of the production of these compartments dies and becomes a part of the marsh detritus pool (I-E by way of arrows 3 and 6). Detritus (I-E1) is continuously being degraded and modified (arrow 12) by the microflora (I-E2) into forms that are either utilized by marsh detritivore species [I-F by way of arrow 9 (I-E, I-F)] or are further decomposed into marsh soil organic matter [I-A by arrow 13 (I-E, I-A)]. Detritus that has been decomposed to small enough particles can also be suspended and carried off by outgoing tides (35B) to form a part of the estuarine detritus pool (II-F), where it is consumed by detritivores, settles to the bottom of the estuary as organic deposits (arrow 33d), or is mineralized [II-D by way of arrows 34 and 28 (II-F, II-D)].

100. Both the marsh herbivore and detritivore species (compartments I-D and I-F) can provide food for marsh carnivores (I-G by way of arrows 7 and 10). After death, the herbivores, detritivores, and carnivores become a part of the detritus compartment [I-E via arrows 8, 9 (I-F, I-E), and 11, respectively]. These marsh organisms may also serve as prey for those estuarine carnivores (II-I) that move onto and off the marsh with

each respective flood (35A) and ebb (35B) tide.

101. The estuarine ecosystem component has both benthic (II-C) and free-floating (II-E) sources of primary production.* While the estuarine sediment (II-B) is a source of nutrients for those plants that are intimately associated with it [II-C via arrow 15 (II-B, II-C)], the dissolved mineral pool [II-D by way of 16 (II-D, II-C) and 18 (II-D, II-E)] is a major source of nutrients for other primary producers. As was true for the marsh, the estuarine plants may either be grazed by herbivores (II-G via arrows 20 and 19), or the plants may die and become part of the estuarine detritus pool (II-F by way of arrows 21 and 22). Detritus may be consumed by detritivores (II-H via 24 II-F, II-H) or decompose (arrow 34) to soluble materials that become a part of the dissolved mineral pool (II-D via 28 II-F, II-D). Detritivores and herbivores are each preyed upon by carnivores (II-I via arrows 23 and 25) and all three types of animals can become sources of detritus upon death [arrows 24 (II-H, II-F), 26, and 27].

102. While the major importance of the estuary with respect to the marsh includes tidal inundation and nutrient input (both dissolved and particulates) (arrow 35A), the major input of the marsh to the estuary is in the form of detritus and, to a lesser extent, dissolved minerals (arrow 35B). Exact contributions of marsh detritus to the total estuary detritus pool remain undefined, but the marsh contribution is large. An estimated net 3.08 metric tons/ha/yr of detritus is removed from the Georgia salt marshes (de la Cruz, 1971). Thus, the marshes play an important role in the contribution of this organic fertilizer to the estuaries by means of tidal transport (arrow 35B).

* The exact origin of estuarine phytoplankton is controversial; while most algae can multiply in the water column, large contributions to the phytoplankton can be made by resuspension of organisms from the bottom of the estuary; i.e., they are either benthic or neritic forms. For a more thorough discussion, see Patrick, R. 1967.

PART IV: GENERAL OUTLINES OF MINERAL CYCLING AS
DESCRIBED BY THE GENERAL COMPARTMENTAL MODEL
OF THE MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEM

Nutrient Cycles

Carbon cycle

103. The movement of carbon has been studied for many years in both aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems (Odum, 1959; Woodwell and Pecan, 1973). Although carbon possesses several idiosyncrasies of its own, its movement in the marsh-estuarine ecosystem does follow a trend paralleling that found for this mineral in other ecosystems.

104. The general carbon cycle for any terrestrial or aquatic ecosystem may be described as follows. Primary producers (plants, algae) fix inorganic carbon (carbon dioxide) taken from the atmosphere or from water through the photosynthetic process to form organic compounds. Some of the materials thus obtained are used by the primary producer in biochemical maintenance (respiration), some are used for the formation of plant structural materials, and some are stored. Primary consumers (herbivores) feed on the primary producers. While some material is passed through the primary consumer gut unused, the remainder is assimilated (converted to animal carbon) and used for maintenance (respiration), the formation of various structural components, or is stored. Secondary consumers (carnivores) consume primary consumers and use carbon thus obtained for their respiration, growth, and storage. Any organism not eaten by another organism will ultimately die and be consumed by decomposer microorganisms. Decomposer microorganisms convert detritus to CO_2 by way of their metabolic activity (respiration). The rate of decomposition is dependent on the ambient environmental conditions and the specific properties of the substrate being degraded.

105. The cycle of carbon dioxide in the marsh-estuarine ecosystem is the same as that just described, except that the amount of marsh grass material that dies and is decomposed by the microflora (arrow 12) is large in relation to the amount of material consumed by the herbivores (arrow 4). As a result, a large portion of the marsh-estuarine

carbon cycle is built around the utilization of decomposing grasses (detritus). Detritus-feeding organisms (Detritivores, compartments I-F and II-H) obtain their carbon by digesting the decomposer microflora (compartments I-E2 and II-F2), the decomposition by-products sorbed to detrital particles (compartments I-E1 and II-F1), and the entire detritus particle itself. Carnivores then prey on the detritivores as well as on the herbivores (arrows 7, 10, 23, and 25).

106. Table 2 presents some examples of production values attained by members of each of the major biotic compartments in terms of carbon/ m^2 /year. Values for detritus and the decomposer microflora are omitted but will be considered in following sections. While there is a large amount of variation even among the same species of primary producers listed in Table 2, it is apparent that the primary producers as a group have a greater productivity per unit area than do the consumers. What is not apparent from Table 2 but would be evident from a more extensive listing of primary producers is that marsh grasses attain production values among the highest in any ecosystem. While the other rooted macrophytes may approach the value obtained for grass production on a per unit area basis, submerged, rooted macrophytes rarely encounter the acres of optimal underwater area required to begin to rival the total production values achieved by the marsh grasses (Woodwell et al., 1973).

107. Marsh grasses are the most significant primary producers in the ecosystem. Approximately 10 percent of this production is consumed by the marsh herbivores (arrow 4). The remaining 90 percent moves into the detritus category (arrow 3) upon the death of the plant (Smalley, 1958). The rate and extent of detritus decomposition (arrow 12) varies with many environmental factors and with the source of the detritus, but values of 40 to 60 percent of new grass material added to the pool per year are not uncommon (de la Cruz, 1965, 1973). The amount of detritus consumed on the marsh by detritivores [arrow 9 (I-E, I-F)] has not been determined. The rate of movement of detritus from marsh to estuary (arrow 35B) is also poorly understood; estimates approaching 50 percent of the detritus produced per year have been obtained (Teal, 1962; Day et al., 1973; Banus et al., 1975). Values of 3.08 and 3.27

Table 2

Examples of Net Annual Production Rates for Each of the Major Marsh-Estuarine Compartments

Trophic Level, Compartment No. and Name	Representative Examples	Production Rates (g C:m ² :yr)*	Geographic Location	References
<u>Primary producers</u>				
I-B Marsh grasses	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	460**	Barataria Bay, La.	Kirby, 1971
	<u>Juncus Roemerianus</u>	1153 503† 628	Sapelo Island, Ga. North Carolina Mississippi	Odum and Fanning, 1973 Waits, 1967 de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1974
I-C Soil and epiphytic algae	Soil algae	32-40††	Delaware	Gallagher and Daiber, 1974
	Epiphytic algae	16††	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Benthic algae	148	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
	<u>Zostera marina</u> (rooted macrophytes)	2200-4000‡	Rhode Island	Nixon and Oviatt, 1972
II-E Phytoplankton	Mixed populations	204††	Long Island Sound, N.Y.	Riley, 1956
		167	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
<u>Primary consumers</u>				
I-D Herbivores (marsh)				
Insects	<u>Orchelimum</u>	1.25 (adults)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Smalley, 1958
	Micro-anthropods	0.12-0.14	North Carolina	McMahn et al., 1971
Snails	<u>Littorina irrorata</u>	10	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Smalley, 1958
	Average of <u>Neritina reclivata</u> , <u>Melampus bidentita</u> , <u>Littorina irrorata</u>	9.8	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
II-G Herbivores (estuarine)	Menhaden (<u>Brevoortia patronus</u>)	N/A	Lake Pontchartrain, La.	Darnell, 1961
	Striped mullet (<u>Mugil cephalus</u>)	N/A	Lake Pontchartrain, La.	Darnell, 1961
<u>Secondary consumers</u>				
I-G Carnivores (marsh)	Raccoons (<u>Procyon lotor</u>)	0.0084	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
II-I Carnivores (estuary)	Bay anchovy (<u>Anchoa hepsetus</u>)	N/A	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
	Bull shark (<u>Carcharinus leucas</u>)	N/A	Lake Pontchartrain, La.	Darnell, 1961
<u>Detritus feeders</u>				
I-F Detritivores (marsh)	Crabs (<u>Uca pugnax</u> , <u>Sesarma</u>)	3.1-12.2 4.8-7.4	Sapelo Island, Ga. Sapelo Island, Ga.	Teal, 1958
	II-H Detritivores (marsh)	Brown shrimp (<u>Penaeus aztecus</u>)	0-0.68725 (0.74 g organic matter:m ² :yr)	Barataria Bay, La.
Zooplankton (principally <u>Acartia tonsa</u>)		20 g organic matter:m ² :yr	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973

* Underlined values are biomass in g dry weight/m² rather than gC:m²:day or gC/m². These are given when no data are available for production. Productivity may be estimated by multiplying biomass by 2 in many cases (Day et al., 1973).

** Data obtained by taking 40 percent of the net annual production expressed as g dry weight:m²:yr (Burkholder, 1956).

† Data obtained by taking 37 percent of the net annual production expressed as g dry weight:m²:yr (de la Cruz, 1974).

†† Data obtained by dividing net annual production in g dry weight:m²:yr by 2.5.

‡ This value is expressed as g dry weight:m²:yr.

metric tons/ha/year have been quoted by de la Cruz (1971) for movement of marsh grass detritus into Georgia estuaries and Mangrove detritus into Everglades estuaries, respectively. According to de la Cruz (1973), this corresponds to the 2-20 mg carbon/liter value for detritus found by Odum and de la Cruz (1967) in water discharged from a Sapelo Island, Georgia, tidal creek. The exact contribution of marsh grass detritus to total estuarine detritus (compartment II-F) remains unquantified. Current information does not permit differentiation between the discharge of marsh production to estuaries in the form of particulate matter from the movement of production out of marshes and into estuaries in the form of living organisms. Detrital material, whether of marsh or estuarine origin, is primarily responsible for the murky quality of water in many coastal bays and sounds (de la Cruz, 1973). The fact that detritus is an important source of carbon for estuarine detritivores [arrow 24 (II-F, II-H)] is somewhat better substantiated. Detritus constitutes over 90 percent of the total seston in the estuary (de la Cruz, 1973). Zooplankton, such as Acartia tonsa, which would ordinarily obtain the bulk of their nutrition from phytoplankton in less turbid estuaries, have been observed feeding almost entirely on detritus as do many benthic scavengers (Darnell, 1961). The carnivorous fishes that depend upon estuaries as nursery grounds for their young depend heavily on prey (compartment II-H) that obtain all or a substantial part of their nutrition from detritus. While the exact carbon flow (or any other nutrient) in this regime has not been quantified, it is felt that a large percentage of the carbon that moves from the estuary to the ocean (arrow 39B) is in packaged form as living organisms (Personal Communication, May 1975, Armando A. de la Cruz, Professor, Department of Zoology, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State, Miss.).

108. The details covered by recent investigators have included the amount of dissolved organic carbon released from standing dead marsh grasses to tidal waters (arrow 35B) (Personal Communication, John Hall, Microbiologist, University of Georgia Marine Institute, Sapelo Island, Ga.; Personal Communication, John Gallagher, Plant Ecologist, University of Georgia Marine Institute, Sapelo Island, Ga.), the amount of organic

matter being produced by the roots of the various dominant marsh grasses [arrow 1 (I-B, I-A)] (Gallagher, 1974), and the dissolved organic carbon released by the decompositional processes occurring in the marsh soil (arrow 35B) (Pomeroy, 1975). The degree of detail is too complex for the present report.

Nitrogen cycle

109. The nitrogen cycle is very complex; however, it is also nearly complete because of the many self-regulating feedback mechanisms that are present (Odum, 1959). In addition, the nitrogen cycle relies heavily upon microbial processes. Microorganisms are responsible for the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen into forms usable by other organisms (ammonium, nitrate). Microorganisms also denitrify, i.e., convert nitrogen back into atmospheric nitrogen (see Alexander, 1961). Higher living organisms are basically parasitic rather than an essential feature of the cycle (Thimann, 1963). Although specific details of the biochemical rates and mechanisms are still being established, the general pathways of the nitrogen cycle have been known for quite some time (Odum, 1959; Alexander, 1961; and Thimann, 1963).

110. Molecular nitrogen in the air or dissolved in water is converted to organic nitrogen, ammonium, and nitrate by the nitrogen-fixing bacteria and algae. Nitrates and ammonium are taken up by the various primary producers and incorporated into the protoplasm and other cellular materials as organic nitrogen compounds. These compounds are then passed to the animals through the feed chain as described for carbon with appropriate changes from plant to animal compounds being made in the process. All dead organisms and the wastes of living organisms are subject to degradation by the decomposer microorganisms. As a result of their activities, the decomposers release various low-molecular weight nitrogenous compounds (amino acids, purines, pyrimidines, etc.). Included among the decomposers are the ammonifying bacteria that remove nitrogenous groups from the low-molecular weight compounds and release them to the environment in the form of ammonium. Ammonium can then either be taken up and incorporated by the primary producers, or it may be attacked by the nitrifying bacteria and oxidized first to nitrite

and then to nitrate. Nitrate may also be used by the primary producers, or it may be taken up by denitrifying bacteria and reduced back to molecular nitrogen, thus completing the cycle.

111. Nitrogen enters the marsh-estuarine ecosystem by two different mechanisms. Molecular nitrogen may be fixed by the various microbial inhabitants of the marshes and estuaries. Although little or no fixation has been observed in the estuarine tidal water column (Whitney et al., 1975), rates up to $4 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:hr}$ have been observed in estuarine sediments (Brooks et al., 1971).* By contrast, approximately $100 \mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:hr}$ was found to be fixed during early summer on the surfaces of salt marsh plots (Van Raalte et al., 1974). This amount was felt by the investigators concerned to be sufficient to account for the nitrogen contained in the maximum standing crops of grass in the plots (1.5 g N/m^2). Teal reports that he and his associates have found rates approaching $500 \mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:hr}$ for bacterial fixation associated with Spartina roots and up to $250 \mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:hr}$ for algal fixation on the marsh surface (averaged over a month); however, because of the larger coverage of grasses, bacterial fixation is an order of magnitude more important (Personal Communication, July 1977, John Teal, Ecologist, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute, Woods Holes, Mass).

112. The alternate mechanism by which nitrogen enters the marsh-estuarine ecosystem is by transportation in river and tidal waters from the upstream watershed. Particulate nitrogenous compounds or other nitrogenous materials sorbed to the various suspended sediments may be carried into the estuary. These may then be deposited on the marsh surface by the tides. However, no data are available on the amount of nitrogen transported in this manner. Nitrogen may also be brought into the estuary in solution by the incoming streams and subsequently carried into the marsh by the tides. Deposition of particulate-bound nitrogen is an important fertilization mechanism for the marsh grasses in well-established areas (Teal and Teal, 1969). Dissolved nitrogen is probably more important to marsh grasses in newly established areas where

* Computed from the $37 \mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:yr}$ value given by Brooks et al. (1971).

sandy soil permits easy penetration of the fertile tidal waters. While no data are available for the nitrate or ammonium concentrations of flood or ebb tide waters, Ho and Lane (1973) hypothesized that the waters moving up onto the marshes will have a higher nitrate content while those waters departing the marsh will have more ammonium, primarily as a result of exchanges with interstitial water in the marsh soil and the estuarine sediments near the marsh. The estuaries themselves have the requisite microflora to carry out nitrification of ammonium and, indeed, this process has been measured in the Scheldt Estuary in Belgium (Billen, 1974). The marsh surfaces are actually optimized for the removal of nitrogen by the denitrification process, having an aerobic surface layer overlying an anaerobic lower layer (Engler and Patrick, 1974; Engler et al., 1976).

113. Within the marsh itself, nitrogen appears to be a limiting factor for primary production as is the case with the adjacent coastal waters (Ryther and Dunstan, 1971). Several investigators have reported that the addition of fertilizers containing nitrogen to marsh plot surfaces stimulated the growth of marsh grasses, whereas the addition of phosphorus-containing fertilizer did not (Sullivan and Daiber, 1974; Gallagher, 1975a; Patrick and Delaune, 1975). Relative to carbon, the actual nitrogen content of the marsh grasses is very low. For example, on a percent dry weight basis, Spartina alterniflora contains 40.77 percent carbon, but only 2.12 percent nitrogen (Burkholder, 1956). Juncus roemerianus contains even less nitrogen with its readings being 36.60 percent carbon and 0.46 percent nitrogen (de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1974). Brannon (1973) showed that nitrogen content varies seasonally in Spartina alterniflora in southern Louisiana and averages 2.8 percent. It is apparent that the nitrogen contents of the marsh grasses, which form the bulk of the detritus, cause the vegetative component entering the detritus-microbial decomposer compartment (compartment I-E) to be nitrogen-poor.

114. While the flow rate of nitrogen from detritus to detritivore has not been measured, it is evident from the preceding documentation that detritus is a reasonably good source of organic nitrogen for the

detritivores and, therefore, the detritus-based food chain. The exact function of the marsh-estuarine ecosystem relative to nitrogen cycling has not been completely defined, but the tendency of some investigators is to look upon this ecosystem as a sink rather than a source of nitrogen, at least for the southeastern United States coastal area (Haines, 1975). Incoming fresh water (arrow 36) does contain substantial levels of nitrogen, especially as nitrate; however, by the time the freshwater input has reached coastal waters, it has been relatively depleted of nitrogen (Haines, 1975). By contrast recent data of Teal and Valiela (In press) and Valiela et al. (Report in preparation) show very large exports of nitrogen (Personal Communication, June 1977, Ivan Valiela, Associate Professor, Boston University Marine Program, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Mass.).

Phosphorus cycle

115. The intricacies of the phosphorus cycle are far less complex than those of the nitrogen cycle. Yet, because phosphorus has its source and sink in the lithosphere rather than in the atmosphere, "the phosphorus cycle is far more elusive than the nitrogen cycle and needs more definition for field personnel." Much of the phosphorus not actively tied up in living protoplasm tends to be returned to the lithosphere.

116. The majority of the phosphorus compounds in the lithosphere exist as inorganic phosphate (Odum, 1959; Alexander, 1961). Erosion of phosphate-bearing rocks releases phosphorus to the surrounding environment as dissolved phosphate borne in the various waters. Dissolved inorganic phosphate is taken up by primary producers and microorganisms. From here it may be passed up the food chain as organic phosphates. Organic phosphate can be excreted back into the dissolved phosphate pool by any member of the food chain, including the primary producers themselves. Phosphate retained within the biota is released by autolysis or upon death by the activities of the decomposer microflora organisms, unless that phosphate has been bound up in such poorly decomposable structures as bones and teeth. Much of the dissolved phosphate finally ends up in the sea where it may be deposited in shallow sediments or

lost to deep sediments. Barring geologic uplift, materials bound in deep sediments stand a rare chance of being placed into circulation again (Odum, 1959).

117. Phosphorus enters the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem by the same transport mechanisms as nitrogen. Fresh water entering the estuary from the watershed carries phosphate into the estuary in both particulate and dissolved form (arrow 36). Input levels of dissolved phosphate into estuaries range from 1 to 10 $\mu\text{g-atoms}/\ell$ as phosphate-phosphorus (Ketchum, 1969; Hobbie et al., 1975). However, no information is available on the amount of particulate phosphorus entering estuaries. The range of dissolved phosphorus concentrations in the brackish water zones seems to be within 1.20 to 3.0 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$ as phosphate-phosphorus (compartment II-D) (Pomeroy et al., 1965; Ketchum, 1967).

118. The phosphorus requirements of marsh-estuarine vascular plants, both submerged and intertidal, seem to be met in much the same manner. Eelgrasses (Zostera sp., compartment II-C) obtain their phosphates by pumping them up from the sediments (McRoy and Barsdate, 1970). An amount more than sufficient to meet the demands of the plant is obtained. Consequently, excess phosphates are excreted into the surrounding sea water [arrow 16 (II-C, II-D)] (McRoy and Barsdate, 1970). Similar results were found for the marsh grass Spartina alterniflora by Reimold (1972). He found that this plant can take up phosphate from as deep as 100 cm within the marsh soil [arrow 1 (I-A, I-B)]. Excess phosphates were found to be excreted onto the surfaces of the marsh leaves and removed from there by tidal waters at high tides (arrow 35B).

119. The phosphorus content of marsh grasses (compartment I-B), like that of nitrogen, is very low relative to carbon. For example, while Spartina alterniflora contains 40.77 percent carbon, the phosphorus value is only 0.25 percent (Burkholder, 1956). Juncus roemerianus, which has a carbon content of 36.60 percent, possesses 0.24 percent phosphorus (de la Cruz, 1973). While such values are low, the actual phosphate levels available to the marsh grasses do not seem to be limiting to their growth (Gallagher, 1975a; Patrick and Delaune, 1975). The concentration of phosphorus in algal cells (compartment I-C)

generally seems to run between 10^{-8} and 10^{-6} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$ (Franzew, 1932; Lund, 1950; Goldberg et al., 1951; Mackereth, 1953; and Al Kholy, 1956).

120. Information on the phosphorus contents of marsh soil (compartment I-A) is generally unavailable in the literature. Ranwell (1972) found phosphorus levels from 0.07 to 0.11 percent of oven-dry weight of newly accreted silt in a Spartina anglica marsh (England). Chabreck (1972) examined the coastal soils of Louisiana. He found that the average phosphorus contents of soils of the saline vegetative type was 0.08 ppt (g P/g of soil) with a range of 0.06 to 0.13 ppt. By contrast, the same investigation was done on soils of the brackish vegetative type and yielded an average of 0.04 ppt of phosphorus within a range of 0.01 to 0.10 ppt (Chabreck, 1972). A study done on Pamlico Estuary sediments (compartment II-B) yielded much lower values ranging from 1.6 ppb ($\mu\text{g P/g}$ of sediment) in fresh water to 0.3 ppb in brackish water (Upchurch et al., 1974). However, the exchange values between estuarine sediments and water seem to be rather high with sediments releasing phosphate to the water when water is low in initial phosphate levels (below 1 $\mu\text{g/l}$); however, when water is high in initial phosphate (greater than 1 $\mu\text{g PO}_4/\text{l}$), sediment tends to take up excess phosphate (Pomeroy et al., 1965).

121. Phytoplankton in the estuary (compartment II-E) both take up and release phosphorus. Although the uptake form [arrow 18 (II-D, II-E)] is inorganic phosphate, the release [arrow 18 (II-E, II-D)] seems to occur in the organic form (Coffin et al., 1949; Ketchum and Corwin, 1965; Satomi and Pomeroy, 1965; and Ketchum, 1967). Generally, phosphorus would not seem to be limiting to phytoplankton at the concentrations usually found in estuarine waters. Phosphorus is one of the most dynamic of the major biological elements, and many organisms assist in its turnover (Pomeroy et al., 1963; Johannes, 1965; Lean, 1973; and Peters and Rigler, 1973). Turnover times reported for inorganic phosphate in the literature are remarkably rapid, varying from 1 hr in an algal bloom in an estuary to 34 hr in coastal water during daylight hours (Pomeroy, 1963).

122. Whether the marsh-estuarine ecosystems serve as traps for

phosphorus moving through them or tend to release phosphorus to water moving out to the coastal waters remains somewhat controversial (Haines, 1975; Hobbie et al., 1975). The lack of a biological phosphorus limitation in coastal waters obtained from fresh waters that have moved through the marsh-estuarine ecosystem strongly suggests that at least a nonlimiting level of phosphorus is reaching the coastal waters (Haines, 1975).

Sulfur cycle

123. Although the cycling of sulfur has been well studied in terrestrial ecosystems and is currently receiving much attention in freshwater watersheds, very little attention or research has been focused upon sulfur in the marsh-estuarine ecosystem. Despite this fact, sulfur is an important nutrient for biological systems, especially as a component of the amino acids cystine and cysteine (White et al., 1964). However, too much sulfur can, in the proper chemical form, be quite lethal.

124. The cycle of sulfur is complex and involves many reactions and oxidation states. The availability of this material is strongly influenced by biogeochemical processes. Sulfur is taken up from the environment by the primary producers as sulfate and from here it is reduced and combined with carbon materials as organic sulfur. Organic sulfur may be passed along the food chain in normal fashion or eliminated as a waste material along the way. Organic sulfur in waste products or dead organisms is released first as free organic sulfide, then oxidized to thiosulfate, polythionates, sulfur, polysulfurs, and sulfate. The forms present are dependent upon whether the environment is anaerobic or aerobic, and the amounts vary rapidly in time and space. The inorganic forms of sulfate or sulfide are further subject to reduction or oxidation, depending upon the environment and the nature of the biota present. Both sulfate and sulfide are capable of forming insoluble complexes with inorganic cations such as barium or with heavy metals.

125. In the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem, the form of sulfur depends upon the part of the ecosystem being considered. The anaerobic environments of the salt marsh soil (compartment I-A), tidal flats, and estuarine sediments (compartment II-B) contain primarily sulfide while

the oxygenated water of the estuary (compartment II-A) contains predominantly sulfate (Ramm and Bella, 1974). While the biota contain organic sulfur compounds, the specific form and amount has not been studied nor have the pathways of sulfur circulation in the estuary been examined. Thus, the exact pathways of sulfur movement are unknown. It is assumed that since the sulfate concentration in fresh water is much lower than in the sea water or brackish estuarine water, the sulfate in estuarine water is imported primarily from the sea (arrow 39A). Sulfate imported into the marshes with the tides (arrow 35A) percolates into the anaerobic zone of the marsh soil where it is reduced to sulfide. Reoxidation of sulfide to sulfate is possible wherever oxygen is able to diffuse out of the marsh grass roots [arrow 1 (I-B, I-A)].

126. Oxidation of sulfides can create a problem in the marsh soil wherever conditions become sufficiently oxidizing to permit conversion of large amounts of sulfide to sulfate. For example, when sulfide-laden reduced bottom sediments are deposited on the marsh surface above tide level or when marshes are drained, the marsh soil becomes aerobic. In addition to the large amounts of heavy metals (mainly iron) mobilized by conversion of insoluble metal sulfides to more soluble metal sulfates, the acid activity of the resulting sulfuric acid results in formation of poor cat clay soil, which is unsuitable for marsh grasses or any other type of vegetation.

Heavy Metal Cycles

General

127. The heavy metals cadmium, copper, iron, mercury, manganese, nickel, lead, and zinc will be considered in one general section rather than being discussed individually. There are several reasons for this. First, a complete in-depth knowledge of the details involved in the cycling of many of these metals is lacking, although a general understanding of each is available. For example, Wong et al. (1975) have recently discovered that lead can be biologically methylated under circumstances that are environmentally similar to those that favor the

biological methylation of mercury. However, no ecological importance has been found for lead methylation in situ.

128. Second, the knowledge of the behavior of heavy metals within entire ecosystems and particularly in marsh-estuarine ecosystems is unclear. While some of this vagueness results from an incomplete knowledge of the biogeochemistry of individual metals, a good portion of the problem results from the particular "focus" of research on marsh-estuarine ecology. Windom (1975) has observed that much of the research on these ecosystems has been confined to those interactions that occur at river-estuary boundaries. Particular examples of this type of work include the efforts of Kharkar et al. (1968), Turekian (1971), and Windom et al. (1971). Such work has been aimed at determining the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the heavy metal load borne by riverine systems and has also been concerned with the characteristics of the heavy metals that are finally delivered to the ocean. Additional research has been concerned with the function of the marsh grass Spartina alterniflora in regulation of the mobilization of iron and zinc (Pomeroy et al., 1969; Williams and Murdock, 1969; and Bhate, 1972), copper, cobalt, iron, manganese (Bhate, 1972), and mercury (Rhan, 1973). However, few studies have been sufficiently large in scope to contend with the net flux of metals through marsh-estuarine ecosystems or even between marshes and estuaries. Exemplary works in this area include those of Rhan (1973), Banus et al. (1974), Banus et al. (1975), and Dunstan et al. (1975) on salt marshes, the treatise of Mathis (1973) on mangroves and estuaries, the effort of Drifmeyer and Odum (1974) on dredge material pond ecosystems, and the endeavors of Holmes et al. (1974) and Windom (1975) on marine and salt marsh ecosystems.

129. A final reason for combining all of the metals in one discussion is that much of the work that has been done to date indicates that many metals move through the estuary following similar patterns since the processes that influence the mobilization or sedimentation of these materials are often the same.

Processes governing
movement of heavy metals

130. There are several general processes that can be distinguished as playing a major role in governing the movement of heavy metals through salt marsh-estuarine ecosystems. Carpenter et al. (1975) have enumerated several principal mechanisms involved in determining the final concentration of a given heavy metal in estuarine waters. They include:

- a. Physical flow and mixing activities occurring between waters of riverine and marine origins.
- b. Primary biogenic reactions--processes concerned with the uptake and release mechanisms of living and detritus particles and with the genesis and decomposition of new compounds.
- c. Secondary biogenic reactions--mechanisms involved in determination of hydrogen ion concentrations and redox equilibria.
- d. Physical-chemical reactions--processes resulting in changes of equilibria due to changes in temperature or nonspecific ion interactions and ion exchanges between water and solid materials.

131. The specific physical-chemical reactions predominating at the actual boundaries of the river-estuary and marsh-estuarine soil have been discussed in detail by Windom (1975) and include adsorption-desorption reactions, flocculation, precipitation, and sedimentation.

132. Several important biological processes permit the biota of marsh-estuarine ecosystems to play a key role in the regeneration and movement of heavy metals within the ecosystem. The uptake of heavy metals from marsh soils by marsh grasses [arrow 1 (I-A, I-B)] has been observed and measured by several investigators, including Banus et al. (1974), Dunstan and Windom (1975), Banus et al. (1975), Drifmeyer and Odum (1974), and Dunstan et al. (1975). Presumably, rooted aquatic macrophytes are also capable of extracting heavy metals from estuarine sediments [arrow 15 (II-B, II-C)]; however, this possibility has not been examined. Planktonic algal species can concentrate some metals, especially organic forms of mercury [arrow 18 (II-D, II-E)] (Matsumura et al., 1971). Biological methylation of heavy metals in

marsh-estuarine ecosystems has not been extensively studied. However, the requisite environmental conditions for methylation are present in estuaries, so the process can be important as dramatized by the Minimata Bay catastrophe in Japan (Ratkowsky et al., 1975). The concentration of heavy metals in detritus-based biological food chains following uptake from marsh soil by marsh grasses has been studied only to a very limited extent. The results obtained to date do indicate a movement of metals into detritivorous forms such as mussels, crabs, and shrimp [arrow 9 (I-E, I-F)] (Drifmeyer and Odum, 1974; Banus et al., 1975). A final form of biological participation in the movement of heavy metals through the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem involves the products of biological decomposition. Organic particulates (detritus) can sorb metals, particularly mercury (arrow 28) (Rahn, 1973). Consequently, metals subject to binding by these organics can be concentrated in detritivore-based food webs. The metals may also be scavenged from water by the sorptive processes [arrow 28 (II-D, II-F)] and subsequently removed entirely when the host particles settle to the bottom of the estuary (arrow 33d). In addition, the soluble organic products of decompositional processes, particularly humic acids resulting from degradation of marsh grasses and algae, are well known for their ability to chelate and hold heavy metals in aqueous solution [arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)] (Schnitzer, 1971). Zinc is a particularly good example of a metal involved in this process (Carpenter et al., 1975).

Outline of metal flux through the ecosystem

133. While no one metal is guaranteed to follow a given pathway during its passage through the salt marsh estuary, a set of general trends can be outlined that describe average tendencies for heavy metals (marked individual variations from these trends will be enumerated). In the following outline modified from the description of Windom (1975), it is assumed that the metals are moving into the marsh estuarine ecosystem primarily in freshwater input from rivers. However, in certain cases, alternate sources of input such as the atmosphere can place considerable levels of a metal into the ecosystem. Lead is an outstanding

example wherein atmospheric input to the salt marsh may actually exceed the input brought in by the rivers on the tides (Banus et al., 1975).

134. The processes of mixing, adsorption-desorption, flocculation, precipitation, and sedimentation occurring at the river-estuary boundary delimit both the form and the rate of metal input into the estuary. Once into estuarine waters, metals may be removed from the water by precipitation and sedimentation [arrow 17 (II-D, II-B)]. By contrast, those metals that have been built up in estuarine sediments by depositional processes can be remobilized by biological activity and/or chemical interactions with the water column [arrow 17 (II-B, II-D)]. The mobilization and precipitation-sedimentation processes acting in concert with estuarine circulation patterns then serve as determinants of the residence times for metals within the waters of salt marsh-estuarine ecosystems. In addition, the large accumulation of organic particulates (detritus) in the water and sediments of the salt marsh-estuary tend to sorb and remove metals from the water [arrow 28 (II-D, II-F)]. Sorption and removal act in unison with the generally high concentrations of precipitate-forming sulfides present in marsh-estuarine waters to further decrease the residence times for waterborne metals and cause the salt marsh-estuarine ecosystem to generally act as a sink for many metals entering the system. Opposing the metal scavenging and removal mechanisms just enumerated are the intense biological processes of salt marsh-estuaries that tend to recycle metals that would otherwise be locked up within estuarine sediments and marsh soils. This is exemplified by the appearance of maximal concentrations of many metals in soluble form in late fall and winter corresponding to the time of maximum decay of vegetation in the watershed and marsh (Carpenter et al., 1975). However, the fact remains that few metals in a noncomplexed, inorganic, ionic state can freely move through the estuary and out into the open ocean.

135. Once in coastal and oceanic waters, heavy metals are besieged with numerous flocculation, precipitation, sorption, and dilution processes, which serve to lower their relative abundances in water (Windom, 1975).

Fates of individual heavy metals

136. Both iron and manganese, the metals brought into estuaries by rivers in the highest concentrations, suffer a similar fate. As a result of the formation of insoluble phosphates, virtually all iron precipitates upon entry into the estuary (via arrow 35A) and much of this precipitate accumulates in salt marsh soils (Windom, 1975). Manganese also forms insoluble phosphate complexes that precipitate out upon entry into the estuary. The net flux from the estuary into the ocean is much less than the dissolved input by rivers (Windom, 1975). However, in one instance, manganese was found to be released from Chesapeake Bay sediments during the summer months when the pH and dissolved oxygen levels declined in the waters at the bottom of the estuary (Carpenter et al., 1975).

137. Copper and cadmium in dissolved, but uncomplexed, inorganic, ionic form do not tend to form insoluble precipitates by combination with other inorganic compounds. Therefore, these metals are able to move through estuaries relatively untouched by those processes that serve to remove other metals. However, these metals have a large affinity for organic humates and are readily complexed by these materials. Thus, almost all of these metals entering the estuaries attached to particulates can be recovered from the estuarine sediments, also in particulate form (Windom, 1975).

138. Mercury is desorbed from the particulate phases with which it is associated upon exposure to saline conditions [arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)]. Consequently, the amount of this metal in solution in the estuary tends to increase over the dissolved levels entering the estuary in fresh water (Harriss et al., 1971; Windom et al., 1971). Mercury is also actively concentrated from salt marsh soils by Spartina alterniflora resulting in high concentrations of mercury in plant material. The plant material is largely retained by the marsh soil [arrow 1 (I-B, I-A)], because most of the mercury remains within the plant roots (Harriss et al., 1971; Rahn, 1973; and Windom, 1975). Overall, most of the total mercury entering the ecosystem is transported to the oceans with a small amount being trapped and retained within the system (Windom, 1975).

139. Lead is apparently not precipitated by the chemical interactions occurring during the transition from river to estuarine water. However, the dissolved levels of this metal entering the estuary under natural conditions are low (1-5 ppb) (Windom, 1975). Large levels of lead do enter the estuary in particulate form, however, and these are rapidly sedimented either upon the marsh surface or in the estuary (arrow 33d) (Windom, 1975). Spartina plants do accumulate lead in nature (Banus et al., 1974; Windom, 1975). However, between the formation of highly insoluble lead sulfides [arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)] and the sedimentation of lead bound in organic detritus (arrow 33d), little lead probably leaves the estuary.

140. Zinc, next to iron, is the most biologically active of the metals considered. While zinc is supplied to the estuary in both dissolved and particulate form, the mixing processes govern the variations in both the extractable and bound forms associated with the particulate zinc. However, in the subsurface (saline) waters of the estuary, the desorption processes active on both extractable and bound zinc in suspended sediments predominate [arrow 28 (II-F, II-D)]. Evidently the zinc is actively cycled between the sediments and the water. During the productive months when zinc levels are at their maximum in the salt marsh estuary, the soluble zinc is predominant in organic complexes of biological origin (Carpenter et al., 1975; Fukai et al., 1975). While the amount of zinc moving through the estuary has not been assessed, there is probably a net flux outward into the sea as a result of zinc's tendency to remain in solution through biological activity. Zinc is a necessary micronutrient for many biological processes. As a result, zinc is retained in the biota often by complexation with organic compounds.

PART V: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

141. Marsh-estuarine ecosystems possess intrinsic properties, which render them valuable to both man and nature. The state of the art of present knowledge of the ecosystems has not reached the point that permits answer to the question, "How much is the fertility of the estuarine and coastal waters decreased every time 1 ha of marsh is taken out of production?" (de la Cruz, 1973). However, recognition of the value of marsh-estuarine ecosystems is increasing. A portion of the difficulty in assessment of the value of marshes arises from an inability to assign an exact monetary value to each of the many aspects of marsh ecology.* Another problem in assignment of values to marshes results from the fact that much of the "cash value" of marsh-estuarine ecosystems is harvested upriver from the estuary and, more importantly, in non-estuarine coastal waters.

142. The following values are recognized as definite worths of marsh-estuarine ecosystems, even if difficulty is experienced in placement of exact dollar values on them. Marshes and estuaries function as one integrated ecosystem. Marshes are totally dependent upon estuaries for both their origins and for their continued existence (maintenance). On the other hand, between 19 and 29 percent of the organic matter in an estuary is organic detritus that has its origins in the marshes that surround it (Heimle and Flemer, 1976). Both the marsh and the estuary export biological production and also mineral and organic nutrients that can support biological production. Much of this manifests itself as living production that is harvested by coastal fisheries. As a food source, spawning ground, and shelter for juveniles of many marine species, the marsh-estuarine ecosystem serves as a nursery for valuable coastal fisheries. Physical shelter is provided not only in the grassy tidal marshes but also by other estuarine-based communities, including

* For an attempt at this, see Gosselink et al., 1973.

mangroves and seaweed and sea grass beds.

143. Marsh-estuarine ecosystems are of benefit to man in the buffer value they provide coastal areas from marine storms. These ecosystems absorb the energy of incoming tidal storm waves and also soak up coastal storm waters resulting in decreased damage to inland areas. An unrecognized marsh-estuarine function of potentially considerable economic importance to the Corps of Engineers is the silt-absorbing capacity of developing salt marshes that operates in conjunction with the "clearing capacity" of large excursions of tidal waters into and out of estuaries and consequently tends to keep harbors and basins in estuaries free of navigation-impeding sediments. The former mechanism operates to keep silt introduced into the estuary from filling in the channel, while the latter process tends to automatically "dredge" sediments from important central passages (Gosselink et al., 1973).

144. The grazing food chain includes algae and vascular plants as the dominant primary producers. Algae occur both as phytoplankton and as periphyton. The algae are predominantly grazed by herbivorous zooplankton and benthic invertebrates. Lower carnivores then prey on herbivorous species. Top carnivores prey on lower carnivores and on herbivores. In the second or detritus-based food chain, marsh grasses and algae, rather than being utilized directly, die and are consumed by microbial decomposers. Microbial decomposers are composed of the bacteria and fungi that actively degrade vegetative and animal tissues and the protozoans that graze upon the bacteria. Detritivores, largely invertebrates, feed on dead and undecomposed plant materials as well as the decomposed ones, deriving their nutrition mainly from the microbial decomposers, decomposition products of microbial decomposers, and also from low molecular weight organic products associated with dead vegetation, animal remains, and fecal materials. Detritivores form the food source for the lower carnivores, while the higher carnivores prey on both the lower carnivore and the detritivore populations.

145. Some estuaries lack the extensive marshes that generate the large detritus loadings that produce turbidity and shade out phytoplankton. The water of such estuaries is often dominated by phytoplankton

blooms, or the water may be relatively clear of any particulates. Estuaries having any degree of turbidity will have a fauna more strongly oriented toward the detritivore food web. Detritivore food webs tend to dominate most eastern and southeastern Atlantic and all Gulf Coast estuaries plus some West Coast marsh-estuarine ecosystems.

146. Marsh-estuarine ecosystems play important roles in mineral cycling. The reduction of carbon from the inorganic to the organic state can occur elsewhere, but it seldom occurs with the intensity found in the salt marshes. It is the intensive production of organic material in the form of plants that makes the marsh-estuarine ecosystem so valuable to fish and shellfish industries. While the net export of carbon to the oceans in dissolved or nonliving particulate form has not been thoroughly established, the production in the marsh-estuary of living organisms followed by migration of these organisms from the estuary to the ocean is well recognized. These migrating organisms may be directly usable in themselves or may serve as food for other forms. The net movement of carbon from the marsh to the estuary has been well established and is vital to the function of the estuary as a nursery.

147. The close proximity of oxidizing and reducing environments as found in salt marsh soils and many estuarine sediments is a prerequisite for the completion of the biogeochemical cycles of nitrogen and sulfur. In the case of nitrogen, the denitrification processes require an extremely intimate relationship between oxidized and reduced zones in order to permit the aerobic oxidation of ammonium to nitrate followed by the anaerobic reduction of nitrate to molecular nitrogen. In the case of sulfur, reduction of sulfate to elemental sulfur and sulfide also requires anaerobic muds for the sulfate-reducing microorganisms to conduct their activities. Again, tidal marsh soil and estuarine sediments play a key role and the marsh-estuarine ecosystem appears to be a sink for both nitrogen and sulfur.

148. While phosphorus does move out through the marsh-estuarine ecosystem and into coastal waters, the marsh-estuarine system does serve to regulate phosphorus release. In the case of the closely studied coastal Georgia marsh-estuarine ecosystem, the efficiency of the

phosphorus regulation mechanism is so effective that despite wide ranges of the input by incoming river waters, the concentration of phosphorus within estuarine waters varies little during the year. This is principally a result of the uptake and release mechanisms between the estuarine sediment and marsh soil elements with the estuarine water. Thus, while there is a steady phosphate input to the coastal waters, the marsh-estuarine ecosystem acts as a filter to dampen extreme releases and also to prevent phosphorus impoverishment of water.

149. While copper, cadmium, and lead in ionic, inorganic, dissolved form move through the system easily, zinc and mercury also manage to get to the sea, although the later metals require more time to do so. The marsh-estuarine ecosystem is a sink for the metals iron and manganese and for particulate copper, cadmium, and lead. This ecosystem is both dynamic and complex in its handling of metals. While many forces act to sediment, sorb, or precipitate the metals from solution, others tend to strip metal from particulates or otherwise act to dissolve metals and bring them into solution. The intensive biological activities occurring in this ecosystem also have a tendency to mobilize metals. The major process involved in this includes direct uptake from soils and sediments by plants. This is followed by release of metals to other members of the biota upon consumption of plant materials or by release of metals to the environment as a result of decomposition processes. Metals may also enter the food chain by sorption onto surfaces of food (usually detritus) followed by ingestion and incorporation. Alternatively, metals may enter the biota after complexation by organic products of biological origin followed by sorption of the organics onto inorganic particulates that are subsequently ingested.

Conclusions

150. There is no set criteria for assessment of what constitute ecologically necessary marshes. While "current" technology does not give a good handle on the exact or even the general value of each acre of marsh, the destruction of marshes for any purpose is environmentally

unsound and should be discouraged. Techniques for marsh development are either available or in the process of development, but it is doubtful if a one-to-one "marsh created" for "marsh destroyed" policy will ever be feasible. With energy considerations entering the picture, marsh development will probably represent an even less favorable prospect, except where the development process can occur in the immediate proximity of the dredging.

151. The physical act of dredging estuarine sediments does relatively little harm to the marsh-estuarine ecosystem except for destroying or disrupting those organisms unfortunate enough to be in the dredging area. However, problems may arise with the smothering or displacing of organisms in the discharge area. Another problem can come about when dredged materials are deposited on the marsh surface. In addition to smothering marsh organisms, dredging may elevate the marsh beyond permissible boundaries for marsh development. Once the dredged material is deposited on the marsh surface, the forces of tides, wind, and storm may erode the materials into the estuary before any plant species can colonize them.

152. Chemical release of minerals from dredged materials into the environment has the potential to cause several problems. When intensely contaminated materials are removed from an anaerobic zone in the estuary to an aerobic one (marsh or estuary), problems can arise both from the oxygen demand exerted by the reduced compounds in the dredged material and from any heavy metals and sulfides contained in the material. These minerals can assume more mobile forms after oxidation. When used on marsh surfaces, sulfide-laden dredged materials can lead to marsh infertility resulting from metal toxicity and cat clay formation.

153. Release of nutrients resulting from the use of nutrient-rich dredged materials for marsh creation could cause other difficulties. Nitrogen-rich sediments will stimulate the growth of marsh grasses. In an estuary having low dissolved oxygen levels, the additional oxygen demand created by extra detritus in the water column could further deplete the oxygen concentrations and cause problems. Additional nitrogen and phosphorus released into the estuary by marsh soils would probably

not create difficulties since the inherent light limitations present in most estuaries would prevent excessive plant growth. When this is coupled with the fact that most estuaries are adapted to nutrient-rich (eutrophic) schemes, the problem appears potentially insignificant in most cases. Excessive organic carbon in sediments used for marsh creation could cause difficulties; materials escaping the marsh would tend to increase the BOD loading of the estuary with resulting oxygen depletion problems. A sediment that contains high levels of both nutrients and heavy metals could cause problems for marsh development; the excessive growth stimulated by nutrients will prompt the uptake of heavy metals by marsh grasses at rates and concentrations far in excess of normal (Banus et al., 1975). Such a volume of heavy metals, if not toxic to marsh grasses during growth, would constitute a slug load to the detritivore population at the end of the growing season. Present knowledge of marsh-estuarine ecology is inadequate to permit to assessment of the impact of this loading. Until more is known, it is recommended that the use of dredged materials containing nutrient or heavy metal levels in excess of those existing in natural marsh soils of the area should be avoided.

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APPENDIX A: SUMMARY TABLES FOR GENERAL MODEL
OF THE MARSH-ESTUARINE ECOSYSTEM

1. The tables contained in the Appendix are an extension of Tables 1 and 2 in the main volume. Tables A1 through A13 of the Appendix present a detailed listing of the contents of each compartment in the general compartment model. Where possible, geographic occurrences are specified for each compartmental member listed in the tables. No details are presented for estuarine compartment II-D, the dissolved mineral pool. The contents of this compartment are described within the tables that list nutrients and heavy metals. All tables contained in the Appendix are intended for use with the general compartmental model in the same manner as Tables 1 and 2.

2. The information contained in Tables A1 through A22 is for use as reference material. Consequently, no discussion has been made of the materials contained in them. Appendix Tables A1⁴ through A22 give listings of the current state of the art knowledge of the forms, rates, and amounts of nutrients and heavy metals cycled as depicted by the general compartmental model.

3. Any person desiring more detailed information than that given in the tables may easily find the original source of the information by consulting the Literature Cited section of the main volume. Where very limited information was available for the construction of a given table describing mineral cycling, only the available information is presented. For example, presentation of information for arrow 1 followed by information on arrow 5 indicates little or no information for arrows 2-4. This avoids needless repetition of "No Data Available" as found in more complete tables.

Table A1

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-A, Salt Marsh Soil

Constituent	Occurrence in Salt Marsh Soils, Percent		
	Gulf Coast (Fla.)*	S. E. Atlantic Coast (S. C.)*	Atlantic Coast (N. C.)**
Sand	74.0	25.6	97.3
Silt	14.0	59.2	0.6
Clay	2.0	4.0	2.1
Colloidal material	10.0	11.2	--
Organic matter	12.6	13.4	0.1
CaCO ₃	7.0	8.2	--

* Kurz and Wagner, 1957

** Broome et al., 1973

Table A2

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-B, Salt Marsh Grasses

<u>Marsh Location</u>	<u>Marsh Grasses Present</u>	<u>References</u>
St. Louis Bay Estuary, Miss.	Dominant species <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> <u>Spartina patens</u> <u>Distichlis spicata</u> Minor species <u>Juncus effusus</u> <u>Panicum virgatum</u> <u>Panicum amarulum</u> <u>Zizaniopsis miliaceae</u> <u>Phragmites communis</u> <u>Scirpus americanus</u> <u>Scirpus robustus</u> <u>Scirpus californicus</u> <u>Scirpus Olneyi</u> <u>Scirpus validus</u> <u>Scirpus sp.</u> <u>Fimbristylis castanea</u> <u>Fimbristylis caroliniana</u> <u>Eleocharis cellulosa</u> <u>Eleocharis intermedia</u> <u>Cyperus odoratus</u> <u>Aster tenuifolius</u> <u>Aster subulatus</u> <u>Aster sp.</u> <u>Solidago sempervirens</u> <u>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</u> <u>Iva frutescens</u> <u>Sagittaria falcata</u> <u>Crinum americanum</u> <u>Lilaeopsis chinensis</u> <u>Amelopsis sp.</u> <u>Iris virginica</u> <u>Ipoema sagittaria</u> <u>Lythrum lineare</u>	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974
Louisiana Coastal Marshes	Dominant species <u>Spartina patens</u> <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> <u>Distichlis spicata</u> Minor species <u>Aenida alabamensis</u>	Chabreck, 1972

(Continued)

(Sheet 1 of 3)

Table A2 (Continued)

<u>Marsh Location</u>	<u>Marsh Grasses Present</u>	<u>References</u>
	<u>Aster sp.</u> <u>Avicennia nitida</u> <u>Baccharis halimifolia</u> <u>Bacopa Monnieri</u> <u>Bacopa rotundifolia</u> <u>Batis maritima</u> <u>Borrichia frutescens</u> <u>Cyperus odoratus</u> <u>Echinochloa Walteri</u> <u>Eleocharis parvula</u> <u>Eleocharis sp.</u> <u>Fimbristylis castanea</u> <u>Gerardia maritima</u> <u>Ipomoea sagittata</u> <u>Iva frutescens</u> <u>Leptochloa filiformis</u> <u>Lycium carolinianum</u> <u>Lythrum lineare</u> <u>Panicum virgatum</u> <u>Paspulum vaginatum</u> <u>Phragmites communis</u> <u>Pluchea camphorata</u> <u>Salicornia Bigelovii</u> <u>Salicornia virginica</u> <u>Scirpus Olneyi</u> <u>Scirpus robustus</u> <u>Scirpus validus</u> <u>Spartina cynosuroides</u> <u>Spartina spartineae</u> <u>Suaeda linearis</u> <u>Vallisneria americana</u> <u>Vigna repens</u>	
Gulf and Atlantic Coast, Northern Florida	Dominant species <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> Minor species <u>Achyranthes philoxeroides</u> <u>Andropogon glomeratus</u> <u>Andropogon virginicus</u> <u>Aster tenuifolius</u> <u>Borrichia frutescens</u> <u>Chactochloa geniculata</u> <u>Chloris neglecta</u>	Kurz and Wag- ner, 1957

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 3)

Table A2 (Concluded)

<u>Marsh Location</u>	<u>Marsh Grasses Present</u>	<u>References</u>
Atlantic Coast, N. C.	<u>Cymodocea manatorum</u> <u>Cyperus erythrorhizos</u> <u>Fimbristylis castanea</u> <u>Halodule Wrightii</u> <u>Halophila Engelmannii</u> <u>Iva frutescens</u> <u>Limonium carolinianum</u> <u>Lyorria palustris</u> <u>Muhlenbergia capillaris</u> <u>Panicum virgatum</u> <u>Paspalum vaginatum</u> <u>Salicornia perennis</u> <u>Solidago mexicana</u> <u>Spartina bakeri</u> <u>Spartina patens</u> <u>Spartina spartinae</u> <u>Thalassia testudinum</u> <u>Uniola laxa</u> Major salt marsh species <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> <u>Spartina europaea</u> <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> <u>Spartina perennis</u> <u>Limonium carolinianum</u> <u>Aster tenuifolius</u> <u>Distichlis spicata</u> <u>Borrichia frutescens</u> <u>Fimbristylis castanea</u> <u>Spartina patens</u>	Adams, 1963
Atlantic Coast, General	Dominant species <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> <u>Spartina patens</u>	Valiela and Vince, 1976

Table A3

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-C, Soil and Epiphytic Algae

<u>Type of Alga</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Species</u>	<u>References</u>
Epiphytes	Barataria Bay, La.	<u>Achnanthes</u> <u>Amphiprora</u> <u>Amphora</u> <u>Bostrychia</u> <u>Camphylodiscus</u> <u>Cladophora</u> <u>Cocconeis</u> <u>Cylindrotheca</u> <u>Cymbella</u> <u>Derrticula</u> <u>Diploneis</u> <u>Ectocarpus</u> <u>Enteromorpha</u> <u>Erythrotrichia</u> <u>Grammatophora</u> <u>Lyngbya</u> <u>Melosira</u> <u>Navicula</u> <u>Nitzschia</u> <u>Oscillatoria</u> <u>Pleurosigma</u> <u>Polysiphonia</u> <u>Rhizoclonium</u> <u>Rhopalodia</u> <u>Spirulina</u> <u>Surirella</u>	Stowe et al., 1971 Day et al., 1973
Benthic and soil algae	Barataria Bay, La.	<u>Achnanthes</u> <u>Amphiprora</u> <u>Amphora</u> <u>Anaulua</u> <u>Caloneis</u> <u>Cocconeis</u> <u>Cosmiodiscus</u> <u>Diploneis</u> <u>Eunotogramma</u> <u>Gyrosigma</u> <u>Mastogloia</u> <u>Melosira</u> <u>Navicula</u> <u>Nitzschia</u> <u>Plagiogramma</u> <u>Pleurosigma</u> <u>Rhaphoneis</u>	Stowe et al., 1971 Day et al., 1973

(Continued)

Table A3 (Continued)

Type of Alga	Location	Species	References
		<u>Stauroneis</u> <u>Surirella</u> <u>Trachysphenia</u>	
Epiphytic algae	Delaware salt marsh	<u>Enteromorpha</u> sp. Various filamentous and foliaceous green algae	Gallagher and Daiber, 1974
Soil algae	Banks and bare mud pans Delaware salt marsh (summer)	Blue-green algae Diatoms	Gallagher and Daiber, 1974
Soil algae	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Blue-green algae, dinoflagellates, green flagellates, pennate diatoms	Pomeroy, 1959
Soil algae	Under salt marsh grasses Great Sippewisset Salt Marsh, Md.	<u>Calothrix contarenii</u> <u>Lyngbya aestuarii</u>	Van Raalte et al., 1974
Soil algae	Great Sippewisset Salt Marsh, Md.	<u>Amphiprora</u> <u>Cladophora</u> <u>Diploneis</u> <u>Lyngbya</u> <u>Microcoleus</u> <u>Nitzochia</u> <u>Oscillatoria</u> sp. <u>Vancheris</u> sp.	Estrada et al., 1974
Soil algae	Great Sippewisset Salt Marsh, Md.	<u>Achnanthes</u> spp. <u>Amphora</u> spp. <u>Biddulphia</u> spp. <u>Caloneis</u> spp. <u>Cocconeis</u> spp. <u>Cymbella</u> spp. <u>Diploneis</u> spp. <u>Fragilaria</u> spp. <u>Grammatophora</u> spp. <u>Gyrosigma</u> spp.	Van Raalte et al., 1976b

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 3)

Table A3 (Concluded)

<u>Type of Alga</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Species</u>	<u>References</u>
		<u>Melosira</u> spp.	
		<u>Navicula salinarum</u>	
		<u>Nauiculium</u> spp.	
		<u>Nitzschia</u> spp.	
		<u>Opephora</u> spp.	
		<u>Pinnularia</u> spp.	
		<u>Pleurosigma</u> spp.	
		<u>Rhaphoneis</u> spp.	
		<u>Stauroneis</u> spp.	
		<u>Surriella</u> spp.	
		<u>Tropidoneis</u> spp.	

Table A4

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-D, Salt Marsh Herbivores

<u>Name</u>	<u>Marsh Location</u>	<u>Food</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>Orchemmium</u> sp. (grasshopper)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Marsh grasses, aboveground portion	Smalley, 1958
<u>Ondatra zibethicus</u> (muskrat)	East Coast marshes	Marsh grasses, roots	Teal and Teal, 1969
<u>Myocastor coypus</u> (nutria)	Gulf Coast marshes	Marsh grasses, roots	Chabreck, 1972
<u>Littorina irrorata</u> (marsh periwinkle)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Algal filaments, epiphytic algae, epipellic algae, detritus	Smalley, 1958
<u>Neritina reclinata</u> (smooth periwinkle)	Louisiana marshes	Epipellic algae, epiphytic algae	Day et al., 1973
<u>Melampus bidentatus</u> (small snail)	Louisiana marshes	Epipellic algae, epiphytic algae	Day et al., 1973
<u>Modiolus demissus</u> (ribbed mussel)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Phytoplankton epiphytic and epibenthic algae loosened and carried around by tides	Kuenzler, 1961
<u>Uca Pugnax</u> (fiddler crab)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Epipellic algae	Teal, 1958
<u>Sesarma</u> sp.	Gulf Coast	Algae	Personal Com- munication, April, 1975, Ivan Valie- la, Associ- ate Profes- sor, Boston University Marine Pro- gram, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Mass.
Green crabs	East Coast marshes	Algae	

Table A5

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-F, Salt Marsh Detritivores

<u>Name</u>	<u>Marsh Location</u>	<u>Food</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>Littorina irrorata</u> (marsh periwinkle)	Gulf Coast marshes Sapelo Is- land, Ga.	Detritus, Algal filaments Epiphytic and Epibenthic algae	de la Cruz, 1973 Smalley, 1958 Day et al., 1973
<u>Melampus bidentatus</u> (small snail)	Gulf Coast marshes	Detritus, Epipellic and Epiphytic algae	de la Cruz, 1973 Day et al., 1973
<u>Uca pugnax</u> (fiddler crab)	Sapelo Island, Ga.	Detritus, Epipellic algae	Teal, 1958, de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Corophium</u> sp. <u>Ampileasca</u> sp. (amphipods)	Louisiana marshes	Detritus	Day et al., 1973

Table A6

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-G, Salt Marsh Carnivores

<u>Organism</u>	<u>Food Source</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>Procyon lotor</u> (raccoon)	Molluscs, crabs	Day et al., 1973
<u>Circus cyaneus</u> (marsh hawk)	Mice, birds, other small animals	Teal and Teal, 1969
<u>Mustela vison</u> (mink)	Mice, other small animals	
Various shorebirds	Marsh insects, annelids, amphipods	Teal and Teal, 1969 Day et al., 1973
Various spiders	Marsh insects	Personal Communication, Dec. 1974, William Pfeiffer, Biologist, Georgia Institute of Marine Science, Sapelo Island, Ga.
<u>Rallus longirostris</u> (clapper rails)	Snails, crabs, insects, spiders	Oney, 1954 Bateman, 1965

Table A7

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-B, Estuarine Sediment

Constituent, % of total	Occurrence in Sediments			
	Gulf Coast (Alabama)*	NE Atlantic Coast (Connecticut)*	NW Pacific Coast (Washington)**	Australia (Victoria)†
Sand (<50 micrometers)	14.8	3.5	N/A	N/A
Silt (<2 micrometers)	52.7	58.2	N/A	N/A
Clay (2-50 micrometers)	32.5	38.3	N/A	N/A
Organic matter (total organic carbon)	2.03	2.69	0.13-4.70	0.1-2.3
Total nitrogen (µg/g)	1900	2680	N/A	N/A
Total sulfides (µg/g)	903	2680	N/A	N/A
Total metals (µg/g)				
arsenic	4.08	6.90	3-15 ppm	N/A
cadmium	3.62	17.60	N/A	0.04-0.06
chromium	N/A††	N/A	40-200 ppm	N/A
copper	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.29-87 ppm
lead	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.8-183 ppm
mercury	N/A	N/A	0.01-0.1 ppm	N/A
nickel	156	203	N/A	N/A
zinc	243	1067	N/A	2.9-278 ppm

* Data from Brannon et al., 1976

** Data from Crecelius et al., 1975

† Data from Talbot et al., 1976

†† N/A = Data not available

Table A8

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-C, Periphyton and Rooted Macrophytes

Type of Plant	Name	Occurrence	Reference
Periphytic algae			
Chlorophyceae	<u>Ulvelia</u> sp.	Benthos, tidal mud flats, shallow tide pools	Kapaun personal communication as cited in Day, et al., 1973
	<u>Ulothrix</u> sp.		
	<u>Cladophora</u> sp.		
	<u>Rhizoclonium</u> sp.		
Oscillatoriaceae	<u>Lyngbya</u> sp.	Minor component of benthic algal mats	
	<u>Oscillatoria</u> sp.	<u>O. princeps</u> often a dominant in benthic algal mats	
	<u>Spirulina</u> sp.	Minor component in benthic algal mats	
Chroococaceae	<u>Anacystis</u> sp.	Present in benthic algal mats	
	<u>Chroocorcorus</u> sp.		
	<u>Merismopedia</u> sp.		
Bacilliarophyceae	<u>Amphiprora</u> sp.	Benthic diatoms	
	<u>Amphora</u> sp.		
	<u>Caloneis</u> sp.		
	<u>Cylindrotheca</u> sp.		
	<u>Denticula</u> sp.		
	<u>Diploneis</u> sp.		
	<u>Gyrosigma</u> sp.		
	<u>Mastogloria</u> sp.		
	<u>Navicula</u> sp.		
	<u>Nitzschia</u> sp.		
	<u>Opephora</u> sp.		
	<u>Paralia</u> sp.		
<u>Pleurosigma</u> sp.			
Macrophytic algae			
	<u>Bostrychia rivularis</u>		
	<u>Cladophora repens</u>		
	<u>Cladophora gracilis</u>		
	<u>Ectocarpus</u> sp.		
	<u>Enteromorpha flexiosa</u>		
	<u>Gracilaria foliifera</u>		
	<u>Ulva lactuca</u>		
Rooted macrophytes	<u>Zostera marina</u>	Bering Straits to Baja, Calif.; Greenland to Cape Fear, N. C.	Thayer et al., 1975
	<u>Thalassia testudinum</u>	Florida coast	Zieman, 1975

Table A9

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-E, Phytoplankton

<u>Algae</u>	<u>Estuary</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>Actinoptychus</u>	Barataria Bay, La.	Day et al., 1973
<u>Biddulphia</u>		
<u>Ceratium</u>		
<u>Chaetoceros</u>		
<u>Coscinodiscus</u>		
<u>Cylindrothera</u>		
<u>Dinophysis</u>		
<u>Ditylum</u>		
<u>Gonyaulax</u>		
<u>Merismopedia</u>		
<u>Nitzschia</u>		
<u>Peridinium</u>		
<u>Prorocentrum</u>		
<u>Rhizosolenia</u>		
<u>Exuviella apora</u>	Long Island Sound	Riley, 1967
<u>Paralia sulcata</u>		
<u>Peridinium</u> <u>trochoideum</u>		

Table A10(a)

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-E and Estuary Compartment
II-F (Detritus-Decomposers)

<u>Detritus Source</u>	<u>Location and Type of Marsh</u>	<u>Decomposition Rate (%/yr)</u>	<u>Reference</u>
Marsh grasses			
<u>Spartina</u> spp.	Barataria Bay, La.		
	High marsh	80*	Kirby, 1971
	Streamside	89*	
	Tidal creek	96*	
	Bay St. Louis, Miss.		
	High marsh	52*	de la Cruz, 1973
	Sapelo Island, Ga.		
	High marsh	50*	de la Cruz, 1965
	Streamside marsh	60*	
Levee, marsh	65*		
Marsh creek	88**	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957	
<u>Juncus</u> <u>Roemerianus</u>	Bay St. Louis, Miss.	40*	de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1973
	Sapelo Island, Ga.	35*	de la Cruz, 1965
	Bodie Island. N. C.	47*	Waits, 1967
	North of Cape Lookout, N. C.	46+	Williams and Murdock, 1972
<u>Distichlis</u> <u>spicata</u>	Bay St. Louis, Miss.	38*	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974

(Continued)

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- * Employed nylon bags of 1- to 5-mm mesh.
 ** Employed lath crates, 10-mm mesh.
 + Measured disappearance rate without a container.

Table A10(a) (Concluded)

<u>Detritus Source</u>	<u>Location and Type of Marsh</u>	<u>Decomposition Rate (%/yr)</u>	<u>Reference</u>
	Sapelo Island, Ga.	53*	de la Cruz, 1965
<u>Salicornia</u> sp.	Sapelo Island, Ga.	94*	de la Cruz, 1965
<u>Scirpus americanus</u>	Bay St. Louis Miss.	60*	de la Cruz, 1973
Kelps			
<u>Laminaria</u> sp.	Atlantic Coast of Canada	N/A ⁺⁺	Mann, 1972
<u>Macrocystis</u> sp.	California Coast	N/A	
Sea Grasses			
<u>Thalassia</u> sp.	Southern U. S. Gulf Coast	N/A	Mann, 1972
<u>Zostera</u> sp.	Atlantic Coast, U. S.	N/A	
Rooted Algae			
<u>Fucus</u> sp.	Nova Scotia	N/A	Mann, 1972
<u>Ascophyllum</u> sp.	Nova Scotia	N/A	
Mangrove Leaves			
Red Mangrove	Puerto Rico	62	Mann, 1972
White Mangrove		N/A	Heald, 1969

⁺⁺ Not available.

Table A10(b)

Composition of Salt Marsh Compartment I-E and Estuary Compartment II-F
(Microbial Decomposer Compartment)

Constituent	Substrate/Location	References
1. Bacteria		
a. Organisms able to use marsh grass extracts	<u>Spartina</u> /Georgia	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957
<u>Aerobacter</u> sp.		
<u>Flavobacterium</u> sp.		
<u>Pseudomonas</u> sp.		
<u>Serratia</u> sp.		
b. Dominant bacteria in soil	Submerged sediments/ Louisiana marshes	Hood, 1970
(1) Aerobes		
<u>Bacillus</u> sp.		
<u>Pseudomonas</u> sp.		
(2) Anaerobes		
<u>Clostridium</u> sp.		
<u>Micrococcus</u> sp.		
<u>Sarcina</u> sp.		
c. Predominant bacteria in estuarine water	Louisiana Coastal waters	Hood, 1970
<u>Vibrio</u> sp.		
<u>Pseudomonas</u> sp.		
<u>Achromobacter</u> sp.		
2. Yeasts associated with marsh grasses and soils	Viable green marsh grass tissue, brown stem material undergoing dieback/Louisiana marshes	Ahearn et al., 1970 Meyers, 1974
<u>Pichia</u> sp.		
<u>Kluyveromyces</u> sp.		
3. Fungi		
Fungi associated with "die back" of <u>Spartina</u> sp.	<u>Spartina</u> plant roots, stems, rhizomes/English marshes	Sivanesan and Manners, 1970
<u>Cephalosporium acremonium</u>		
4. Nutritional types of bacteria		Hood and Colmer, 1971
a. Proteolytic species (50-60 percent)		
b. Lipolytic and Alginolytic species (40 percent)		
c. Cellulolytic species (low concentration)		
d. Sulfate reducers (predominant physiological form in the anaerobic zone)		
5. Bacteria dominant on marsh soil surface	Marsh soil plus bottom 1/2 in. of <u>Spartina</u> stalk/Louisiana marshes	Hood and Colmer, 1971
<u>Pseudomonas</u> sp.		
<u>Vibrio</u> sp.		
<u>Bacillus</u> sp.		

(Continued)

Table A10(b) (Concluded)

Constituent	Substrate/Location	References
6. Marine bacteria associated with marsh plants <u>Bacillus</u> sp. <u>Cladosporium herbarum</u> <u>Fusarium solani</u> <u>Pencillium digitatum</u> <u>Pencillium frequentans</u> <u>Pencillium variabile</u> <u>Trichoderma koningi</u>	Attached to <u>Spartina</u> plant/ Louisiana Coastal marshes	Hood and Colmer, 1971
7. Fungi attacking <u>Spartina</u> by mycota during development and decomposition <u>Sphaerulina pedicellata</u> <u>Leptosphaeria</u> sp. <u>Haligenia</u> sp. <u>Pleospora</u> sp. <u>Lulworthia</u> sp.	Growth stage of <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> /Rhode Island Browing stage of <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> /Rhode Island	Gessner et al., 1972
8. Bacteria dominant on marsh soil surface <u>Pseudomonas</u> sp. <u>Vibrio</u> sp. <u>Bacillus</u> sp.	Marsh soil plus bottom 1/2 in. of <u>Spartina</u> stalk/Louisiana marshes	
9. Marine bacteria associated with marsh plants <u>Bacillus</u> sp.	Attached to <u>Spartina</u> plant/ Louisiana Coastal marshes	Hood and Colmer, 1971

Table All

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-G, Herbivores

<u>Name</u>	<u>Estuary Location</u>	<u>Food</u>	<u>References</u>
<u>Penaeus dunarum</u> (pink shrimp)	Louisiana	Benthic diatoms, filamentous green algae, filamen- tous blue-green algae	Odum, 1971
<u>Penaeus aztecus</u> (brown shrimp)	Louisiana	"	Jacob and Loesch, 1971
<u>Penaeus setiferus</u> (white shrimp)	Louisiana	"	Jacob and Loesch, 1971
<u>Palaemonetes vulgaris</u> (grass shrimp)		"	Day et al., 1973
<u>Palaemonetes pugio</u> (grass shrimp)		"	Day et al., 1973
<u>Trachypeneus similis</u> (penaeid shrimp)		"	Day et al., 1973
<u>Xiphopeneus kroyeri</u> (seabob)		"	Day et al., 1973
<u>Alpheus heterochaelis</u> (snapping shrimp)		"	Day et al., 1973
<u>Adenia fenica</u> (diamond killifish)	Florida	Benthic diatoms	Forman, 1968 Odum, 1971
<u>Mugil cephalus</u> (stripped mullet)	Louisiana Florida	Vascular plants, blue-green algae, diatoms, fila- mentous algae, green algae	Darnell, 1961 Odum, 1971 Day et al., 1973
<u>Cyprinodon variegatus</u> (sheepshead minnow)	Louisiana	Algae, plant fibers	Hildebrand and Schroeder, 1928 Forman, 1968 Odum, 1971
<u>Fundulus grandis</u> (Gulf killifish)	Florida	Filamentous algae	Odum, 1971
<u>Fundulus confluentus</u> (marsh killifish)	Florida	Algae filaments	Odum, 1971

(Continued)

Table All (Concluded)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Estuary Location</u>	<u>Food</u>	<u>References</u>
<u>Poecilia latipinna</u> (sailfin molly)	Florida	Algae, diatoms	Odum, 1971
<u>Acartia tonsa</u> (copepod)	Gulf Coast, Atlantic Coast	Phytoplankton	Day et al., 1973 Riley, 1967
Miscellaneous species of copepods			Darnell, 1961

Table A12

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-H, Detritivores

<u>Name</u>	<u>Estuary Location</u>	<u>Food*</u>	<u>References</u>
<u>Mugil cephalus</u> (stripped mullet)	Mississippi Sound, Louisiana	Detritus, vascular plants, diatoms, filamentous algae, blue-green algae, green algae	Darnell, 1961, 1976 Day et al., 1973 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Brevoortia patronus</u> (Gulf menhaden)	Louisiana	Detritus, zoo-plankton, phyto-plankton	June and Carlson, 1971 Odum, 1971 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Fundulus heteroclitus</u> (Atlantic killifish)	Louisiana Florida	Detritus	Odum, 1971 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Adenia xenica</u> (diamond killifish)	Louisiana Florida	Detritus	Odum, 1971
<u>Fundulus confluentus</u> (marsh killifish)	Louisiana Florida	Detritus, algal filaments	Odum, 1971 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Cyprinodon variegatus</u> (sheepshead minnow)	Louisiana Florida	Detritus, algae, plant fibers	Hildebrand and Schroeder, 1928 Forman, 1968 Odum, 1971 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Anchoa mitchelli</u> (bay anchovy)	Florida	Detritus	Odum, 1971
<u>Gambusia affinis</u> (mosquitofish)	Gulf coast	Detritus	de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Mollienisa (poecilia) latipinna</u> (sailfin molly)	Gulf Coast	Detritus, algae	Odum, 1971 de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Rithropanopeus harrisii</u> (crab)	Florida	Detritus	Odum, 1971
<u>Sesarma</u> sp.	Gulf Coast	Detritus	de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Penaeus pugio</u> (grass shrimp)	Gulf Coast	Detritus	de la Cruz, 1973
<u>Alpheus heterochaelis</u>	Gulf Coast	Detritus	de la Cruz, 1973

* Since detritus is rarely the sole food of any detritivores, other food are also given.

Table A13

Composition of Estuary Compartment II-I, Carnivores

Name	Estuary Location	Food	References
<u>Brevoortia patronus</u> (Gulf menhaden)	Louisiana	Zooplankton, phytoplankton, detritus	Darnell, 1958
<u>Brevoortia tyrannus</u> (Atlantic menhaden)	Atlantic Coast	Zooplankton and phytoplankton (juvenile fish) Zooplankton and detritus (adult fish)	June and Carlson, 1971 Jeffries, 1975
<u>Leiostomus xanthurus</u> (spot)	Gulf Coast	Vascular plants, copepods, ostracods (Texas) Pelecypods, detritus, copepods, (Louisiana) Crustaceans, annelids, small molluscs, fish, detritus Copepods, nematodes diatoms, foraminiferans Zooplankton, insect larvae, fish	Parker, 1971 Parker, 1971 Pearson, 1928 Day et al., 1973
<u>Adenix xenica</u> (diamond killifish)	Florida	Small amphipods, copepods, small insects, vascular plant detritus, benthic diatoms Detritus, diatoms, small crustaceans, insects	Odum, 1971 Forman, 1968
<u>Fundulus grandis</u> (Gulf killifish)	Gulf Coast	Amphipods, isopods, xanthid crabs, chironomid larvae, terrestrial insects, small gastropods, filamentous algae, polychaetes, insects, small fish, crab megalops, nematodes	Forman, 1968 Odum, 1971 Day et al., 1973
<u>Fundulus confluentus</u> (marsh killifish)	Florida	Small fish, amphipods isopods, adult and larval insects, copepods, mysids, ostracods, algal filaments Copepods, annelids, fish (Florida) Ostracods, harpacticoid copepods, detritus, vascular plants Planktonic and demersal crustaceans, annelids Amphipods calanoid copepods, detritus	Odum, 1971 Townsend, 1956 Darnell, 1958 Dawson, 1958 Thomas et al., 1971
<u>Cynoscion arenarius</u> (sand seatrout)	Louisiana	Fish, macrobenthic species, zooplankton, detritus, amphipods, fish, microbenthic spp.	Darnell, 1958 Day et al., 1973
<u>Menidia beryllina</u> (tidewater silversides)	Louisiana Florida	Amphipods, isopods, chironomid larvae detritus, zooplankton, vascular plants Copepods, Mysids, amphipods, terrestrial insects, chironomid larvae	Darnell, 1958 Odum, 1971
<u>Callinectes sapidus</u> (blue crab)	Gulf Coast	Zooplankton	Tagatz, 1968 Odum, 1971 Day et al., 1973

Table A14

Cycling of Carbon in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the General Compartmental Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference																										
I-A Marsh soil	Organic carbon added by death of plants or accumulation from deposited sediment	Accumulation rates in marsh soil: Initial level--12.2 g C/m ² Bare soil accumulation--80.3 gC/m ² Soil with <i>Spartina</i> --87.0 gC:m ² :yr Fertilized soil with <i>Spartina</i> --96.8 gC:m ² :yr Turnover time for carbon in soil--3.7-4.5 yr	Cammen, 1975																										
	Organic matter in marsh soil from <i>Spartina</i> marsh	Marsh Site (All North Carolina)	Broome et al., 1973																										
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th rowspan="2">Marsh</th> <th colspan="2">Organic Matter, %</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Short Grass</th> <th>Tall Grass</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Oregon Inlet</td> <td>0.1</td> <td>0.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ocracoke</td> <td>0.3</td> <td>0.7</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Hatteras Village</td> <td>0.3</td> <td>5.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>North River</td> <td>10.8</td> <td>1.6</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Beaufort</td> <td>6.0</td> <td>5.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Swansboro</td> <td>0.5</td> <td>1.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Oak Island</td> <td>6.5</td> <td>9.3</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Marsh	Organic Matter, %		Short Grass	Tall Grass	Oregon Inlet	0.1	0.1	Ocracoke	0.3	0.7	Hatteras Village	0.3	5.1	North River	10.8	1.6	Beaufort	6.0	5.0	Swansboro	0.5	1.1	Oak Island	6.5	9.3	
Marsh	Organic Matter, %																												
	Short Grass	Tall Grass																											
Oregon Inlet	0.1	0.1																											
Ocracoke	0.3	0.7																											
Hatteras Village	0.3	5.1																											
North River	10.8	1.6																											
Beaufort	6.0	5.0																											
Swansboro	0.5	1.1																											
Oak Island	6.5	9.3																											
Arrow No. 1 (I-A, I-B)	Inorganic carbon	Insignificant	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961																										
Arrow No. 1 (I-B, I-A)	Inorganic carbon	Release to soil water by marsh grass roots is sufficient to add 20-30 m ² CO ₂ /l of water to marsh creek waters by the time tidal waters have left marsh surface via percolation of water through soil	Teal and Kanwisher, 1961																										
	Organic carbon excreted by marsh grass roots into soil interstitial waters	Not available for salt marsh plants Available for freshwater emergent macrophytes	Wetzel and Rich, 1973																										
Arrow No. 2 (I-A, I-C)	Inorganic carbon in interstitial water	Described for benthic diatoms in sand, but specific uptake rates not available	Baird and Wetzel, 1972																										
	Dissolved organic carbon (DOC)	Possible source of DOC for heterotrophic uptake by soil algae. Has not been studied for specific marsh soil and epiphytic algae, but has been documented for planktonic species	Hellebust, 1967																										
Arrow No. 2 (I-C, I-A)	Inorganic carbon	Specific rates of CO ₂ release by respiration to soil water have not been measured																											
	DOC	Release of DOC to interstitial water of marsh soil has not been studied. However, release of DOC to water is inferred on the basis of the following: 1.0 soil algae actively conduct photosynthesis at depths of up to a few mm in marsh soils 2.0 algae release DOC during photosynthesis. This enters surrounding millieu 3.0 many species of algae produce extracellular slimes which are elaborated on the cell surface and which are then solubilized--a mechanism which prevents build up of epiphytes and other microbes on cell surfaces	Hellebust, 1967 Smith, 1950																										
Arrow No. 2 (I-C, I-A)	Particulate organic carbon (POC)	Death of soil algae within soil matrix is a source of POC to marsh soil, but rates and quantities are unknown																											
I-B Marsh grasses	Organic carbon <i>Spartina alterniflora</i>	Production data in g dry weight:m ² :yr. Carbon content is approximately one-half of this: 445 Delaware 1207 Maryland 329-1296 North Carolina 1000 North Carolina 650 North Carolina 2883 Georgia 2000 Georgia 985 Georgia 1089-1964 Mississippi 1150 Louisiana	Morgan, 1961 Johnson, 1970 Stroud and Cooper, 1969 Williams and Murdock, 1966 Williams and Murdock, 1969 Odum and Fanning, 1973 Schelske and Odum, 1961 Smalley, 1959 Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974 Kirby, 1971																										

(Continued)

(Sheet 1 of 6)

Table A14 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference			
I-B Marsh grasses (Continued)	Organic carbon <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> (Continued)	Percent carbon content of <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> 40.77 Georgia 38.3 Long Island, New York 38.8 North Carolina	Burkholder, 1956 Udell et al., 1969 Williams, 1972			
	Organic carbon <u>Spartina cynosuroides</u>	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr 1028 Georgia 2190 Mississippi	Odum and Fanning, 1973 Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974			
		Percent carbon content of <u>Spartina cynosuroides</u> , 32.10	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974			
	Organic carbon <u>Spartina patens</u>	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr 993 New York 1296 North Carolina 1922 Mississippi	Harper, 1918 Waits, 1967 Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974			
		Percent carbon contents of <u>Spartina patens</u> 5.26 29.36	Chabreck, 1972			
	Organic carbon <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u>	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr 560 North Carolina 796 North Carolina 1360 North Carolina 849 Florida 1697 Mississippi	Foster, 1968 Stroud and Cooper, 1969 Waits, 1967 Heald, 1969 Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974			
		Percent carbon content of <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> 36.6 26.45 44.3	de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1973 Chabreck, 1972 Gallagher, 1974			
	Organic carbon <u>Distichlis spicata</u>	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr 1484 Mississippi	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974			
		Percent carbon content of <u>Distichlis spicata</u> , 23.64	Chabreck, 1972			
	Organic carbon <u>Scirpus robustus</u>	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr 1056 Mississippi	de la Cruz, 1974			
		Percent carbon content of <u>Scirpus robustus</u> , 23.15	Chabreck, 1972			
	I-C Soil algae	Organic carbon	Production in g C:m ² :yr 200 Georgia--marsh soil 79-99 Delaware--marsh soil 244 Louisiana	Pomeroy, 1959 Gallagher and Daiber, 1974 Brkich as cited in Day et al., 1973		
			I-C Epiphytes	Organic carbon	Production in g C:m ² :yr 103.9 on <u>Spartina</u> , Louisiana 10 average over Barataria Bay marshes, Louisiana	Stowe, 1971 Day et al., 1973
					Arrow No. 3 (I-B, I-E)	Organic carbon
	Arrow No. 4 (I-B, I-D)	Organic carbon	5-10% of annual production	Teal, 1962		
Arrow No. 5 (I-C, I-D)	POC	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources				
Arrow No. 6 (I-C, I-E)	POC	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources				
I-D Marsh herbivores	Organic carbon	No data are available on total marsh herbivore production				
	Arrow No. 7 (I-D, I-G)	Organic carbon	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources			

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 6)

Table A14 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 8 (I-D, I-E)	Organic carbon	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 9 (I-E, I-F)	POC	Approximately 500 gC:m ² :yr are consumed by detritivores and by microbial decomposition processes on the marsh (Arrow No. 12 (I-E1, I-E2))	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 9 (I-F, I-E)	Organic carbon	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 10 (I-F, I-G)	Organic carbon	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 11 (I-G, I-E)	Organic carbon	No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 12 (I-E1, I-E2)	Organic carbon from <u>Spartina</u> spp. leaves	Decomposition rates of various detritus substrates (%/year)	
		50 Georgia (Sapelo Island) High marsh	de la Cruz, 1965
		65 Levee marsh	de la Cruz, 1965
		60 Streamside marsh	de la Cruz, 1965
		88 Marsh creek	Burkholder and Bornside, 1957
		52 Mississippi (Bay St. Louis) High marsh	de la Cruz, 1973
		Decomposition rates of various detritus substrates (%/year)	
		80 Louisiana (Barataria Bay) High marsh	Kirby, 1971
		89 Streamside marsh	
		96 Marsh creek	
	<u>Juncus roemerianus</u> leaves	47 North Carolina	Waits, 1967
		35 Georgia (Sapelo Island)	de la Cruz, 1965
		36 Florida (Everglades)	Heald, 1969
		40 Mississippi (Bay St. Louis)	de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1973
	<u>Distichlis spicata</u> leaves	94 Georgia (Sapelo Island)	de la Cruz, 1965
		38 Mississippi (Bay St. Louis)	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974
	<u>Salicornia</u> sp. leaves	94 Georgia (Sapelo Island)	de la Cruz, 1965
	Red mangrove leaves	60 Florida (Everglades)	Heald, 1969
	White mangrove leaves	38 Florida (Everglades)	Heald, 1969
Arrow No. 12 (I-E2, I-E1)		No valid estimates are available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 13 (I-E, I-A)	POC	No valid estimate has been made since an estimated 45% is exported to the estuary/year; whatever of the remaining 55% which is not consumed by detritivores must become part of marsh soil or be decomposed to CO ₂	Teal, 1962
Arrow No. 13 (I-A, I-E)	Organic carbon (as live cells)	Inconsequential--serves as a reservoir of inoculum for new detrital materials	
I-E Detrites microbial decomposers	Organic carbon	Actual masses of detritus have not been measured	
I-F Detritivores	Organic carbon	Specific estimates of total detritivore biomass and carbon contents not available from current literature or other sources	
I-G Carnivores	Organic carbon	Specific estimates total carnivore biomass and carbon contents not available from current literature or other sources	
Arrow No. 14 (I-B, I-C)	None	No carbon transferred	
Arrow No. 15 (II-B, II-C)	Inorganic carbon	Little or no inorganic carbon is taken up this way	
Arrow No. 15 (II-C, II-B)	Inorganic carbon	No information available on root respiration rates and carbon dioxide release by roots	

(Continued)

Table A14 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 15 (II-C, II-B) (Continued)	Organic carbon	Release of organic carbon from roots to sediments in either dissolved or particulate form has not been documented	
II-C Periphytic algae	Organic carbon	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr	
	Microbenthic algae	400 Georgia (Sapelo Island)	Pomeroy, 1959
	Benthic algae	370 Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
	<u>Ulva lactuca</u>	785 New York	Udell et al., 1969
II-C Routed macrophytes	Organic carbon	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr	
	<u>Thalassia testudinum</u>	5660 Puerto Rico	Burkholder et al., 1959
	<u>Zostera marina</u>	2464 New York	Udell et al., 1969
	<u>Zostera marina</u>	66 Rhode Island	Nixon and Oviatt, 1973
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Inorganic carbon	Average concentration	Teal, 1967
		1.61 mg C/l Woods Hole, Mass.	
	Amino acids	10 ⁻⁵ moles/l--sea water, California coast	Stephans, 1967
		2.5 x 10 ⁻⁵ moles/l--interstitial water, California coast	
		10 ⁻⁵ - 10 ⁻⁴ moles/l inshore water, California coast	
	DOC--general	1.8-2.25 mg C/l--sea water	Field, 1972
	Dissolved organic matter	Material under m.w. 500	
		0.67 mg C/l Tokyo Bay	Ogura, 1975
	Total dissolved organic matter		
		2.89 mg C/l Tokyo Bay	Ogura, 1975
		1.41 mg C/l Sagami Bay	Ogura, 1975
		1.10 mg C/l W. North Pacific	Ogura, 1972
Arrow No. 17 (II-B, II-D)	Inorganic carbon	General evolution and release rates unknown	
	Methane		
	DOC		
Arrow No. 17 (II-D, II-B)	Inorganic carbon	General diffusion and sorption rates unknown	
	DOC		
Arrow No. 18 (II-D, II-E)	Inorganic carbon	0.2 mg C:l:hr	Teal, 1967
	Organic carbon	No data for phytoplankton as a whole	
Arrow No. 18 (II-E, II-D)	Inorganic carbon		
	Organic carbon	No estimates available for natural populations. Values for pure cultures vary	Hellebust, 1967
II-E Phytoplankton	Organic carbon	Production in g dry weight:m ² :yr	
		Washington	
		380 Upwelling north of river	Anderson, 1964
		220 River mouth	
		152 Ocean beyond river	Anderson, 1964
		150 River plume	
		New York	
		987 Hempstead Bay, Long Island	Udell et al., 1969
		512 Long Island Sound	Riley, 1956
		400 Shallow coastal water off New York	Ryther and Yentsch, 1958
		300 Continental Shelf area	Ryther and Yentsch, 1958
		250 Continental Slope	Ryther and Yentsch, 1958
		1368 Coastal water, Georgia	Thomas, 1966
		418 Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
II-F Detritus--microbial decomposers	POC	35-42 g/m ³ --Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Cruz-Orozco, 1970
Arrow No. 19 (II-E, II-G)	Organic carbon	75% of net annual production--Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 20 (II-C, II-G)	Organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 21 (II-C, II-F)	Organic carbon	No data	

(Continued)

(Sheet 4 of 6)

Table A14 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 22 (II-E, II-F)	Organic carbon	25% of net annual production (extrapolation) Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
II-G Estuarine herbivores	Organic carbon	2.5 g:m ² :yr zooplankton 1.0 g:m ² :yr others Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
II-H Detritivores	Organic carbon	3.48 g C:m ² :yr	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 23 (II-G, II-I)	Organic carbon	No data. Estimate of 21 g C:m ² :yr	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 24 (II-F, II-H)	Organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 24 (II-H, II-F)	Organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 25 (II-H, II-I)	Organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 26 (II-I, II-F)	Organic carbon	No data. Estimate of 9.53 g C:m ² :yr (top carnivore production) (Barataria Bay, La.)	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 27 (II-G, II-F)	Organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 28 (II-D, II-F)	DOC	Little direct transfer except for dissolved organic matter sorbed onto detritus and <u>de novo</u> synthesis of detritus from dissolved materials. No data	Baylor and Sutcliff, 1963
Arrow No. 28 (II-F, II-D)	DOC	Up to 82% of dry weight of <u>Zostera marina</u> can be leached out. No data for others	Harrison and Mann, 1975
Arrow No. 29 (II-H, II-D)	DOC	Urea--no data for populations	
	Inorganic carbon	Respiration--no data for populations	
Arrow No. 29 (II-D, II-H)	DOC	None	
Arrow No. 30 (II-D, II-I)	DOC	None	
Arrow No. 30 (II-I, II-D)	DOC	Urea--no data for populations	
	Inorganic carbon	Respiration--no data for populations	
II-I Estuarine carnivores	Organic carbon	21 g C:m ² :yr--Louisiana (Barataria Bay)	Day et al., 1973
Arrow No. 31 (II-D, II-G)	DOC	No data	
Arrow No. 31 (II-G, II-D)	DOC	Urea--no data for populations	
	Inorganic carbon	Respiration--no data for populations	
Arrow No. 33a (II-E, II-B)	Particulate organic matter	Primarily bones that contain carbonates plus undecomposable residues--no data	
33b (II-G, II-B)			
33c (II-I, II-B)			
33d (II-F, II-B)			
(II-B, II-F)			
33e (II-H, II-B)			
Arrow No. 34 (II-F1, II-F2)	Organic carbon	1 g detritus consumes 1 mg O ₂ /hr = 0.38 mg C:g detritus/hr <u>Limnea</u> feces consume 0.4-3.5 mg O ₂ : g:h = average 0.76 mg C:g feces:hr	Hargrave, 1972
Arrow No. 35A (flood)	Inorganic carbon	Probably have no net addition to marshes	
	Organic carbon	Most carbon brought onto marsh surface was originally generated there and is merely shuffled around by the tides	
Arrow No. 35B (ebb, flush, storm)	Inorganic carbon	20-30 ml CO ₂ /l water added by respiration of marsh grass roots/tidal cycle	Teal and Kanwisher, 1962
	POC	3.4 tons:ha marsh:yr = 1.36 tons C:ha marsh: yr = 50% of marsh grass production	Odum and de la Cruz, 1967
Arrow No. 36 (III, II-A)	DOC	Highly variable and watershed specific	
	Dissolved Inorganic carbon		

(Continued)

(Sheet 5 of 6)

Table A14 (Concluded)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 36 (II-A, III)		No valid estimates are available	
Arrow No. 37 (I, IV)	Inorganic carbon <u>Spartina</u> sp.	Respiration = $3664 \text{ g:m}^2\text{:yr} = 1546 \text{ g C:m}^2\text{:yr}$	Teal, 1962
Arrow No. 37 (IV, I)	Inorganic carbon <u>Spartina</u> sp.	<u>Spartina</u> sp. ₂ grass production = $8452 \text{ g:m}^2\text{:yr} = 3384 \text{ g C:m}^2\text{:yr}$	Teal, 1962
Arrow No. 38 (II-A, IV)	Inorganic carbon	$2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2\text{/sec}$ diffusion air → water	Teal, 1967
Arrow No. 38 (IV, II-A)	Inorganic carbon	$<2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2\text{/sec}$ diffusion water → air	
Arrow No. 39A (flood)	Inorganic and organic carbon	No data	
Arrow No. 39B (ebb)	Inorganic and organic carbon	Net export to gulf = 42.4% of net production available to estuary or 30% of total net production of estuary = 356 g C:m^2 over total estuary area	Day et al., 1973

Table A15

Cycling of Nitrogen in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the General Compartmental Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-A Marsh soil	Nitrogen	Percent nitrogen content of marsh soils (Louisiana coast): saline vegetative type 0.44, brackish type 0.72	Chabreck, 1972
Arrow No. 1 (I-A, I-B)	Inorganic nitrogen (nitrate, ammonium)	Nitrogen is limiting to plant growth; uptake rated in soil not detailed	Teal and Teal, 1969
Arrow No. 1 (I-B, I-A)	Organic nitrogen (dissolved and particulate) marsh grass roots	Evolution rates not detailed	
Arrow No. 2 (I-A, I-C)	Inorganic nitrogen (nitrate, ammonium)	Route for N supply to algae living within soil matrix--no data	
Arrow No. 2 (I-C, I-A)	Dissolved organic nitrogen	Excretion and lysis of algae source of dissolved organic nitrogen. Amount unknown	
	Particulate organic nitrogen	Cell death provides organic nitrogen to soil	
I-B Marsh grasses		Percent nitrogen content	
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u> leaves	0.8 live plants, North Carolina 0.7 dead plants	Broome et al., 1973
		0.7 live plants, Georgia 0.7 dead plants	Gallagher, 1975a
		2.12 New York	Burkholder, 1956
		1.40	Hall et al., 1970
		0.54	Tachdjian, 1954
		2.23	Udell et al., 1969
		1.31	Stuckey, 1970
		1.18	Williams, 1972
	<u>Spartina cynosuroides</u> leaves	0.45 Georgia 1.20 Florida	de la Cruz, 1973 Johnson, 1970
	Organic nitrogen	Percent nitrogen content:	
	<u>Spartina patens</u> leaves	1.04 Louisiana	Chabreck, 1972
	<u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> leaves	0.46 Mississippi Gulf Coast 0.85	Gabriel and de la Cruz, 1974 Stuckey, 1970
		1.45 Louisiana coastal marshes	Chabreck, 1972
	Live	1.20 live, Georgia	Gallagher, 1975a
	Dead	0.8 dead, Georgia	Gallagher, 1975a
	<u>Distichlis spicata</u>	1.38 Louisiana	Chabreck, 1972
	<u>Scirpus robustus</u>	1.37 Louisiana	Chabreck, 1972
Arrow No. 3 (I-B, I-E)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 4 (I-B, I-D)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
I-C Soil algae	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen content of marsh algae	
Arrow No. 6 (I-C, I-E)	Particulate organic nitrogen	No data	
I-D Herbivores	Organic nitrogen	No data	
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposers	Organic nitrogen	Percent nitrogen content of detritus:	
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	2.12 2.23 1.18 1.31	Burkholder, 1956 Udell et al., 1969 Williams, 1972 Stuckey, 1970
	<u>Spartina cynosuroides</u>	0.45 1.20	de la Cruz, 1973 Johnson, 1970
	<u>Juncus Roemerianus</u>	0.78 0.95	de la Cruz, 1973 Williams, 1972
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposers	Organic nitrogen	Percent nitrogen content of detritus	
	<u>Distichlis spicata</u>	0.46 0.85	de la Cruz, 1973 Stuckey, 1970
Arrow No. 7 (I-D, I-G)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 8 (I-D, I-E)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 9 (I-E, I-F)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 9 (I-F, I-E)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 10 (I-F, I-G)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 11 (I-G, I-E)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
I-F Marsh detritivores	Organic nitrogen	No data for detritivore populations	
Arrow No. 12 (I-E1, I-E2)	Organic nitrogen	Computed from tabulated data:	
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	16.98 g N:m ² :yr	de la Cruz, 1973
	<u>Juncus Roemerianus</u>	3.00 g N:m ² :yr	
	<u>Distichlis spicata</u>	4.01 g N:m ² :yr	
Arrow No. 13 (I-A, I-B)		No data	
Arrow No. 13 (I-E, I-A)		No data	
Arrow No. 14 (I-B, I-C)		No data	
Arrow No. 15 (I-B, I-C)	Inorganic nitrogen	No data	

(Continued)

(Sheet 1 of 4)

Table A15 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 15 (II-C, II-B)	Organic nitrogen	Excretion of dissolved organic nitrogen and exfoliation of particulate organic materials into estuarine sediments from rooted macrophytes not quantified	
II-B Estuarine sediments	Ammonium nitrogen	0.01-0.37 mg NH ₃ -N/g dry weight sediment (Florida, Waccasassa)	Brooks et al., 1971
	Dissolved free amino acids	Concentration in interstitial water = 350 µg/l (California coast)	Clark et al., 1972
	Ammonium	Concentration in interstitial water (Louisiana): John the Fool Bayou 690 mg/l Airplane Lake 6.45 mg/l	Ho and Lane, 1973
	Free α amino acid-N	John the Fool Bayou 4.13 mg/l Airplane Lake 7.33 mg/l	Ho and Lane, 1973
	Combined amino acid-N	John the Fool Bayou 4.63 mg/l Airplane Lake 2.46 mg/l	Ho and Lane, 1973
	Total N	John the Fool Bayou 17.66 Airplane Lake 18.82	Ho and Lane, 1973
	Total nitrogen	0.39%	Ho, 1971
	Within sediment nitrogen fixation	3.7 g N:m ² :yr Waccasassa Estuary, Florida 113 mg N:m ² :yr - comparative freshwater rate, Lake Mize 4.9 × 10 ⁻³ mg N:9 sed:yr @ 20°C - comparative marine rate - Pacific Ocean	Brooks et al., 1971 Keirn and Brezonik, 1971 Maruyama et al., 1973
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen contents of benthic algae and rooted macrophytes	
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (total inorganic N)	17.71 µg N/l Pamlico River Estuary 0.315 mg N/l John the Fool Bayou 0.200 mg N/l Airplane Lake 0.13 mg N/l Lake Palourde	Harrison, 1973 Ho et al., 1970
	Ammonium-1	389 µg N/l polluted zone, Scheldt Estuary, Belgium 6.65 µg N/l Pamlico River Estuary 220 µg N/l Lake Mize, Florida, comparative freshwater value	Billen, 1974 Harrison, 1973 Keirn and Brezonik, 1971
	Nitrate-N	21 µg N/l Scheldt Estuary, Belgium 10.97 µg N/l Pamlico River Estuary 0.09 µg N/l Pamlico River Estuary	Billen, 1974 Harrison, 1973
	Organic nitrogen dissolved free amino acid	115 µg N/l surface waters, coastal California 170 µg N/l - bottom waters, coastal California ≈ 10 ⁻⁵ m/l sea water 10 ⁻⁴ - 10 ⁻⁵ m/l inshore water	Clark et al., 1972 Stephans, 1967
	Total organic nitrogen	0.96 mg N/l, Lake Mize, Florida, comparative freshwater value	Keirn and Brezonik, 1971
Arrow No. 17 (II-B, II-D)	Nitrate nitrogen	0.14 µg N/m ² /sec flux from sediment to water in a nitrification zone, Scheldt Estuary, Belgium	Billen, 1974
	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 17 (II-D, II-B)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 18 (II-D, II-E)	Nitrate-nitrogen	Nitrate Half-Saturation Values:	Carpenter and Guillard, 1971
	<u>Cyclotella nana</u>	µg NO ₃ ⁻ / µg N/l	
	3H	115.94 26.18	
	7-15	73.78 16.66	
	13-1	23.56 5.23	
	<u>Fragilaria pinnata</u>		
	13-3	30.44 8.68	
	0-12	101.68 22.96	
	<u>Bellerophia sp.</u>		
	SD	15.50 3.50	
	675D	7.44 1.68	
	Sag-7	425.94 96.18	

(Continued)

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Table A15 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name, Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
	Ammonium and Nitrate-N	Ammonium and nitrate nitrogen half-saturation values:	
		$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}(\mu\text{gN}/\ell)$ $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}(\mu\text{gN}/\ell)$	Eppley et al., 1971
	<u>Ditylum brightwelli</u>	8.40 15.40	
	<u>Coccinodiscus lineatus</u>	33.60 39.20 39.20 16.80	
	<u>Coccinodiscus wallerii</u>	29.40 60.20 71.40 77.00	
	<u>Asterionella japonica</u>	9.80 21.00 18.2 8.4	
	<u>Gonaulox polyedra</u>	120.40 79.80	
	<u>Gymnodinium splendens</u>	53.20 15.40	
	Inorganic nitrogen ammonium	5.7×10^{-3} $\mu\text{g N}:\ell:\text{day}$ mean uptake for mixed plankton sample	Dugdale and Goering, 1967
	Ammonium plus nitrate	Average nitrate uptake with ammonium in the same water = 8.3% (4.7×10^{-4} $\mu\text{g N}:\ell:\text{day}$) Half-saturation constants ($\mu\text{moles}/\ell$) at 18°C for cultured marine phytoplankton	
	Oceanic species	$\mu\text{g NO}_3\text{-N } \ell$ $\mu\text{g NH}_4\text{-N } \ell$	Eppley et al., 1971
	<u>Coccolithus huxleyi</u>	1.4 1.4	
	<u>Chaetoceros gracilis</u>	4.2, 1.4 7.0, 4.2	
	<u>Cyclotella nana</u>	4.2, 9.8 5.6	
	<u>Skeletonema costatum</u>	7, 5.6 50.40, 11.20	
	<u>Leptocylindrus danicus</u>	18.2, 16.8 47.6, 12.6	
	<u>Rhizosolenia stouterfothii</u>	49, 35 78.4, 130.2	
		$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}(\mu\text{gN}/\ell)$ $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}(\mu\text{gN}/\ell)$	
	<u>Monochrysis lutheri</u>	8.4 7.0	Eppley et al., 1971
	<u>Isochrysis galbana</u>	1.4 --	
	<u>Dunaliella tertiolecta</u>	19.60 1.4	
II-E Phytoplankton	Organic nitrogen	No fixation of nitrogen in the tidal water column. Flax Pond, Long Island	Whitney et al., 1975
	<u>Aphanizomenon flos-aquae</u>	Nitrogen fixation by blue-green algae in fresh water = 1.8 $\text{g}:\text{m}^2:\text{yr}$	Horne and Goldman, 1972
	<u>Anabaena circinalis</u>		
	Total nitrogen	1 - 10% of dry weight of cells = 0.16 - 1.6 $\text{mg N}/\ell$	Fowden, 1962
II-F Detritus microbial decomposers	Organic nitrogen <u>Juncus Roemerianus</u> leaves	During 36-day incubation period, particulate detritus decomposed 50 percent while relative nitrogen content increased from 0.44 to 1.21 percent	de la Cruz and Gabriel, 1974
Arrow No. 19 (II-E, II-G)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 20 (II-C, II-G)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 21 (II-C, II-F)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 22 (II-E, II-F)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
II-G Herbivores	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen content of herbivore populations	
II-H Detritivores	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen content of detritivore populations	
Arrow No. 23 (II-G, II-I)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 24 (II-F, II-H)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 24 (II-F, II-H)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 25 (II-H, II-I)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 26 (II-I, II-B)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 27 (II-G, II-F)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 28 (II-D, II-F)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 28 (II-F, II-D)		No data	
Arrow No. 29 (II-D, II-H)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	Does not occur	
Arrow No. 29 (II-H, II-D)	Organic nitrogen	Urea excretion not determined for populations of detritivores	
Arrow No. 30 (II-D, II-I)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	Does not occur	

(Continued)

(Sheet 3 of 4)

Table A15 (Concluded)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
Arrow No. 30 (II-I, II-D)	Organic nitrogen	Urea excretion not determined for populations of carnivores	
II-I Carnivores	Organic nitrogen	Nitrogen content not studied for populations of carnivores	
Arrow No. 31 (II-G, II-D)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	Does not occur	
	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	Urea and ammonium excretion not determined for populations of herbivores	
Arrow No. 32 (II-A, II-B)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen removal to sediments either sorbed to precipitating materials or as a component of them	
Arrow No. 33a-e	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen removal to sediments in the form of dead organisms	
Arrow No. 34 (II-F1, II-F2)	Total inorganic nitrogen	Average release of total inorganic nitrogen accompanying decomposition of mixed plankton = 0.067 $\mu\text{g N}/\ell/\text{day}^{-1}$	Ryther and Dunstan, 1971
Arrow No. 34 (II-F2, II-F1)	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 35A (II, I)	Organic nitrogen	Nitrogen contained in detritus is reshuffled by tides that move the material around on the marsh. Amount of nitrogen so affected not measured	
	Nitrate nitrogen	1.3 kg N/tide. Flax Pond, Long Island	Whitney et al., 1975
Arrow No. 35B (I&III, II)	Organic nitrogen		
	Nitrate nitrogen	5.4 kg N/tide - Flax Pond, Long Island	Whitney et al., 1975
Arrow No. 36 (II-A, III)	Organic nitrogen	Organic nitrogen moving upstream as fish not assessed	
Arrow No. 36 (III, II-A)	Total inorganic nitrogen	Average nitrate plus ammonia input of river water estimated from U. S. Geological Survey water resources data = 0.1 mg $\text{N}\ell^{-1}$	Haines, 1975
	Organic nitrogen	No data	
Arrow No. 37 (I, IV)	Inorganic nitrogen (molecular and nitrous oxide)	Loss up to 17% of total nitrogen in 120 days	Patrick and Gotoh, 1974
		7.64 ppm $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}/\text{day}$ microbial NO_3 removal from floodwater over salt marsh	Engler and Patrick, 1974
	Inorganic nitrogen (molecular and nitrous oxide) (Continued)	One-half to two-thirds of labelled N lost during 4 months of incubation. Fifteen to 20% of total soil nitrogen lost as a result of alternate submergence and drying	Patrick and Tusneem, 1972
Arrow No. 37 (IV, I)	Inorganic nitrogen	Nitrogen fixation rates	
	Marsh soils	Top 4 cm of all sediments	
		12-800 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}^{-1}$ - Flax Pond, Long Island	Whitney et al., 1975
	Stagnant pools	8.6-800 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}$ - Flax Pond, Long Island	
	Panne	63.5 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}$ - Flax Pond, Long Island	
	Mudflat	136.0 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}$ - Flax Pond, Long Island	
	<u>Spartina</u> sediments		
	Tall form	116.0 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}$	Whitney et al., 1975
	Dwarf form	65.1 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}$	
	Inorganic nitrogen	Fixation by algae on marsh soil surface - mg $\text{N:m}^2\text{:hr}$	Van Raalte et al., 1974
		June 1972 - 159.5 - Massachusetts	
		August 1972 - 12.13 - Massachusetts	
		May 1973 - 97.7 - Massachusetts	
		June 1973 - 161.3 - Massachusetts	
		Blue-green algae mats - 59.9 $\mu\text{g N:cm}^2\text{:hr}$ - Massachusetts	
		Blue-green algae mats - 260-8900 $\mu\text{g N:m}^2\text{:hr}^{-1}$ - Flax Pond, Massachusetts	Whitney et al., 1975
Arrow No. 38 (II-A, IV)	Organic nitrogen	No data on nitrogen content of marsh algae	
	Molecular nitrogen	No data	
	estuarine water		
Arrow No. 38 (IV, II-A)	Molecular nitrogen	No data	
	atmosphere		
Arrow No. 39A (V, II)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen in estuary waters	No data	
Arrow No. 39B (II, V)	Organic and inorganic nitrogen in ocean waters	No data	

Table A16

Cycling of Phosphorus in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the General Compartmental Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-A Marsh soil	Total phosphorus in soil	Saline vegetative type of soil, average of 0.06 ppt. Brackish vegetative type of soil, average of 0.004 ppt. Both from the Louisiana Gulf coast	Chabreck, 1972
Arrow No. 1 (I-A, I-B)	Inorganic phosphorus	Label in soil moves into plant in maximum concentration in 10-15 days post-addition	Reimold, 1972
Arrow No. 1 (I-B, I-A)	Organic phosphorus	No data on amount of organic phosphorus excreted by grass roots or organic phosphorus lost to soil by sloughing of root and rhizome tissues	
Arrow No. 2 (I-A, I-C)	Inorganic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 2 (I-C, I-A)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
I-B Marsh grasses	Phosphorus in marsh grasses	Percent phosphorus content	
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	0.25 - Georgia marshes	Burkholder, 1956
	<u>Spartina cynosuroides</u>	0.10 - Gulf coast marshes	de la Cruz, 1973
		0.14 - Atlantic coast marshes	Johnson, 1970
	<u>Spartina patens</u>	0.04 - Louisiana coastal marshes	Chabreck, 1972
	<u>Juncus roemerianus</u>	0.24 - Gulf coast marshes	de la Cruz, 1973
	<u>Distichlis spicata</u>	0.11 - Louisiana coastal marshes	Chabreck, 1972
	<u>Scirpus robustus</u>	0.08 - Louisiana coastal marshes	Chabreck, 1972
Arrow No. 3 (I-B, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 4 (I-B, I-D)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
I-C Soil and epiphytic algae	Total phosphorus	Phosphorus content (Note: examples are mainly freshwater phytoplanktons)	
	<u>Asterionella formosa</u>	6×10^{-8} to 4×10^{-6} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$	Lund, 1950
	Algae in general	Minimum phosphorus requirement in culture experiments	Mackereth, 1953
		6×10^{-8} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$	
	<u>Asterionella japonica</u>	5×10^{-8} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$	Goldberg et al., 1951
	<u>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</u>	Minimum content = 1×10^{-7} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$ Maximum content = 1.5×10^{-6} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$	Al Kholy, 1956
	<u>Scenedesmus quadricauda</u>	9.2×10^{-7} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$ - 8.7×10^{-6} $\mu\text{g P/cell}$	Franzew, 1932
Arrow No. 5 (I-C, I-D)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 6 (I-C, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 7 (I-D, I-G)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 8 (I-D, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 9 (I-F, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 9 (I-E, I-F)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 10 (I-F, I-G)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 11 (I-G, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
I-F Detritivores	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 12 (I-E1, I-E2)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 12 (I-E2, I-E1)	(Particulate and dissolved)	No data	
I-E (1 and ?) Detritus-microbial decomposers	Organic phosphorus (particulate and dissolved)	No data	
Arrow No. 13 (I-E, I-A)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 13 (I-A, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
Arrow No. 14 (I-B, I-E)	Organic phosphorus	No data	
I-G Carnivores	Organic phosphorus	No data	

(Continued)

* Fresh water.

** $8 \mu\text{g-atoms P/l}$ originally in water.

(Sheet 1 of 4)

Table A16 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name, Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference																																		
Arrow No. 15 (II-B, II-C)	Inorganic phosphorus	From interstitial water in root zone into eelgrass - 0.34 $\mu\text{g P/plant}$ Sediment phosphorus sorption by <u>Myriophyllum exalbescens</u> (fresh water, milfoil) Muck - 911 cpm:g dry weight:8 hr Sand - 14,016 cpm:g dry weight:8 hr	McRoy and Barsdate, 1970 DeMarte and Hartman, 1974																																		
Arrow No. 15 (II-C, II-B)	Organic phosphorus	No data on amount of organic phosphorus lost by plants by excretion into sediments or by sloughing of roots and rhizomes																																			
II-B Estuarine sediment	Available phosphorus																																				
II-B - Estuary sediment	Available phosphorus	Freshwater sediment = 1.6 $\mu\text{g P/g}$ of sediment 18 ppt salinity sediment = 0.3 $\mu\text{g P/g}$ of sediment Both from Pamlico Estuary	Upchurch et al., 1974																																		
	Total phosphorus	Data available for freshwater mud only	Harter, 1968																																		
	Total phosphorus	230 mg/100 g mud																																			
	NH ₄ -F soluble P	19 mg/100 g mud																																			
	NaOH soluble P	27 mg/100 g mud																																			
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Organic phosphorus	No data available for individual species of macrophytes. For examples of data on various algae, see Compartment I-C, Soil and Epiphytic Algae, this section																																			
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Dissolved and particulate phosphorus	Halifax, Nova Scotia, coastal waters	Watt and Hayes, 1963																																		
	Dissolved	Percent of total and equivalent amounts																																			
	Inorganic phosphorus	0.9% = 0.35 $\mu\text{g-atoms P/l}$																																			
	Particulate phosphorus	75.8% = 2.98 $\mu\text{g-atoms P/l}$ 15.3% = 0.60 $\mu\text{g-atoms P/l}$																																			
	Interconversion rates	Between dissolved inorganic phosphorus and particulate phosphorus 0.23 $\mu\text{g-atoms P:l:day}$ Between particulate phosphorus and dissolved organic phosphorus 1.2 $\mu\text{g-atoms P:l:day}$																																			
	Normal phosphate	0.23-0.29 $\mu\text{g P/l}$ Georgia estuaries	Pomeroy et al., 1965																																		
	Phosphorus in estuarine water	1.25 $\mu\text{g P/l}$ Sapelo Island, Georgia	Pomeroy, 1960																																		
	Brackish seawater	2.9 $\mu\text{g at P/l}$ (30% salinity)	Ketchum, 1967																																		
	Surface coastal water	0.5 $\mu\text{g at P/l}$ (30.95% salinity)																																			
	Deep ocean water	1.25 $\mu\text{g at P/l}$ (34% salinity)																																			
Arrow No. 17 (II-B, II-D)	Inorganic phosphorus	Phosphorus in Equilibrium Between Sediment and Water (Fresh Water)	MacPherson et al., 1958																																		
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th rowspan="2">pH</th> <th colspan="2">Pro-duc-tive</th> <th colspan="2">Unpro-duc-tive</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Acid Bog Lake</th> <th>Medium Lake</th> <th>Medium Lake</th> <th>Acid Lake</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>4</td> <td>0.17 mg/l</td> <td>0.25</td> <td>0.05</td> <td>0.025</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5</td> <td>0.15 mg/l</td> <td>0.22</td> <td>0.05</td> <td>0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6</td> <td>0.17 mg/l</td> <td>0.20</td> <td>0.075</td> <td>0.075</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7</td> <td>0.2 mg/l</td> <td>0.18</td> <td>0.15</td> <td>0.125</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8</td> <td>0.3 mg/l</td> <td>0.30</td> <td>0.35</td> <td>0.2</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	pH	Pro-duc-tive		Unpro-duc-tive		Acid Bog Lake	Medium Lake	Medium Lake	Acid Lake	4	0.17 mg/l	0.25	0.05	0.025	5	0.15 mg/l	0.22	0.05	0.05	6	0.17 mg/l	0.20	0.075	0.075	7	0.2 mg/l	0.18	0.15	0.125	8	0.3 mg/l	0.30	0.35	0.2	
pH	Pro-duc-tive			Unpro-duc-tive																																	
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7	0.2 mg/l	0.18	0.15	0.125																																	
8	0.3 mg/l	0.30	0.35	0.2																																	
	Extractable phosphorus from submerged soil	10-35 ppm, depending on redox potential, +500+ +200 mV	Patrick, 1964																																		
	Phosphorus release to water*	Final Concentration of Phosphorus (ppm)	Patrick, 1964																																		
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th rowspan="2">pH</th> <th colspan="2">Phosphorus (ppm)</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Aerobic</th> <th>Anaerobic</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>5.4</td> <td>0.02</td> <td>2.92</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6.1</td> <td>0.002</td> <td>0.005</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6.8</td> <td>0.14</td> <td>4.48</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6.5</td> <td>0.03</td> <td>1.17</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	pH	Phosphorus (ppm)		Aerobic	Anaerobic	5.4	0.02	2.92	6.1	0.002	0.005	6.8	0.14	4.48	6.5	0.03	1.17																		
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(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 4)

Table A16 (Concluded)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference																														
	Dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP)	Estuarine water to protozoan: DIP remaining in water after ($\mu\text{g atoms}/\text{L}$)	Johannes, 1965																														
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Organism</th> <th>1 day</th> <th>7 day</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td><u>Euplotes vannus</u></td> <td>0.18</td> <td>3.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #11</td> <td>0.11</td> <td>2.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #13</td> <td>0.11</td> <td>2.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mixed ciliates</td> <td>0.21</td> <td>4.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #2</td> <td>0.08</td> <td>6.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #4</td> <td>0.23</td> <td>4.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #6</td> <td>0.17</td> <td>3.8</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ciliate #14</td> <td>0.16</td> <td>2.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Bacterial control</td> <td>0.19</td> <td>0.6</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Organism	1 day	7 day	<u>Euplotes vannus</u>	0.18	3.1	Ciliate #11	0.11	2.0	Ciliate #13	0.11	2.0	Mixed ciliates	0.21	4.0	Ciliate #2	0.08	6.0	Ciliate #4	0.23	4.5	Ciliate #6	0.17	3.8	Ciliate #14	0.16	2.1	Bacterial control	0.19	0.6	
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Arrow No. 28 (II-F, II-D)	Organic phosphorus	Particulate fraction to lake water = 0.022/min Colloid fraction to lake water = 0.0017/min Phosphorus excretion rates (body equivalent contents)	Lean, 1973 Johannes, 1965																														
		<table border="1"> <tbody> <tr> <td><u>Euplotes crassus</u></td> <td>160 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Euplotes vannus</u></td> <td>20 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Euplotes trisulcatus</u></td> <td>43 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Uronema</u> sp.</td> <td>14 min</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	<u>Euplotes crassus</u>	160 min	<u>Euplotes vannus</u>	20 min	<u>Euplotes trisulcatus</u>	43 min	<u>Uronema</u> sp.	14 min																							
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		Bacteria to protozoa to water - 9-10 days of turnover time (31-85% of dissolved inorganic phosphorus concentration) Bacteria to water - 9-10 days of turnover time (<1% of phosphorus in culture)																															
Arrow No. 29 (II-D, II-H)	Inorganic phosphorus	Does not occur																															
Arrow No. 29 (II-H, II-D)	Inorganic phosphorus	Phosphorus excretion data:																															
	Oysters	0.2 \pm 0.03 $\mu\text{g-atoms P/g/hr}$ spring	Satomi and Pomeroy, 1965																														
	Detritus feeders	0.2 \pm 0.06 $\mu\text{g-atoms P/g/hr}$ summer 2.4-8.2 mg/m ²	Pomeroy et al., 1972																														
Arrow No. 30 (II-D, II-I)	Inorganic phosphorus	Does not occur																															
Arrow No. 30 (II-I, II-D)	Inorganic and organic phosphorus	Excretion by <u>Fundulus</u> and <u>Notemigonus</u> to water - 2 cpm/gP in organism	Coffin et al., 1949																														
Arrow No. 31 (II-D, II-G)	Inorganic phosphorus	Does not occur																															
Arrow No. 31 (II-G, II-D)	Inorganic and organic phosphorus	Excretion by zooplankton to water 7.9 \pm 0.8 $\mu\text{g-atoms P:g:hr}$	Satomi and Pomeroy, 1965																														
	Orthophosphate phosphorus	Excretion by zooplankton to water 950 $\mu\text{g-atoms P:m}^3\text{:day}$ = 4.71 mg P:g dry plankton:day	Pomeroy et al., 1963																														
	Soluble organic phosphorus	Excretion by zooplankton to water 862 $\mu\text{g-atoms P:m}^3\text{:day}$ = 4.55 mg P:g dry plankton:day	Pomeroy et al., 1963																														
	Inorganic phosphorus	Excretion by <u>Daphnia rosea</u> to water (fresh): Rate - 0.08 $\mu\text{g P:m}^3\text{dry weight:hr}$ Net - 0.823 $\mu\text{g P:m}^3\text{dry weight}$	Peters and Lean, 1973																														
Arrow No. 32-34 and 36-40 (All Compartments)	Organic and inorganic phosphorus	No data																															
Arrow No. 35A (II, I)	Dissolved phosphorus (organic and inorganic)	No data on uptake from waters by salt marshes																															
Arrow No. 35B (I, II)	Dissolved inorganic phosphorus*	Excretion by marsh grasses into tidal waters = 9.84 mg-atoms P/m/(tidal cycle)	Reimold, 1972																														

* General Turnover Times for Inorganic Phosphorus in Georgia Coastal Waters

Doboy Sound	50 hr light, 69 hr dark (February)	Pomeroy, 1963
Doboy Inlet	4 hr light or dark (April)	
Coastal water	34 hr light, 73 hr dark (April)	
Sapelo salt marsh water	11 hr light, 49 hr dark	
Altamaha River (Nostocae bloom)	1 hr light, 9 hr dark (May)	

Table A17

Cycling of Sulfur in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the General Compartmental Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference																				
I-A Marsh soil	Inorganic sulfur Sulfides-sulfates Organic sulfur	Oxidation of inorganic sulfide Rapid in soil under aerobic conditions One-half of sulfide oxidized in 15 min All sulfide oxidized in 18 hr Reduction of sulfate requires redox < -150 mV	Connell and Patrick, 1969																				
Arrow No. 1 (I-A, I-B)	Inorganic sulfur*	Uptake of inorganic sulfides by rice plants in flooded soil:	Engler and Patrick, 1975																				
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Solubility Product Constant (Ksp)</th> <th>Percent Uptake of Added S =</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Na₂S</td> <td>1.0 × 10⁻¹</td> <td>4.49</td> </tr> <tr> <td>MnS</td> <td>1.4 × 10⁻¹⁵</td> <td>0.62</td> </tr> <tr> <td>FeS</td> <td>3.7 × 10⁻¹⁹</td> <td>0.43</td> </tr> <tr> <td>ZnS</td> <td>1.2 × 10⁻²³</td> <td>0.38</td> </tr> <tr> <td>CuS</td> <td>3.5 × 10⁻³⁸</td> <td>0.18</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HgS</td> <td>1.0 × 10⁻⁵⁰</td> <td>0</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Solubility Product Constant (Ksp)	Percent Uptake of Added S =	Na ₂ S	1.0 × 10 ⁻¹	4.49	MnS	1.4 × 10 ⁻¹⁵	0.62	FeS	3.7 × 10 ⁻¹⁹	0.43	ZnS	1.2 × 10 ⁻²³	0.38	CuS	3.5 × 10 ⁻³⁸	0.18	HgS	1.0 × 10 ⁻⁵⁰	0	
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HgS	1.0 × 10 ⁻⁵⁰	0																					
Arrow No. 1 (I-B, I-A)	Organic sulfur	No data																					
I-B Marsh grasses	Total (organic sulfur) <u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	Percent total content (North Carolina)	Broome et al., 1973																				
	Tall form	0.48																					
	Short form	0.75																					
II-B Estuarine sediment	Sulfide-sulfur	Sulfide production in 10 cm. Mud cores from fresh water: 0.5-1.5 mg S ²⁻ :(kg wet sediment) ⁻¹ :(day) deepest part of lake 12-19 mg S ²⁻ :(kg wet sediment) ⁻¹ :(day) slope of lake Sulfide production in laboratory mixed cultures containing sulfate reducing bacteria: 10-45 mg S ²⁻ :ℓ ⁻¹ :day	Ivanov, 1968 Nakai and Jensen, 1964																				
Arrow No. 28 (II-F, II-D)	Sulfide-sulfur	Production of sulfide in detritus mixtures: 10-45 mg S ²⁻ :ℓ ⁻¹ :day by decomposition of algal extracts and sediments	Ranim and Bella, 1974																				
	Sulfide-sulfur	Production of sulfide by sediment bacteria: <u>Desulfovibrio desulfuricans</u> - pure batch cultures Growing populations 200-250 mg S ²⁻ :ℓ ⁻¹ :day Stable populations 100-150 mg S ²⁻ :ℓ ⁻¹ :day Field determination in lake water using ³⁵ S: 0.1-0.2 mg S ²⁻ :ℓ ⁻¹ :day In muds collected from slope of lake near river mouth: 10-15 mg S ²⁻ :(kg wet sediment) ⁻¹ :day	Edwards, 1967 Sorokin, 1970																				
No other data																							

* This and preceding sulfides were unstable in aerobic soil with degree of oxidation of sulfide by oxygen in soil adjacent to root zones responsible for making sulfur accessible for uptake.

Table A18 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage			Reference
		cm	g/m ²	Total, %	
I-A Marsh soil	Pit No. 2 (Continued)	38-117	0.9	12	
		117-140	1.7	22	
			7.7		
	Pit No. 3	0-19	1.5	29	
		19-25	0.2	4	
		25-51	0.4	8	
		51-81	0.5	10	
		81-89	0.2	4	
		89-163	2.3	45	
		Average	5.1		
		Average Cone	6.5 ppb		
	Total lead	Concentration of lead in sediment cores from areas where <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> was growing:			Banus et al., 1974
		0-10 cm	912.5 ppm	Neponset River Marsh	
		60 cm	15.5 ppm		
		0-10 cm	98.1 ppm	Barnstable River Marsh	
		10-13 cm	38.8 ppm		
		0-2 cm	66.0 ppm	Great Sippewissett Marsh	
		9-10 cm	50.0 ppm		
		15-16 cm	63.0 ppm		
	I-B Marsh grasses	Total lead <u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	Mean lead content of live and dead plants (ppm of oven-dried materials)		
Live plants		1971	Control	6.8 ppm	
			LF	9.8 ppm	
			HF	12.3 ppm	
		1972	Control	2.3 ppm	
			LF	3.2 ppm	
			HF	4.8 ppm	
Dead plants		1972	Control	10.8 ppm	
			HF	10.3 ppm	
<u>Spartina patens</u>					
Live plants only		1971	Control	5.8 ppm	
			LF	7.8 ppm	
			HF	7.8 ppm	
		1972	Control	2.6 ppm	
			LF	1.8 ppm	
	HF		5.0 ppm		
Comparative lead levels in grasses on natural and dredged material soils in ppm/ μ (dry weight of grass)				Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974	
	<u>Dredged Material</u>	<u>Natural Marsh</u>			
<u>Phragmites communis</u>	4.4 + 5.3	0.5 + 0.6			
<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	5.1 + 1.2	1.9 + 0.7			
<u>Spartina patens</u>	9.1 + 2.9	0.8 + 1.4			
Average contents: 14.0 ppm for grasses on dredged material, 2.0 ppm for grasses on natural soils					
Average lead concentrations in <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> from several Georgia area salt marsh estuaries in μ g/(g dry weight of aboveground and rhizome)				Dunstan and Windom, 1975	
	5.35 Santee River				
	4.2 Cooper River				

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 4)

Table A18 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-B Marsh grasses (Continued)	Total lead <u>Spartina alterniflora</u> (Continued)	5.2 Savannah River 4.2 Altamaha River 2.6 Satilla River 2.83 St. Johns River Average 4.06 $\mu\text{g/g}$	
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	23.2 ppm Neponset Marsh 5.4 ppm Barnstable Marsh 6.8 ppm Great Sippewissett Marsh Average 13.2-- values from several Massa- chusetts salt marshes	Banus et al., 1974
II-E Detritus-microbial decomposers	Total lead	Mean concentration of lead in detritus from tidal creek sediments: 1972 Control 77 ppm LF 62 ppm HF 106 ppm	Banus et al., 1975
	Acid-soluble lead	Concentration in detritus from dredged ma- terial grown plants: 11.5 ppm Concentration in acid-soluble fraction of detritus on marsh creek surfaces: Control 77.3 ppm LF 105.8 ppm HF 65.3 ppm Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass.	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974 Valiela et al., 1974
I-F Marsh detritivores	Total lead <u>Modiolus demissus</u>	Averages for 2 yr (1971-1972): Control 2.7 ppm LF 3.1 ppm HF 2.6 ppm	Banus et al., 1975 Valiela et al., 1974
	<u>Uca pugnax</u>	Control 0.7 ppm LF 3.0 ppm HF 7.5 ppm	
II-B Estuarine sediments	Total lead	Fresh water example: Ottawa River 26 ppb Rideau River 42 ppb Suspended estuarine sediment: 82 $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight of sediment})$ Suspended sediment entering estuary from river: 87 $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight of sediment})$ Above are averages for southeast coastal marsh-estuaries	Oliver, 1973 Dunstan and Windom, 1975

(Continued)

(Sheet 3 of 4)

Table A18 (Concluded)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
II-B Estuarine sediments (Continued)	Methyl lead	Methylation of lead in aquatic sediments (no estuarine studies to date; all fresh water) Trimethyl lead to tetramethyl lead - 6 percent/week	Wong et al., 1975
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Total lead <u>Macrocystis pyrifera</u>	Average concentration in $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g ash weight}) = 6.5 \pm 1.6$	Boothe and Knauer, 1972
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Soluble lead	1.5 ppb in water 2.2 ppb in estuarine water 2.3 ppb in river water (via Arrow No. 36 III, IIA) Above are averages for southeast area marsh-estuaries Average concentrations during various times of year, Monterey Bay, California: Period of intense coastal upwelling = 1 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$ Period of low upwelling = 0.5 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$ Period of oceanic dominance = 0.4 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$ Period of mixing = 1.8 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$ Average value for Pacific Ocean = 0.4 $\mu\text{g}/\ell$	Dunstan et al., 1975 Knauer and Martin, 1973
II-E Phytoplankton	Total lead	Pond ecosystems in salt marshes established on dredged material: 29.0 ppm (Virginia) Phytoplankton in Monterey Bay, California: Period of intense upwelling = 5 $\mu\text{g}/$ (g dry weight) Period of low upwelling = 5 $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight})$ Period of oceanic dominance = 10 $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight})$	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974 Knauer and Martin, 1973
II-G Herbivores	Total lead <u>Cyprinodon varigatus</u> <u>Gambusia affinis</u>	Herbivores in pond ecosystems in salt marshes established on dredged material (Virginia) 3.3 ppm 8.4 ppm	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974
II-H Detritivores	Total lead <u>Palaemonetes pugio</u> (shrimp) <u>Mercenaria mercenaria</u> (clam) <u>Crassostrea virginica</u> (oysters)	Detritivores in pond ecosystems in salt marshes established on dredged material: 11.0 ppm 2.8 \pm 0.6 ppm <1 ppm	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974 Valiela et al., 1974
II-I Carnivores	Total lead	Carnivores in pond ecosystems in salt marshes established on dredged material: 4.5 ppm	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974

Table A19
 Cycling of Zinc in Marsh Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the Marsh-Estuarine Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference				
I-A Marsh soil	Total zinc	Mean zinc contents in top 2 cm of marsh soil:	Banus et al., 1975				
		102.0 mg/m ² (1971)					
		142.0 mg/m ² (1972)					
		Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass.					
		Mean zinc contents in top 2 cm of marsh treated with low levels of fertilizer:					
		158 mg/m ² (1971)					
		249 mg/m ² (1972)					
		Mean zinc contents in top 2 cm of marsh treated with high levels of fertilizer:					
		107 mg/m ² (1971)					
		682 mg/m ² (1972)					
I-A Marsh soil	Soluble zinc	Average zinc concentrations in marsh soils from Southeastern Salt Marsh-Estuaries in µg/(g dry weight of sediment)	Dunstan and Windom, 1975				
		69.0 Santee River					
		42.4 Cooper River					
		69.6 Savannah River					
		44.2 Altamaha River					
		43.3 Satilla River					
		14.9 St. Johns River					
		49.8 Average					
		Range of zinc concentrations in upland (New York) soils: 32-172 ppb	Hodgson et al., 1966				
		Zinc complexed in soil solution in upland (New York) soils: 66 ppb (3%)(silt and gravel loams)					
I-A Marsh soil	Soluble zinc	Zinc in layers of soil in Danish intertidal area (ppm):	Hallberg, 1974				
		Layer A 41.0					
		Layer B 28.9					
		Layer C 43.5					
		Layer D 5.1					
		Zinc in phases of soil solution (ppm):	Geering and Hodgson, 1969				
		Original solution = 0.165 ppm (83%)					
		Nondialyzable soil solution = 0.025 ppm					
		Dialyzable fraction = 0.120 ppm					
		I-A Marsh soil	Acid-soluble zinc	Concentration in acid-soluble fraction of top 2 cm of cores:	Valiela et al., 1974		
Control 113.0 ± 11.6 mg/m ²							
LF 226.0 ± 18.6 mg/m ²							
HF 514.0 ± 43.5 mg/m ²							
I-A Marsh soil	Total zinc			63.7 ppm dredged spoil (Virginia)	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974		
				6.3 ppm in natural marsh soil			
				I-B Marsh grasses	Total zinc	Mean concentration of zinc in plants from Great Sippewissett Marsh:	Banus et al., 1975
						<u>Spartina alterniflora</u> Live plants	
						Control 1971 16.5 ± 2.2 ppm	
						1972 10.8 ± 1.3 ppm	
		LF 1971 24.2 ± 3.4 ppm					
		1972 13.8 ± 0.9 ppm					
		HF 1971 29.3 ± 2.3 ppm					
		1972 26.7 ± 6.4 ppm					
Dead plants							
Control 1972 17.0 ± 1.1 ppm							
HF 1972 44.8 ± 3.8 ppm							
<u>Spartina patens</u> Live only							
Control 1971 15.3 ± 3.8 ppm							
1972 11.8 ± 2.3 ppm							
LF 1971 30.5 ± 6.4 ppm							
1972 12.4 ± 1.6 ppm							
HF 1971 28.6 ± 5.6 ppm							
1972 19.3 ± 2.8 ppm							
I-B Marsh grasses (Continued)	Total zinc	Concentration of zinc in grasses occurring in dredge-spoil pond and natural marsh ecosystems in Virginia	Driffmeyer and Odum, 1974				
		<u>Phragmites communis</u>					
		24.8 ± 6.8 ppm	14.0 ± 0.3 ppm				
		<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>					
		38.6 ± 12.4 ppm	20.1 ± 1.0 ppm				
		<u>Spartina patens</u>					
		28.9 ± 10.2 ppm	21.2 ± 0.8 ppm				
		<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>					
		Average zinc concentrations in plants from southeastern salt marsh-estuaries in µg/(g dry weight of sediment) ⁻¹	Dunstan and Windom, 1975				
		33.8 Santee River					
36.7 Cooper River							
24.6 Savannah River							
30.6 Altamaha River							
39.8 Satilla River							
27.8 St. Johns River							

(Continued)

Note: LP--from areas treated with low levels of fertilizer. HF--from areas treated with high levels of fertilizer.

Table A19 (Concluded)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposers	Acid soluble zinc	Concentration in acid-soluble fraction of detritus on marsh creek surfaces, Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass. Control 139.5 ± 23.0 ppm LF 189.0 ± 17.7 ppm HF 239.0 ± 28.0 ppm	Valiela et al., 1974
I-F Detritivores	Total zinc	Mean concentration in detritivores from Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass.	Banus et al., 1975 Valiela et al., 1974
	<u>Modiolus demissus</u>	Control 48 ± 0.9 ppm LF 52 ± 1.4 ppm HF 52 ± 2.0 ppm	
	<u>Uca pugnax</u>	Control 92 ± 3 ppm LF 109 ± 11 ppm HF 81 ± 1 ppm	
II-B Estuarine sediment	Total zinc	Freshwater example: Ottawa River 84 ppb Rideau River 86 ppb Concentration of zinc in suspended sediments in Southeastern Salt Marsh-Estuaries (ppb) Sediment of estuarine origin = 471 ppb Sediment of riverine origin (Arrow No. 36 III, IIA) = 496 ppb	Oliver, 1973 Dunstan and Windom, 1975
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Total zinc <u>Macrocystis pyrifera</u> <u>Fucus serratus</u> <u>Fucus vesiculosus</u>	Concentration of zinc in plant: 33 ± 2.2 µg/(g ash dry weight) 316 ppm (dry weight average) 433 ppm (dry weight average)	Boothe and Knauer, 1972 Fuge and James, 1973
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Soluble zinc	None found in southeastern salt marsh-estuaries Zinc in water in Monterey Bay, Calif: Period of intense upwelling = 12 µg/l Period of low upwelling = 6 µg/l Period of oceanic dominance = 4 µg/l Period of mixing = 2.7 µg/l Average surface water concentration Pacific Ocean (Hawaii to Monterey) = 2.0 µg/l	Dunstan and Windom, 1975 Knauer and Martin, 1973
II-E Phytoplankton	Total zinc (particulate)	Zinc in phytoplankton in Monterey Bay, Calif: Period of intense upwelling = 100 µg/(g dry weight) Period of low upwelling = 100-150 µg/(g dry weight) Period of oceanic dominance = 300 µg/(g dry weight)	Knauer and Martin, 1973
II-F Detritus-microbial decomposers	Total zinc <u>Pugettia producta</u>	Concentration in fecal materials produced by herbivorous crab: 78 ± 28 µg (g ash weight) ⁻¹	Boothe and Knauer, 1972
Arrow No. 33d (II-F, II-B)	Total zinc <u>Pugettia producta</u>	Deposition by marine bacteria: 85% of ⁶⁵ Zn removed from solution by bacteria within 120 hr 20% sedimented with cells 80% sedimented by Zn S or Fe S coprecipitate	McLerran and Holmes, 1974
II-H Detritivores	Total zinc <u>Mercenaria mercenaria</u> (clam) <u>Crassostrea virginica</u> (oysters)	Concentrations of zinc in detritivores from Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass. Control 252 ± 9.7 ppm LF 296 ± 12.6 ppm HF 298 ± 20.0 ppm Control 12,675 ± 1,609 LF 9,650 ± 3,188 HF 7,650 ± 1,609	Valiela et al., 1974
Arrow No. 29 (II-H, II-D)	Soluble zinc Ionic particulate zinc Complexed zinc	Zinc excretion by <u>palaemon serratus</u> (prawn)-- time required 1-3 hr 4-5 hr	Small et al., 1974

Table A20

Cycling of Cadmium in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the Marsh-Estuarine Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-A Marsh soil	Total cadmium	<p>Mean cadmium contents in top 2 cm of marsh soil:</p> <p>1.1 mg/m² (1971) 1.9 mg/m² (1972)</p> <p>Great Sippewissett Salt Marsh, Mass.</p> <p>Mean cadmium contents in top 2 cm of marsh soil treated with low levels of fertilizer:</p> <p>2.1 mg/m² (1971) 14.3 mg/m² (1972)</p> <p>Mean cadmium contents in top 2 cm of marsh soil treated with high levels of fertilizer:</p> <p>2.6 mg/m² (1971) 15.7 mg/m² (1972)</p> <p>Average cadmium concentrations in marsh soils from southeastern salt marsh-estuaries in $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight of sediment})$ upper 40 cm:</p> <p>3.56 Santee River 0.79 Cooper River 0.69 Savannah River 1.2 Altamaha River 1.0 Satilla River 0.56 St. Johns River</p> <p>Average concentration = 1.19</p>	Banus et al., 1975
	Acid soluble cadmium	<p>Concentration in top 2 cm of cores from fertilized plots</p> <p>Control 1.7 mg/m² LF 13.4 mg/m² HF 11.8 mg/m²</p>	Valiela et al., 1974
I-B Marsh grasses	Total cadmium <u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	<p>Mean concentration of cadmium in plants from Great Sippewissett marsh:</p> <p>Live plants</p> <p>Control 1971 0.23 ± 0.03 ppm 1972 0.06 ± 0.01 ppm LF 1971 0.35 ± 0.05 ppm 1972 0.17 ± 0.05 ppm HF 1971 0.70 ± 0.08 ppm 1972 0.44 ± 0.06 ppm</p> <p>Dead plants</p> <p>Control 1972 0.14 ± 0.03 ppm HF 1972 0.92 ± 0.03 ppm</p> <p><u>Spartina patens</u> Live only</p> <p>Control 1971 0.20 ± 0.04 ppm 1972 0.04 ± 0.04 ppm LF 1971 0.34 ± 0.03 ppm 1972 0.14 ± 0.03 ppm HF 1971 0.64 ± 0.12 ppm 1972 0.43 ± 0.08 ppm</p>	Banus et al., 1975
	Total cadmium	<p>Average cadmium concentrations in plants from southeastern salt marsh-estuaries in $\mu\text{g}/(\text{g dry weight of sediment})$</p> <p>0.85 Santee River 0.60 Cooper River 0.49 Savannah River 0.73 Altamaha River 0.58 Satilla River 0.38 St. Johns River</p> <p>Average = 0.61 (highly concentrated)</p>	Dunstan and Windom, 1975
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposers	Acid soluble cadmium	<p>Concentration in acid soluble fraction of detritus</p> <p>Control 1.15 ± 0.39 ppm LP 3.73 ± 0.94 ppm HF 5.50 ± 0.69 ppm</p>	Valiela et al., 1974

(Continued)

Note: LF--from areas treated with low levels of fertilizer. HF--from areas treated with high levels of fertilizer.

(Sheet 1 of 3)

Table A20 (Continued)

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference																												
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposers (Continued)	Total cadmium	Detritus from red mangrove leaves-- green leaf contents ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight):	Mathis, 1973																												
	<u>Rhizophora mangle</u>	0.33 \pm 0.12 Barron River 0.24 \pm 0.05 Shark River 0.19 \pm 0.06 Broad River																													
		Cadmium content of leaves, litter, and det- ritus from Shark River and Broad River ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight):																													
			<u>Shark River</u> <u>Broad River</u>																												
	Green leaves	0.24 \pm 0.05	0.19 \pm 0.06																												
	Yellow leaves	0.26 \pm 0.11	0.25 \pm 0.16																												
	Litter	0.24 \pm 0.04	0.29 \pm 0.06																												
	Detritus	1.70 \pm 0.89	0.97 \pm 0.24																												
			Comparative metal contents of suspended det- ritus ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight):																												
			6.2 \pm 5.7 Barron River 1.0 \pm 0.2 Broad River 1.7 \pm 0.9 Sharkey River																												
I-F Marsh detritivores	Total cadmium	Concentration of cadmium in marsh detritivores (ppm):	Banus et al., 1975																												
	<u>Modiolus demissus</u> (Ribbed Mussel)	Control 2.0 \pm 0.3 ppm LF 3.0 \pm 0.5 ppm HF 6.7 \pm 2.2 ppm																													
	<u>Uca pugnax</u>	Control 0.6 \pm 0.2 ppm LF 0.5 \pm 0.1 ppm HF 1.4 \pm 0.6 ppm																													
	<u>Modiolus demissus</u>	Control 1.98 \pm 0.09 ppm LF 3.75 \pm 0.13 ppm HF 7.15 \pm 3.24 ppm	Valiela et al., 1974																												
	II-B Estuarine sediment	Total cadmium	Total concentration of cadmium in suspended sediments (ppm):	Dunstan and Windom, 1975																											
			Suspended estuarine sediment = 8.7 Suspended river sediment (Arrow No. 36 III, IIA) = 15.8																												
			Mean concentration in suspended load of headwaters and mouths of Florida estuaries:	Mathis, 1973																											
			<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Salinity %</th> <th>Suspended Load (mg/l)</th> <th>Cd ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td colspan="4" style="text-align:center"><u>Headwaters</u></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Shark</td> <td>0-9.6</td> <td>4.5</td> <td>1.7 \pm 0.9</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Broad</td> <td>--</td> <td>8.5</td> <td>1.0 \pm 0.2</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4" style="text-align:center"><u>Mouth</u></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Shark</td> <td>23-25</td> <td>14.0</td> <td>1.1 \pm 0.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Broad</td> <td>--</td> <td>16.5</td> <td>1.4 \pm 0.5</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Salinity %	Suspended Load (mg/l)	Cd ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)	<u>Headwaters</u>				Shark	0-9.6	4.5	1.7 \pm 0.9	Broad	--	8.5	1.0 \pm 0.2	<u>Mouth</u>				Shark	23-25	14.0	1.1 \pm 0.1	Broad	--	16.5
			Salinity %	Suspended Load (mg/l)	Cd ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)																										
		<u>Headwaters</u>																													
Shark		0-9.6	4.5	1.7 \pm 0.9																											
Broad		--	8.5	1.0 \pm 0.2																											
<u>Mouth</u>																															
Shark		23-25	14.0	1.1 \pm 0.1																											
Broad	--	16.5	1.4 \pm 0.5																												
	Deposition of cadmium by marine bacteria in estuarine sediments:	McLerran and Holmes, 1974																													
	70 percent removed from solution in 120 hr- 85-90 percent of amount removed was by pre- cipitation, either as CdS or FeS coprecipitates																														
	Methyl cadmium	Cd biologically methylated, but resulting compounds are water-unstable	Thayer, 1973																												
II-C Periphyton and rooted macrophytes	Total cadmium	Concentration of cadmium in plants:	Boothe and Knauer, 1972																												
	<u>Macrocystis pyrifera</u>	3.4 \pm 0.4 ppm																													

(Continued)

(Sheet 2 of 3)

Table A21

Cycling of Copper in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the Marsh-Estuarine Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-A Marsh soil	Total copper	Average concentrations in soils of southeast salt marsh-estuaries in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight: 25.4 Santee River 7.8 Cooper River 14.7 Savannah River 8.9 Altamaha River 8.2 Satilla River 2.7 St. Johns River Average concentration--11.4	Dunstan and Windom, 1975
		Concentration in Danish intertidal area:	Hallberg, 1974
	Layer A	5.12 ppm	
	Layer B	1.38 ppm	
	Layer C	2.55 ppm	
	Layer D	0.43 ppm	
	Dissolved copper	Percent complexed in upland New York soils = 88.5 (7.99 ppb)	Hodgson et al., 1965
		Percent complexed in calcareous soils = 98.9 (10.8 ppb)	Hodgson et al., 1966
		Fractionation of copper in soil solution	Gerring and Hodgson, 1969
I-B Marsh grasses	Total copper	Average concentrations in marsh grasses from Southeast Salt Marsh-Estuaries: concentration in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight	Dunstan and Windom, 1975
	<u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	3.95 Santee River 4.1 Cooper River 4.8 Savannah River 4.8 Altamaha River 3.8 Satilla River 1.67 St. Johns River Average concentration = 3.9	
		Average contents in green leaves of red mangrove from Florida estuaries in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight	Mathis, 1973
	<u>Rhizophora mangle</u>	2.2 \pm 1.0 Barron River 0.9 \pm 0.3 Shark River 1.6 \pm 0.6 Broad River	
I-E Detritus-microbial decomposer	Total copper	Average contents of mangrove leaves in various ages of decomposition in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight:	Mathis, 1973
II-B Estuarine sediment	Total copper	Average concentration in suspended sediment in southeastern estuaries: Estuarine sediment 58 $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight Riverine sediment 79 $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight	
		Concentrations in suspended load of Florida estuaries	Mathis, 1973
		(Continued)	

Table A22

Cycling of Mercury in Marsh-Estuarine Ecosystems as Described by the Marsh-Estuarine Model

Compartment No. and Name; Arrow No.	Form and Source of Mineral	Rate of Transfer or Amount of Storage	Reference
I-A Marsh soils	Total mercury	Average concentrations in soils of southeast salt marsh-estuaries in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight: 0.09 Santee River 0.03 Cooper River 0.11 Savannah River 0.10 Altamaha River 0.07 Satilla River 0.04 St. Johns River Average concentration = 0.08	Dunstan and Windom, 1975
II-B Marsh grasses	Total mercury in <u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	Average concentrations in plants of Southeast Salt Marsh-Estuaries in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight: 0.17 Santee River 0.5 Cooper River 0.44 Savannah River 0.27 Altamaha River 0.27 Satilla River 0.25 St. Johns River Average concentration = 0.32 (highly concentrated from marsh soil)	Dunstan and Windom, 1975
Arrow No. 1 (I-A, I-B)	Organic and inorganic mercury <u>Spartina alterniflora</u>	Uptake and transfer in marsh grasses: 20-25% of available mercury taken up by roots at equilibrium. Estimated total uptake of mercury by <u>Spartina</u> = $0.7 \text{ mg:m}^2\text{:yr}$ with at least $35 \text{ }\mu\text{g:m}^2\text{:yr}$ (5% of this amount taken up and released to the water (forms studied were CH_3HgCl and HgCl_2))	Rahn, 1973
II-B Estuarine sediments	Total mercury	Concentration in suspended sediments in Southeast Salt Marsh-Estuaries: Estuarine sediment = 0.86 ppm Riverine sediment = 0.81 ppm Comparative freshwater values: Ottawa River = 0.28 ppm Rideau River = 0.20 ppm Concentration in Puget Sound, Wash.: Near Chlor-Alkalai Plant = 0.01-0.5 ppm Other areas = 0.01-0.1 ppm 82% of materials in sediments associated with easily oxidizable organic matter	Dunstan and Windom, 1975 Oliver, 1973 Crecelius et al., 1975
II-B Estuarine sediments and Arrow No. 17 (II-B, II-D)	Inorganic and methyl mercury	Activities mobilizing mercury Methylation of mercury: Mercury release for bottom sediments and rotten fish 440 ng CH_3Hg^+ released in 10 days from 100 ppm HgCl_2/g bottom sediments 40 ng CH_3Hg^+ released in 10 days from 100 ppm $\text{CH}_3\text{HgCl}/\text{g}$ bottom sediments 10 μg $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{Hg}$ released in 4 days from mixture of 5 g of <u>Xiphophorus helleni</u> , 10 g of <u>Gadus colja</u> , and 60 μg HgCl_2 Metabolism of mercury 3.23 mg total Hg/kg sediment/day in natural sediments	Thayer, 1973 Jensens and Jernelöv, 1969 Matsumara et al., 1971 Jernelöv et al., 1975 Jernelöv, 1970
II-D Dissolved mineral pool	Dissolved mercury	Concentration in waters in Southeast Salt Marsh-Estuaries: Estuarine waters Estuarine water--none found River water = 0.07 ppb Georgia estuaries = $1.5 \text{ mg/m}^2\text{/yr}$	Dunstan and Windom, 1975 Rahn, 1973
II-E Phytoplankton	Total mercury	Offshore diatoms: $181 \pm 50 \text{ ng Hg/g}$ dry weight Oregon coast: 446 ng Hg/g dry weight Monterey Bay, Calif.: 8.4 ng Hg/g dry weight	Knauer and Martin, 1973
II-C Herbivores	Total mercury	Offshore zooplankton: $145 \pm 14 \text{ ng Hg/g}$ dry weight Oregon coast zooplankton: 23 ng Hg/g dry weight Miscellaneous fishes: Average of four mesopelagic fishes = 40 ng/g wet weight Monterey Bay anchovy = 53 ng/g dry weight	Knauer and Martin, 1973

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Gunnison, Douglas

Mineral cycling in salt marsh-estuarine ecosystems; ecosystem structure, function, and general compartmental model describing mineral cycles / by Douglas Gunnison. Vicksburg, Miss. : U. S. Waterways Experiment Station ; Springfield, Va. : available from National Technical Information Service, 1978.

93, p50 p. : ill. ; 27 cm. (Technical report - U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station ; D-78-3)

Prepared for Office, Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army, Washington, D. C., under DMRP Work Unit No. 2A05.

Literature cited: p. 75-93.

1. Cycling nutrients. 2. Dredged material. 3. Ecosystems. 4. Estuarine ecology. 5. Heavy metals. 6. Mineral cycling. 7. Salt marshes. I. United States. Army. Corps of Engineers. II. Series: United States. Waterways Experiment Station, Vicksburg, Miss. Technical report ; D-78-3.
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