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# Index of Ecological Condition for the Tidal Salt Marsh Ecosystem of Northeastern North America

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## **INDEX OF ECOLOGICAL CONDITION FOR THE TIDAL SALT MARSH ECOSYSTEM OF**

## **NORTHEASTERN NORTH AMERICA**

### Josh Parrott

B.A. Southern Illinois University, 2015

## A THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science

(Ecology and Environmental Sciences)

The Graduate School

University of Maine

August 2024

Advisory Committee:

Dr. Brian Olsen Dr. Brian McGill Dr. Chris Elphick Dr. Zachary Wood Copyright 2024

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### **INDEX OF ECOLOGICAL CONDITION FOR THE TIDAL SALT MARSH ECOSYSTEM OF**

#### **NORTHEASTERN NORTH AMERICA**

By Josh Parrott

Thesis Advisors: Drs. Brian J. Olsen & Zachary T. Wood

An Abstract of the Thesis Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science (Ecology and Environmental Science) May 2024

We created a metric of ecological condition for use in the northeastern US tidal saltmarsh ecosystem. We used the metric to characterize relative condition of tidal salt marshes across management and protection status, geomorphic setting, and a large geographic extent. We followed a method previously used for freshwater marshes and forests, using an environmental gradient that was defined a priori and is easily interpreted. To define the relative condition of marshes, we characterized the environment, the bird community, and how they interact using data from 2012 – 2014. We found that sites within areas designated as conserved via the USGS GAP project, scored highest and had more tidal saltmarsh-dependent birds, important indicators of quality salt marsh. We found that, although protecting tidal salt marsh from permanent alteration can encourage relatively good environmental conditions, this has not translated into the predicted avian community assemblage that such an environment would suggest, but this varies across sub-ecoregions and geomorphic setting. Also, we found that the avian taxa vary markedly in what environmental conditions drive their average detections; this suggests that several taxa should be included as indicators of the saltmarsh environs to cover the breadth of variation in how landscape and disturbance variables influence them



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#### **CHAPTER 1**

## **INDEX OF ECOLOGICAL CONDITION FOR TIDAL SALT MARSH ECOSYSTEM OF NORTHEASTERN NORTH AMERICA**

### 1. Background

The main goal of the thesis was to describe the relative condition of the tidal saltmarsh ecosystem in northeastern North America and create a measure of said condition that could be applicable as a means of evaluating changes over time, especially considering restoration efforts. We followed a recent approach that combines generalized components of an ecosystem. These metrics are composed of various species' responses to an *a priori* defined and easily interpreted environmental gradient. Since their inception, these methods have evolved and been applied to a variety of ecosystems and taxa, including birds, diatoms, fish, and plants (Howe, Regal et al. 2007, Niemi, Brady et al. 2009, Giese, Howe et al. 2015). Here, we apply these quantitative advances to describe tidal salt marshes within the northeastern US—an imperiled and heavily impacted ecosystem of considerable conservation focus (Adam 2002, Ganju, Defne et al. 2017, Newton, Icely et al. 2020, FitzGerald, Hein et al. 2021). We used bird assemblage data and a suite of environmental datasets that describe ecological and geomorphological processes that impact the probability of marsh degradation or loss to develop a metric that links the avian data to the environmental conditions. We then used this metric to test whether lands protected and managed for biodiversity differed from unprotected lands across the northeastern US.

Indicator taxa can serve as convenient signals of ecosystem condition – a term that we prefer over ecosystem "health" or "integrity" as it does not assume a specific, idealized state – when it is not easily measured directly. Ideally, indicators should track ecosystem change closely, providing early warning signs of declines in ecosystem condition (Noss 1990), and potentially suggest the cause of the change by identifying what aspects or elements of the ecosystem have changed (Herricks and Schaeffer 1985). Such taxa should

indicate changes in condition from a wide range of stressors (Herricks and Schaeffer 1985) and be more costeffective to assess than the underlying ecological processes. Here we test whether birds, long-valued for their ability to indicate both environmental impact (Hutto 1998, Johnson 2008) and ecosystem condition (Howe, Regal et al. 2007, Niemi, Brady et al. 2009, Giese, Howe et al. 2015), can serve as indicators of salt marsh condition. We posit that marshes with highly vegetated intertidal areas and little anthropogenic disturbance generally contain more saltmarsh-specialist bird species such as saltmarsh sparrows (*Ammospiza caudacuta*), seaside sparrows (*A. maritima*), Acadian Nelson's sparrows (*A. nelson subvirgata*), clapper rails (*Rallus crepitans*), and willets (*Tringa semipalmata*). Breeding in these taxa is linked almost exclusively to the salt marsh in this region, and therefore their populations should be strongly dependent upon the overall condition of the saltmarsh ecosystem and the coastal zone.

Tidal salt marshes are important ecosystems that serve as a buffer to storm surge and as habitat that maintains populations of many organisms specific to intertidal marsh conditions. These unique ecosystems are found in the transition zone between terrestrial and marine environments, where saltwater from tidal movements meets the freshwater flows from adjacent upland and riverine systems. The intricate interactions within these salt marshes result in various ecological services that benefit both the environment and biotic communities. For example, they act as natural buffers that help protect coastal areas from the impacts of storms, by decreasing the force of waves that would otherwise hit the coastline directly—reducing the risk of erosion and damage to infrastructure—and absorbing and storing excess water (Costanza, Perez-Maqueo et al. 2008, Luisetti, Turner et al. 2014). Also, by absorbing and dampening the force of storm-related waves, salt marshes help shield beaches, dunes, and estuaries from direct wave action, preserving their ecological functions and the organisms that depend on them. Furthermore, salt marshes serve to filter and purify adjacent estuaries and bays, sequester carbon from the oceans, and support economically important fisheries. Preserving these services is crucial for maintaining the overall health and resilience of coastal ecosystems.

Tidal salt marsh is a uniquely productive ecotone dominated by relatively few halophytic plant

species and strongly shaped by local hydrological regimes, stochastic storm events, localized perturbations to vegetation or sediment, and ecological succession. Tidal salt marshes along the Atlantic Coast of the United States from Virginia to Maine feature distinct intertidal zones (Bertness 1991, Bertness 1991) within the normal tidal frame. The high marsh zone, submerged weekly to monthly, exists between the mean daily high tide and the maximum flood height and is dominated by saline-adapted rhizomatous grasses (*Spartina patens, S. alterniflora, Distichilis spicata*) and rushes (*Juncus roemerianus* or *J. geradii*). The low marsh zone is flooded daily and is dominated by *S. alterniflora,* or by *S. cynosuroides* in more brackish areas. Given adequate sediment supply, vegetation in these two intertidal zones can trap sediment and provide stability and growth of the marsh surface over time in the face of sea-level rise (SLR) (Temmerman, Bouma et al. 2005, Blum, Christian et al. 2020, Cahoon, McKee et al. 2020). Conversion from marsh to open water can happen rapidly in either zone, however, wherever the sediment supply is too low to act as a countervailing force to erosion and SLR (Morris, Sundareshwar et al. 2002, Ganju, Defne et al. 2017, Ganju, Defne et al. 2020). Further, horizontal, inland migration of the marsh in the face of SLR can be limited locally by topography and anthropogenic development of the marsh edge (Adam 2002, Newton, Icely et al. 2020). Much of the marshland in our study region is predicted to decrease or disappear entirely in the coming decades due to SLR (Spencer and Harvey 2012, FitzGerald, Hein et al. 2021).

Tidal salt marshes have also been degraded due to anthropogenic impacts. Anthropogenic alteration of coastal ecosystems is multi-faceted with a long legacy (Adam 2002, Newton, Icely et al. 2020) occurring since initial human occupation of the coastline and accelerating dramatically since European colonization. Salt marsh loss has been caused, directly, by removing or otherwise altering the marsh for development or, indirectly, by altering the feedback between vegetation growth and inundation regimes (Bourn and Cottam 1951, Adam 2002, Foley, DeFries et al. 2005, Newton, Icely et al. 2020, Smith, Adamowicz et al. 2022). As most salt marshes along the U.S. Atlantic Coast have been extensively altered for hundreds of years, we assume identification of a hypothetical "pristine" equilibrium condition would be problematic or even impossible. The U.S. Atlantic Coast does, however, possess a large gradient of modern disturbance, including

variation in three primary factors known to cause negative effects on salt marsh flora and fauna: wetland loss, upland development, and altered connectivity to tidal flow. Given the mechanistic understanding of these forces on on-going tidal marsh degradation and loss, and the ultimate effects on birds and plants, we can rank tidal salt marshes along a gradient of condition that includes factors that are well studied in the region, such as intertidal wetland loss and landcover change, loss of upland natural buffers, and adjacent development and the associated anthropogenic pressures.

## 2. Statistical Workflow

Our workflow (Figure 1) consisted of five steps, whereby we 1) defined potential indicator bird taxa at each marsh using counts from avian survey data, 2) defined marsh condition along a composite of four principal components calculated using 16 environmental variables, 3) described the relationship between birds and composite environmental condition, 4) used that relationship to identify a meaningful avian index of ecosystem condition (IEC) across our survey region, and 5) tested whether this metric varied between protected and unprotected lands, among sites with different management foci, and across various geomorphic categories.



*Figure 1: Statistical work flow for creating (1-4), validating (4), and applying (5) a novel metric of tidal salt marsh condition using avian indicator taxa. Our Indicator of Environmental Ccondition (IEC) was developed, validated, and applied using 1260 survey locations, assessed over three years (2012-2014) from Maine to Virginia, USA.*

3. Surveying birds and selecting indicator taxa

We conducted bird surveys at 1260 locations, over three years (2012-2014), two to three times per summer (May – August), in salt marshes from Maine to Virginia, USA. Survey sites were selected using a generalized random tessellation stratified (GRTS) design among sites within estuarine emergent marsh patches along the U.S. Atlantic Coast as designated by the National Wetland Inventory (Wilen and Bates 1995). First-stage sampling candidate polygons with state and federally protected areas were added to randomly drawn polygons, and second-stage survey points with historical data (within either randomly selected or manually added sampling polygons) were prioritized over randomly selected survey points whenever they were available. We defined survey dates across eight sub-ecoregions (Conway, Arizona et al. 2006), which are delineated roughly from north to south, to allow for differences in phenology across the latitudinal range of the effort. All survey technicians were trained prior to the start of the season on a standardized protocol and monitored for consistency throughout the survey period. All birds using marsh habitats within 100 m of the survey point were recorded. A detailed description of our site selection and survey protocols can be found in (Wiest, Correll et al. 2016). Surveyed marshes varied in their landscape composition, bird community composition, and in the amount of disturbance in and around the marsh.

We divided our survey region into two broad geographic ecoregions for bird analyses: New England (US states of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; spanning three subecoregions: Coastal Maine, Cape Cod and Casco Bay, and Southern New England) and the Mid-Atlantic ecoregion (US states of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia; spanning five subecoregions: Long Island, Coastal New Jersey, Delaware Bay, Coastal Delmarva, and the Eastern Chesapeake Bay). The two broad ecoregions differ, on average, in their bird communities, ranges of marsh size, SLR rate, and glacial histories. As such, we conducted all bird analyses independently for each of the two ecoregions, including identifying indicator taxa for each.

We identified potential indicator taxa for each ecoregion based upon their frequency of presence, average count across surveys, and statistical association with the ecoregion (step 1; Table 1). To test for species-ecoregion relationships, we used the "multipatt" function in the "indicspecies" (De Caceres and Legendre 2009) package using the "IndVal" statistic (Dufrene and Legendre 1997, De Caceres and Legendre 2009, De Caceres, Legendre et al. 2010) in Program R across the full survey extent. By controlling the relative frequency of detections across all survey locations and the mean value of all counts, this function tested for an association between mean counts for each taxa and ecoregion. Non-significant results of this test indicate that counts for a particular species do not deviate from a random distribution of the observed detections across the full survey extent. We used a p-value that represents the proportion of randomized permutations of the statistic that is at least as great as the observed count, where alpha = 0.05, and its confidence interval to look for associations between taxa and the two ecoregions. We include a statistic that predicts the affinity for each avian species for a given ecoregion as compared to the other (based on average detections). Additionally, we used the lower confidence interval limit of the estimate of likelihood of occurrence from this function to prune rare species within each ecoregion (based on presence-absence data). The resulting list of

potential indicator species for each ecoregion includes those with a greater than 10% chance, on average, of detection at a survey point within the assigned ecoregion, including those that were disproportionately present within one of the two ecoregions (e.g., possessed > 10% occurrence for only one ecoregion) and those that were detected similarly across the two regions (e.g., possessed > 10 % occurrence for both ecoregions). We selected indicators for the condition index from this list of potential indicators in step 4. After removing taxa that did not show a relationship with our environmental variables, the remaining taxa (Table 1) were used to calculate values for sites in each ecoregion. 22 taxa were used in both ecoregions, eight taxa were unique to the New England IEC calculation, and 22 were unique to the Mid-Atlantic.







change in average detection over the range of the C<sub>env</sub>, the affinity for the ecoregion as compared to the Mid-Atlantic, and likelihood of detecting that taxa after 6 - 9 visits. if the response curve increases, then decreases within the range of G<sub>env</sub> values (intermediate), decreases only (negative), or increases only (positive), the range of the response is the mean value of estimated peak in average detections (mean), the standard deviation of that mean (SD), H is the scaling factor for the normal distribution, direction of response details *change in average detection over the range of the Cenv, the affinity for the ecoregion as compared to the Mid-Atlantic, and likelihood of detecting that taxa after 6 if the response curve increases, then decreases within the range of Cenv mean value of estimated peak in average detections (mean), the standard deviation of that mean (SD), H is the scaling factor for the normal distribution, direction of response details*  Table 1 (cont.). The list of selected indicator toxa for the Mid Atlantic (n = 44 taxa; n = 692 sites). Lack of fit (LOF) details the biotic response model fit, R<sup>2</sup> is variance explained, the *Table 1 (cont.). The list of selected indicator taxa for the Mid Atlantic (n = 44 taxa; n = 692 sites). Lack of fit (LOF) details the biotic response model fit, R2 values (intermediate), decreases only (negative), or increases only (positive), the range of the response is the is variance explained, the* 

Tree swallow

Tree swallow

Willet

Yellow warbler

Yellow warbler

1.058

1.959

0.182

0.278

4.656

3.233

1.982

intermediate

intermediate

0.801

20

6.699

194.746

positive

0.625

8.638

3.902

13.757

positive

1.285

3.672

0.182

0.619

0.52<br>0.401

0.733

0.516

0.621



Selected indicator taxa varied markedly between ecoregions both in the average number of detections for each taxon and how many taxa qualified as indicators using our criteria (New England = 30 and the Mid-Atlantic = 44 taxa). We surveyed 1260 tidal saltmarsh sites 6 - 9 times (mean = 8.3) over the three years of our study (Figure 2). A total of 64 bird species were documented in at least 10% (126) of the survey points and were retained for these analyses. Among these taxa, a total of 238,639 detections were documented: 80,090 in New England and 158,549 in the Mid-Atlantic.

In this paper, we use the term "condition" to describe the relative state of the ecosystem, though various authors have referred to ecosystem state alternatively as its health (Schaeffer, Herricks et al. 1988, Rapport 1995, Wicklum and Davies 1995) or integrity (Wicklum and Davies 1995) The term "health" may be a useful metaphor for communicating results to the public (Schaeffer, Herricks et al. 1988) and can underscore that ecosystem resilience, or lack thereof, in the face of environmental stressors is analogous to organismal homeostasis, or its failure, in the face of illness (Rapport 1995). However, "health" assumes a single, preferred, organismal homeostatic condition, while an ecosystem may have multiple equilibria, different stakeholders who hold different preferences among ecological states, or an ecosystem may not exhibit any equilibrium state at all. We eschew the use of "integrity" for similar reasons, where its use infers deviation from a single, preferred equilibrium state. Instead, we use the term "condition", which we define as a snapshot of ecological state at a given time, and we consider ecological condition as a relative measure along a gradient between defined endpoints, which may or may not represent equilibrium states.



*Figure 2. The Indicator of Ecosystem Condition (IEC) for each survey location across the New England and the Mid Atlantic ecoregions of the U.S. Atlantic coast. IEC values vary by size and color. The range of residuals from a regression between the IEC and the underlying marsh environmental condition (Cenv) is similar across the geographic range.*

### 4. Assessing the Marsh Environment

We used a set of published environmental spatial datasets to represent tidal salt marsh variation across our survey area and to describe marsh environmental condition around each survey point (step 2; Table 2). We used remotely sensed categories of plant and water coverage to estimate this within 100 or 500 m of our survey location, including high marsh vegetation (Correll, Hantson et al. 2019), low marsh vegetation (Holmquist, Schile-Beers et al. 2021), mudflat, pools / pannes, streams, terrestrial border and brackish vegetation, and upland vegetation (Correll, Hantson et al. 2019). Landcover data were calculated as either percent cover, absolute area covered, or both. We also combined land cover variables into a previously

validated index of marsh geological stability, the unvegetated to vegetated marsh ratio (UVVR) (Ganju, Defne and Fagherazzi; Ganju et al.) and transformed this ratio into a binomial (stable / unstable) variable, defining a UVVR value of 0.1 or less as unstable based on past experiments and models (Ganju, Defne et al. 2020). The resulting variable details the percent of intertidal area that is unstable within 500 m of our survey locations.

Six additional variables were included to capture both direct and indirect measures of human impact to the marsh, including the extent of hardened development (structures impervious to water infiltration and non-hardened development (open spaces and agriculture), human population density, upland habitat loss, intertidal wetland loss, and marsh connectivity (McGarigal et al.). We extracted these six variables from published spatial datasets as proportions of buffer spaces of 500- or 1,000-m radii from survey sites and logit transformed the results. Where necessary, variables were  $log_{10}$  or square-root transformed to increase linearity across covariates. Data sources, buffer radii, data transformation, and literature support for all variables are listed in Table 2. All variables used to define the saltmarsh environment had correlations (Pearson's r) of less than 0.7, after transformation.

flooded, save extreme storm events or unfortunate alignment of factors such as heavy storm surge mplified by spring high tides. Non-vegetated features such as tidal waterways,<br>pools, pannes and mudflats exist within the in Table 2. Environmental variables represent 100, 500 and 1,000 m radii from bird survers indus and sepresented here is a collection of intertidal features including<br>vegetated areas such as high/low marsh vegetation and a sh habitat loss are included to represent the human footprint across our survey area. *habitat loss are included to represent the human footprint across our survey area. pools, pannes and mudflats exist within the intertidal range and comprise the remaining habitat mosaic within 100 flooded, save extreme storm events or unfortunate vegetated areas such as high/low marsh vegetation and a shrubby border (upland and terrestrial border) that normally fringes the landward boundary of the tidal frame and is rarely Table 2. Environmental variables represent 100, 500 and 1,000 alignment of factors such as heavy storm surge amplified by spring high tides. Non-vegetated features such as tidal waterways, m radii from bird survey locations. Tidal salt marsh as represented here is a collection of intertidal features including m of the survey site. Disturbance in the form of development and* 



We developed a composite variable describing the condition of the environment (C*env*) for salt marshes across the northeastern US—a linear combination of the first four principal components (PCs) created using our 16 environmental variables (Table 2). The first four principal components from our Principal Components Analysis (PCA) explained 65.57% of the total variance in our 16 initial variables. These four components were used to define the C*env* at each bird survey location (Figure 3).



*Figure 3 The first four principal components from our PCA of the 16 marsh and landscape variables explained 65.57% of the total variance and were used to make the Cenv.*

Individual variable weights from the PCA suggest that these four components describe 1) disturbance and habitat loss, 2) high marsh vegetation cover, 3) marsh elevation gradient, and 4) low marsh vegetation cover (Table 3). All four of the components used to construct the C*env* were either positively correlated with, or we reversed their coordinates so that they were correlated positively with, high marsh vegetation, either as percent cover at the survey-site level (within 100 m of the survey location) or at the marsh level (within

500 m). We did this so that the composite metric of the highest values would represent conditions that are most likely to support the habitat component known to be positively associated with saltmarsh stability and nesting locations for marsh dependent birds.



*Table 3. Contribution and correlation (r) of 16 environmental variables with each principal component used to create the Cenv.*

PC1 values were heavily influenced by the amount of inter- and extra-tidal landscape change, hardened and non-hardened development, population density within 1 km of the survey location, and the loss of ecological connectivity, suggesting that it is strongly driven by human disturbance. We firstly multiplied PC1 values by -1, so that they would be positively correlated with less disturbance and more intertidal vegetation. Positive avian associations with this gradient would thus indicate species' sensitivity to impacts from anthropomorphic disturbance to both the surrounding marsh area and adjacent landscape. High PC1 values indicate relatively undisturbed upland with natural buffers and more intertidal vegetation cover. This component was relatively unrelated to changes in wetland composition within 100 m of the survey locations, with all contribution values less than 5.0 % and correlation coefficients less than 0.50. (Table 3) Hereafter, we refer to this PC as the human footprint gradient as it best describes variation in disturbance

and habitat loss due to anthropogenic activities.

PC2 was also flipped on its axis so that positive values could be interpreted as more high marsh vegetation and less percent cover of non-vegetated habitat features, such as streams, and mudflats and the percent cover of unstable marsh calculated using average binomial stable / unstable based on the UVVR threshold. The component is also negatively correlated with upland vegetation and terrestrial border / brackish vegetation. Positive association with this gradient would indicate affinity for percent composition of high marsh at the survey-site level and total area of high marsh at 500 m and the relative absence of nonmarsh intertidal features. Hereafter, we refer to this component as the high marsh vegetation gradient as its highest values are found in marshes with the highest extent and percentage cover of high marsh vegetation.

PC3 was positively correlated with most marsh cover types within 100m of the survey site: streams, mudflats, pools / pannes, high marsh vegetation, and low marsh vegetation. It is negatively correlated, however, with terrestrial border / brackish vegetation, and upland vegetation. Positive association with this gradient would suggest the indicator taxa has an affinity for most cover types within salt marshes, including non-vegetated areas, and thus is found in marshes with relatively diverse intertidal marsh coverage types save terrestrial border / brackish and upland habitats. This component was only weakly associated with all variables at the scale of 500 m or greater (contributions all less than 5.0 %) except for the marsh stability index, which is itself a composite of the other heavily weighted smaller scale landscape cover variables. Hereafter, we refer to this component as the marsh elevation gradient as the highest values exist for landcover types within the intertidal zone as opposed to the upland landscape.

PC4 was multiplied by -1 so that positive values indicate a higher percent cover of low marsh vegetation within 100 m of the survey point and more low marsh vegetation cover within 500 m. Changes along this gradient reflect the amount and proportion of low marsh vegetation. Higher values indicate both higher-than-average percent composition of low marsh vegetation and more low marsh vegetation vs unvegetated marsh. Strong positive association with this gradient would indicate affinity for a higher proportion and total area of low marsh vegetation cover. Hereafter, we refer to this component as the low

marsh vegetation gradient as it best describes the extent and percentage cover of low marsh vegetation.

The C*env* serves as the environmental gradient that defines the range of saltmarsh habitat and disturbance conditions as measured here; it is a composite, weighted variable, created from the four PCs detailed above. The PCs were weighted by how much they contributed to the total variation that each explains, then added together, then scaled between 0 - 10. The C*env* is strongly influenced by the first two PCs, in both ecoregions, as they together account for 68.5% of the C*env*. The C*env* is, therefore, highly negatively correlated with disturbance and positively correlated with high marsh and low marsh vegetation.

### 5. Biotic Response Functions

To determine which of our previously identified candidate indicator species were most informative in indicating the gradients described by our composite C*env* metric, we parameterized biotic response functions (Figure 1, Step 3) that describe the relationship between each candidate species within each ecoregion and the C*env* gradient (Table 1). The fitted functions are modified normal distributions as detailed in equation 1.

$$
D_i(C_{env}) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(C_{env}-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}h
$$
 (eq. 1)

The equation, modified from Geise et al. (2015), estimates the rate of detection of a given species across the range of C<sub>env</sub> values ( $D_i$  (C<sub>env</sub>)); with  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  as the mean and standard deviation of the normal distribution, and  $h$  as a scaling factor so that the area under the curve is not constrained to one. We binned sites into similar C*env* values to find the best fit curve and ease convergence (Giese, Howe et al. 2015). Each of the bins represents 150 - 234 (New England) and 168 - 261 (Mid-Atlantic) surveys spread across three consecutive breeding seasons, with variation in total surveys due to variation in number of sites for each bin and the total number of surveys across seasons. Average detections are computed for each bin and used to estimate the biotic response functions. Positive responses (Figure 4) describe birds that are more common in marshes with higher C*env* values. A function with mean values greater than 10, suggests that further increase in detections could occur for a species given C*env* values better than what we have measured across our survey area. Such areas would, hypothetically, have more intertidal vegetation with less disturbance than

measured here. Mean function values below 0 indicate that one would expect higher counts for that taxon across a suite of environmental conditions that are negatively correlated with the marsh conditions captured by the C*env*. Such conditions could include natural upland ecosystems, brackish and freshwater wetlands, or even more heavily disturbed and developed areas than we included here. Note that there are more ways to be negatively than positively associated with the C*env* gradient, for example, negative conditions could include brackish wetlands, natural upland, or more anthropogenic disturbance than we measured. In contrast, conditions higher than 10 suggest more intertidal marsh vegetation and less anthropogenic disturbance than we measured. After calculating BRFs for each indicator avian species, and the composite C*env*, we performed similar analyses with each indicator for the separate PCs, as a post-hoc analysis to explain what individual components may be driving the avian response to the C*env* (Table 1, Appendix A). Bird taxa vary in what PCs, and their contributing variables, drive the species responses to the composite C*env*.



*Figure 4. Examples of negative response (left curve), an intermediate response (middle curve), and a positive response (right curve), all having the same scaling parameter (h). These curves correspond with low, middle, and higher μ values, which indicate where along the environmental condition gradient (Cenv) the average number of bird detections peaks.*

6. Constructing the Indicator of Environmental Condition (IEC) metric

The functions that describe the non-linear relationship between average detections of each avian indicator taxa and the C*env* (Table 1), represent assumed biotic responses to the saltmarsh environment (step 3 in Figure 1) and were used to calculate an overall index of environmental condition (IEC; step 4). So, the IEC metric represents relative marsh condition, ranked  $0 - 10$ , as determined by avian assemblages and their collective response to the environment as we have defined it here. We calculated an IEC function for each ecoregion separately using a unique suite of informative avian taxa. We used only those candidate indicator taxa with functions that predicted an increase or decrease in average detections of more than 0.10 birds over the full range of the C<sub>env</sub> and that also had a model fit of  $R^2 > 0.10$ . Ecoregion-specific IEC functions were then calculated from an algorithm that fits the indicator responses to the C*env* composite measure using an automated routine that minimizes lack-of-fit for non-linear relationships (Gay 1990, Giese, Howe et al. 2015).

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{N} \left( \frac{D_{ij} - D_{i(c_{env,j})}}{D_{i}(c_{env,j})} \right)^{2} \quad \text{(eq. 2)}
$$

Where N is the total number of bins (20),  $D_i$  is the average detection of indicator *i* in C<sub>env</sub> value bin *j*, given *μ*, *σ*, and *h* from equation 1. These parameters are varied iteratively until values minimize equation 2.

Importantly avian contributions to the IEC metric occurred through biotic responses as influenced through various components of the C*env*, and the differences in component contributions varied markedly across indicators (Table 1, Appendix A). Because of this variation across indicator taxa and component influence, the IEC should be interpreted as the response to the saltmarsh environment of the composite saltmarsh avian community. No single avian indicator taxon can capture the dimensional breadth of the saltmarsh ecosystem, as measured here across the northeastern US. For example, when calculating biotic responses for each component separately, clapper rails responded most convincingly to the human disturbance gradient (PC1), with an estimated increase of 2.97 detections from the most disturbed to the least disturbed marsh sites ( $R^2$  = 0.93; mean = 9.95 ± 3.90). Clapper rails also exhibited a peak in average detections around the mean of the marsh elevation gradient (PC3:  $R^2$  = 0.59; mean = 5.84 ± 1.99) and the low

marsh gradient (PC4:  $R^2 = 0.60$ ; mean = 3.47  $\pm$  2.72), and were negatively associated with the high marsh vegetation gradient (PC2:  $R^2 = 0.38$ ; mean = -4.62  $\pm$  10 with a decrease estimated at 1.72 birds/site on average across the range of PC2 values). The responses, in general, combine to suggest an affinity for heterogeneous intertidal landscape that is undisturbed by adjacent development and habitat loss. Importantly, though rails suggest higher values of the C*env* (more undisturbed and vegetated intertidal area), the highest detections occurred in different marshes than was the case for some other species that may have contributed similarly to the IEC because of the individualized response of each species to the underlying marsh characteristics. Overall, what individual indicator taxa are "indicating" is a combination of influences, measured and unmeasured, as estimated here using their response to a composite of environmental gradients. Each of the indicator taxa contributes unique information to the metric, and the metric, in turn, is therefore able to capture multiple mechanistic pathways to marshes with high bird counts in a way that no single species would be able to.

Indicator taxa retained in the IEC indicated high, intermediate, or low salt marsh condition values as defined by the mean C<sub>env</sub> values each is predicted to peak at ( $\mu$ , given  $\sigma$ ). For example, many saltmarshdependent species, piscivorous species (e.g., great egrets (*Ardea alba*), snowy egrets (*Egretta thula*), common terns (*Sterna hirundo*)), and shorebirds (e.g., least sandpipers (*Calidris minutilla*), black-bellied plover (*Pluvialis squatarola*), American oystercatcher (*Haematopus palliatus*)) showed a strong positive response with counts mostly increasing with greater C*env* values in one or more ecoregions. Conversely, European starlings (*Sturnus vulgaris*) had a negative response in the New England ecoregion, but an intermediate, hump-shaped response, with a predicted peak in average abundance at C*env* 2.47 +/- 2.05, in the Mid-Atlantic.

Overall, there is a weak latitudinal trend in IEC values (Figure 2), generally increasing as one travels south across our survey region, presumably driven by variation in development and intertidal vegetation cover and reflected in the C*env*'s influence on the number of avian detections, though substantial variation occurs within each ecoregion, and across sub-ecoregions.

## 7. Evaluation of the IEC

We evaluated the IEC values using 20% of our survey data which we had previously set aside prior to constructing the IEC. We then correlated these IEC values with the C*env* values of their associated survey locations to test whether the relationship shown between the IEC and C*env* in the initial data set was maintained among the withheld validation set for each ecoregion. This step mimics the process one would take for novel data collected elsewhere in either ecoregion, or at another time, for use in evaluating changes in marsh conditions over time or across restoration efforts. We used the biotic response function tables for each ecoregion that had been initially calculated using 80% of the data to determine the IEC values for the remaining 20% of our survey sites in each geographic ecoregion (step 4).

We evaluated the fit between the C*env* and the IEC with Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients. We found a significant Pearson's product-moment correlation between the IEC metric and the C*env* of the test data sets, indicating both consistency in the biotic responses to the C*env* and suggesting that the index could work similarly on novel data within the range of birds and marsh conditions captured by our validation data set: New England:  $r = 0.45$  (95% CI = 0.26 – 0.61);  $t = 4.62$ , df = 113, p-value < 0.0001 and the Mid-Atlantic:  $r = 0.60$  (95% CI = 0.49 – 0.70);  $t = 9.23$ , df = 138, p-value < 0.0001. The relationship between the C*env* and IEC validation datasets for both ecoregions resemble the same for the reconstituted datasets: New England: r = 0.45 (95% CI = 0.38 – 0.51); t = 11.87, df = 566, p-value < 0.0001 and the Mid-Atlantic: r = 0.64 (95% CI =  $0.59 - 0.68$ ); t = 21.91, df = 690, p-value < 0.0001.

Saltmarsh-dependent birds were found more often in survey sites with higher-than-average IEC scores, which we expected due to known bird dependencies on intertidal features positively correlated with the C*env*. A notable threshold around the mean condition in the New England ecoregion was apparent, suggesting an increase in the rate of detections of dependent birds. We tested for this breakpoint using piecewise regression, which tests for a change in the linear trend over different regions of the IEC values and estimates where this change occurs (Figure 5). A significant increase in slope occurs around an IEC value of 5.87 (SD = 0.20), with an increase of 1.71 (SD = 0.13) detections of tidal-marsh dependent species for every

increase of 1 IEC value after the break point:  $p < 0.0001$ ;  $R^2 = 0.47$ . These results suggest a five-fold increase in slope across IEC values greater than 5.87 relative to those less than the threshold. Practitioners should be aware that the IEC may have a non-linear relationship with marsh condition and should not assume that an increase of 1.0 for lower IEC values is equivalent to a similar increase among marshes with higher IEC values. In the Mid-Atlantic, the fit between IEC values and dependent species is linear (Figure 6), with more variance explained using this method:  $R^2$  = 0.52 vs 0.47.





*Figure 5. Results from a piecewise regression for the New England ecoregion with average detection of tidal salt marsh-dependent taxa ~ IEC values. A significant breakpoint was estimated at around the mean IEC value for both ecoregions, suggesting that marsh conditions that are higher than average contain far more dependent taxa.* 

### **Tidal Salt Marsh Dependent Bird Detections**



*Figure 6. Results from a regression for the Mid-Atlantic ecoregion with average detection of tidal salt marsh-dependent taxa ~ IEC values. A significant breakpoint was estimated at around the mean IEC value for both ecoregions, suggesting that marsh conditions that are higher than average contain far more dependent taxa.* 

### 8. Applying the IEC

We tested whether metric values varied between marshes with different conservation status, geomorphic settings, and across sub-ecoregions. We used a linear regression with IEC values as the dependent variable, conservation status, sub-ecoregion, and geomorphic setting as fixed effects; and included interactions between conservation status and sub-ecoregion (Eq. 3, Figure 1, step 5).

Eq. 3: IEC ~ Conservation + Conservation x Sub-ecoregion + Sub-ecoregion + Geomorphic setting

We used USGS Gap Analysis project codes (Scott, Davis et al. 1993) to classify sites according to their protection status and management intention (conservation). We combined GAP status 1 and 2, to create a new category ("biodiversity") to describe conserved lands which are protected and have management plans to actively foster biodiversity. We also included Gap status 3 ("protected"), where lands are protected from development but allow for some resource extraction or ATV recreation, etc. Lastly, we included GAP 4 ("none"), which are areas that are unprotected and unmanaged or of unknown conservation status.

We included the sub-ecoregion, as detailed above, to account for differences in the impact of conservation status across regions. We also included the geomorphic setting—whether the site is in a backbarrier lagoon, or an estuarine embayment—as a predictor, because this factor can influence tidal saltmarsh bird densities (Wiest, Correll et al. 2019), the vegetation mosaic (Mahoney and Bishop 2018), tidal prism, and wave energy attenuation (Dalrymple, Zaitlin et al. 1992).

The effects of conservation status, sub-ecoregion, and geomorphic setting explained 21% of the variation in IEC values: F: 14.07, df = 24 and 1235, p-value: < 0.0001. Sites within marshland classified as backbarrier lagoons, and those protected and managed for biodiversity generally scored the highest (Figure 5; Table 4); though, the magnitude of differences between categories varied across sub-ecoregions. A significant interaction between conservation status and sub-ecoregion was also found.



*Figure 7. Estimates derived from the linear regression across sub-ecoregions after accounting for geomorphic setting. IEC values varied markedly across conservation designations, but this varied across sub-ecoregions (displayed north to south).*

*Table 4. Results of linear model with conservation status, sub-ecoregion, geomorphic setting and interaction between conservation and sub-ecoregion as predictors of IEC values*



### 1.7 Conclusions

We developed a metric to study saltmarsh ecological conditions across the northeastern Atlantic coast of the US following previously published methods for freshwater wetlands and forests. The metric (IEC) is calculated from an index of response functions derived from how birds respond to a composite variable representing tidal saltmarsh environments. The resulting IEC values were significantly higher at sites within areas protected and managed for biodiversity (USGS GAP status 1 and 2), evidence that conservation efforts had a positive effect on tidal salt marsh, however this varied across sub-ecoregions. Also, saltmarshdependent bird species were strong, positive contributors to the IEC, suggesting their value in determining marsh condition along the four environmental gradients, but for reasons that appeared to vary by species and across ecoregions. Further, we found that the variety of responses to individual components of the  $C_{env}$ composite suggest many indicator taxa should be utilized due to the plethora of environmental combinations driving biotic responses.

The practical value of this approach is twofold in that it is both easy to reproduce using standardized bird surveys and is interpretable through known ecological interactions between birds, anthropogenic stressors, and habitat features of the tidal salt marsh. Here, we used birds as indicators due to the broad geographic scope of our data, the known interactions between saltmarsh birds and their environment, and the ease with which sites can be surveyed. To use the IEC metric detailed here, one needs only to reproduce the standardized bird surveys and calculate the metric using the included biotic response functions in Table 1 and novel bird data (Figure 1, step 4).

In both ecoregions, higher than average IEC values predict both above average environmental conditions and saltmarsh-dependent birds. Taxa that indicate good environmental conditions include those with a wide array of ecological niches supported by salt marshes: aerial insectivores, diving terns, long-legged piscivorous waders, charadriiform shorebirds, and saltmarsh-specialist breeders, each presumably responding to conditions relating to the unique aspects of their ecology. As such, the higher bird abundance

is in general, and the more niches that are likely captured by those birds, the higher the general condition of the ecosystem as indicated by the IEC. Negative indicators include taxa that were positively correlated with development and habitat loss such as the American crow (*Corvus brachyrhynchos*), American goldfinch (*Spinus tristis*), common grackle (*Quiscalus quiscula*), and European starling. In contrast, most of the selected indicator taxa were negatively associated with the development and habitat loss that the human disturbance gradient represents, in both ecoregions, predicting nonlinear increases of average detections in undisturbed areas.

High IEC values indicate more vegetated intertidal marsh and less impact due to human disturbance and habitat loss. The best tidal saltmarsh sites as indicated by IEC values suggest intertidal marsh vegetation stretching for hundreds of meters. The platform would be fringed by thick stands of taller *S. alterniflora* along tidally inundated waterways that cut into the marsh. At the site level, thick mats of grass would occupy half the area, interspersed within areas of taller grass (*S. alterniflora*), potentially with patches of shrubs breaking the horizon and fringing the inland-upland transition zone. Variation in the cover of streams, ditches and pools predict numbers of aerial and stalking piscivores that use such features, as well as clapper rails. The site may experience a large intertidal range indicative of our more northerly locations, and at low tide such a marsh could be more than half mudflat, at which point one should be able to spot foraging birds exploiting bare areas or the newly exposed base of grasses growing in the (expanded) low marsh zone. Variance in predicted stability of the marsh at these sites depends on the variance in the amount of unvegetated intertidal area, a tradeoff between foraging sites for birds that exploit bare areas and the predicted stability of the marsh platform over decades. Development and other disturbance to intertidal wetlands within one km would be minimal.

Along with the ease of recreating the metric, results of analyses using the metric provides evidence of its viability to rank salt marshes along the Atlantic coast of the northeastern US. Highly ranked marshland coincides with conditions presumably created or preserved through conservation efforts as documented by GAP status, showing sensitivity for such an evaluation.



*Table 1. List of the indicator taxa for New England*

*and biotic response functions for PCs one and two.*



Yellow warbler

Yellow warbler

0.231

0.029

2.173

10.000

5.582 intermediate intermediate

0.059

0.353

0.186

6.079

3.104

1.930 intermediate intermediate

0.212



Willet

Yellow warbler

Yellow warbler

2.894 0.204

0.016

7.036

9.939

5.400 intermediate intermediate

-0.037

9.381

10.000

27.610

positive

0.392

0.048

0.148

0.307

-5.181

10.000

7.930

negative

1.920

0.320

6.413

3.510

11.691 intermediate intermediate

1.079

0.177



![](_page_38_Picture_1450.jpeg)

Table 2 (cont.) List of the indicator taxa for the Mid-Atlantic and biotic response functions for PCs three and four. *Table 2 (cont.) List of the indicator taxa for the Mid-Atlantic and biotic response functions for PCs three and four.*

![](_page_39_Picture_592.jpeg)

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Joshua Parrott was born October third, 1981, in Chillicothe Illinois, and raised in Hopewell Illinois among a typical farming community along the Illinois river valley. He graduated from Midland High School, a school consolidated across four small communities, with a graduating class of 42 in 2001. He joined the US Marine Corps right out of high school, deployed twice to Iraq during operation "Iraqi Freedom", left active duty in 2006, started attending Illinois Central Community college the same year, then was involuntarily recalled to active duty, deploying again to Iraq 2007 – 2008. He graduated from ICC with an associate degree in general education in 2010. He started attending Southern Illinois University in 2011 and graduated with a bachelor's degree in wildlife ecology and conservation in 2015. After this, he worked towards a master's degree in ecology, specializing in wetland ecology and amphibian disease ecology. These efforts were ultimately thwarted by a lack of funding due to political infighting in the Illinois senate, with several years of funding sources frozen due to the deadlocked budget. He moved to Maine in 2018, following his partner, who he married in 2020. He resumed his scholastic career in 2020, working towards a degree in ecology. He has worked in construction, as a cook, a janitor, an arborist, a hydraulic mechanic, a security forces sergeant, a military police augmentee, an invasive plant surveyor, a bird surveyor, an amphibian disease ecologist, and a tidal salt marsh ecologist.