

1    **Wetland Vegetation is a Crucial Element in Suppressing Coastal Erosion**

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21

22 **(Abstract < 150 words)**

23 Increasing rates of sea-level rise and wave action threaten coastal human populations. Defense of  
24 shorelines by protection and restoration of wetlands has been invoked as a win-win strategy for  
25 humans and nature, yet evidence from field experiments supporting the wetland protection  
26 function are uncommon, as is the understanding of its context-dependency. Here we provide  
27 evidence from field manipulations showing the loss of wetland vegetation, regardless of  
28 disturbance size, increases the rate of land loss on wave-stressed shorelines. Vegetation removal  
29 (simulated disturbance) along the edge of salt marshes reveals that loss of wetland plants elevates  
30 the rate of lateral erosion and that extensive root systems rather than aboveground biomass are  
31 primarily responsible for protection against erosion. Meta-analysis further shows that  
32 disturbances that generate plant die-off on salt marsh edges generally hasten erosion in coastal  
33 marshes and that this coastal protection function is positively correlated with the amount of  
34 belowground plant biomass. Collectively, our findings substantiate a coastal protection paradigm  
35 that incorporates preservation of shoreline vegetation and highlight local disturbances (e.g. oil  
36 spills) that kill wetland plants as agents that can accelerate coastal erosion.

37

38 **(Introduction < 500 words)**

39 Coastal areas will likely experience a relative rise in sea level that may exceed 1m over  
40 the next century, potentially displacing tens of millions of people<sup>1,2</sup>. This looming reality along  
41 with increases in the frequency and intensity of coastal disturbance and disasters in recent  
42 decades<sup>3,4</sup> has spurred a global discussion on how best to protect human populations and

43 infrastructure along our coastlines<sup>3,5</sup>. Many coastal management strategies now aim to maximize  
44 shoreline protection, minimize costs, and increase other benefits to humans (e.g. water quality  
45 enhancement, fish habitat provisioning) by strategically integrating both natural and man-made  
46 structures<sup>3,6,7</sup>. Fundamental to these hybrid designs is the expectation that natural barriers,  
47 specifically coastal wetlands, are effective in mitigating damage from disturbance and  
48 suppressing land loss from wave-induced erosion<sup>4,8</sup>. Experimental evidence from field studies  
49 supporting the wetland protection paradigm is uncommon, however, and those that have been  
50 conducted have sometimes generated conflicting results<sup>9</sup>. Furthermore, an in-depth, empirical  
51 understanding of the mechanisms that underlie this function is also limited (e.g. the relative  
52 importance of roots vs. aboveground plant material in suppressing erosion).

53 Geomorphological theory predicts wetland vegetation should reduce rates of shoreline  
54 erosion by dissipating wave energy<sup>10</sup>, increasing the shear strength of soils<sup>11</sup>, and influencing the  
55 elevation and morphology of the marsh edge<sup>12</sup>. Aboveground plant stems exert drag on incoming  
56 waves, leading to reduced wave heights, slower flow velocities, and lower shear stress on the  
57 marsh soil surface<sup>10</sup>. Belowground roots, by promoting cohesion of the soil and increasing its  
58 shear strength, are also predicted to reduce the vulnerability of shorelines to erosion<sup>11,13</sup>. Over  
59 longer time periods, marsh plants may additionally decrease erosion stress by facilitating vertical  
60 elevation growth through trapping sediment and contributing organic material.

61 The theory that marsh vegetation protects shoreline edges from erosion has a rich  
62 intellectual history and was established mostly based on early flume and numerical modeling  
63 studies. Recently, a direct field-based study has shown contrasting results, however. Specifically,

64 experimental work along the edge of Texas salt marshes found that “salt marsh plants do not  
65 significantly mitigate the total amount of erosion along a wetland edge”<sup>9</sup>. These results have  
66 received attention in recent investigations and reviews on coastal defense<sup>14-17</sup> and resulted in the  
67 formulation of an alternative intellectual framework for coastal defense that holds wetland  
68 vegetation should be considered as a secondary, rather than a central, component in coastal  
69 defense systems and that coastal managers should think critically about current plans to invest in  
70 protecting and enhancing coastal wetlands to help defend our shorelines<sup>5</sup>.

71 In contrast to this emerging view, our recent study investigating impacts of the  
72 BP-Deepwater Horizon oil spill indicated that oil-induced death of plants along the edge of  
73 Louisiana salt marshes accelerated marsh lateral erosion by ~100% (ref. 4). Recent syntheses of  
74 observational investigations in the field, in addition, contend that coastal vegetation can be  
75 effective in buffering against shoreline edge erosion<sup>10,16,17</sup>. This discussion highlights the need to  
76 resolve whether or not the loss of coastal wetland plants can increase land erosion at its edge and,  
77 if so, the mechanisms involved. The answer to this question has theoretical and practical  
78 importance as it is not only at the crux of the emerging academic field of ecogeomorphology, but  
79 is also at the center of the current consideration about whether or not significant coastal defense  
80 funds should be allocated toward salt marsh protection and augmentation.

81 To experimentally test if wetland vegetation presence reduces edge erosion along  
82 shorelines, we conducted a 3-year salt marsh plant removal study at field sites with similar  
83 shoreline morphology and wave exposure and examined treatments effects on both lateral and  
84 vertical erosion at the salt marsh edge. To differentiate between above versus belowground plant

85 effects on erosion rate, and to test if the effects of wetland plants vary with experimental scale,  
86 we manipulated vegetation at three levels of plant presence (control, aboveground removal, and  
87 aboveground + belowground removal) (see Fig. 1) and at three plot sizes (2, 4, and 8m<sup>2</sup>). We  
88 tested the generality of our findings with a meta-analysis by synthesizing results from past  
89 studies comparing marsh edge erosion rates under vegetated and vegetation-reduced conditions.

90

## 91 **Results**

92 In the field experiment, we observed a significant effect of the presence of vegetation on  
93 lateral erosion at the marsh edge ( $F_{2,34} = 4.80, P = 0.0146$ ; Fig. 2A), and our experimental  
94 removal of aboveground and belowground plant material was successful for their corresponding  
95 treatments (Fig. 2B and 2C, see text S1). Lateral erosion was highest in aboveground +  
96 belowground removal treatments ( $114.19 \pm 9.42$  cm; mean  $\pm$  SE, same below), and significantly  
97 higher when compared to vegetated control treatments ( $76.76 \pm 8.91$  cm;  $P < 0.05$ ). Lateral  
98 erosion rates did not differ between aboveground + belowground removal and aboveground  
99 removal treatments, nor between aboveground removal and control treatments ( $P > 0.05$ ).

100 Furthermore, lateral erosion was not affected by plot size ( $F_{2,34} = 0.81, P = 0.45$ ), and no  
101 significant interactions between vegetation presence and plot size treatments were found ( $F_{4,34} =$   
102  $0.70, P = 0.60$ ). Hence, independent of the scale of the disturbance, the presence of live  
103 belowground plant structures significantly slowed the lateral erosion of the marsh edge. We also  
104 evaluated the effect of vegetation presence on vertical erosion, and found that there were no  
105 effects of vegetation presence ( $F_{2,34} = 0.52, P > 0.05$ ), plot size ( $F_{2,34} = 0.24, P > 0.05$ ), nor their

106 interaction ( $F_{2,34} = 0.30, P > 0.05$ ; fig. S1).

107 The effect of aboveground + belowground removal on marsh edge lateral erosion  
108 measured in the above experiment was comparable to the effect found in 15 previous  
109 comparisons of marsh edge erosion between vegetated and vegetated-reduced conditions (Fig.  
110 3), which had a significantly positive mean effect size of 1.22 (95% confidence intervals,  
111 0.65-1.80) ( $P < 0.0001$ ), revealing a generally positive effect of vegetation on marsh edge  
112 erosion reduction. Consistent with our field experiment, the effect sizes of vegetation on erosion  
113 were significantly related to changes in belowground biomass ( $R^2 = 0.48, P = 0.054$ ). Greater  
114 losses in belowground biomass led to stronger increases in erosion (fig. S2).

115

## 116 **Discussion**

117 Our field experiment provides clear evidence that the loss of vegetation can increase  
118 wave-induced erosion of shoreline edges. The finding that vegetation mortality increased lateral  
119 erosion rate only when belowground biomass was killed suggests that the impact of plant roots  
120 on soil strength is more important than the impact of aboveground plant stems on baffling wave  
121 energy on shoreline edges. This result highlights live belowground plant structure as a primary  
122 factor generating shoreline protection services on salt marsh edges and emphasizes the relevance  
123 of understanding factors that influence resource allocation between above and belowground  
124 portions of wetland plants, such as eutrophication and grazing<sup>11,13</sup>.

125 Our synthesis of previous studies testing for impacts of vegetation on marsh edge erosion  
126 rate highlights the generality of our experimental findings. Averaged across all studies, the

127 presence of live plants was associated with lower rates of marsh edge erosion in both lab flume<sup>19</sup>  
128 and field studies<sup>4,21</sup> (Fig. 3). This erosion reduction effect was consistently observed in studies of  
129 different causes of vegetation loss (Fig. 3): studies using experimental removal of re-growing  
130 vegetation<sup>19</sup> and those on vegetation losses due to grazing<sup>22</sup>, oiling<sup>4</sup> and eutrophication<sup>13</sup> all  
131 observed such an effect. Consistent with our experimental findings, the presence of live  
132 belowground plant structures appears to be a primary mechanism by which marsh plants  
133 suppress lateral erosion, as increases in erosion are positively related with reduction in  
134 belowground biomass (fig. S2). The complementary findings of our experiment and  
135 meta-analyses validate the long-held perception that wetland plants protect shorelines from  
136 lateral erosion and thus act to suppress loss of land on its seaward edge.

137 These results contrast with the Texas study<sup>9</sup> that suggests that vegetation does not  
138 enhance marsh stability. Although our field experimental approaches were similar (vegetation  
139 removal), we suggest two differences explain contrasting results. First, we measured erosion as  
140 both the lateral retreat of the escarpment marsh edge and as vertical erosion of the marsh surface. In  
141 our experiment, we found large impacts of plant presence on lateral erosion, but not vertical  
142 erosion. By contrast, Feagin et al. assessed impacts of plant presence on erosion in the field only  
143 by measuring vertical erosion of the marsh surface<sup>3</sup>, and thus likely missed what we observed as  
144 the primary erosional response. Second, our experiment ran for more than twice as long (36  
145 versus 15 months). This ensured that there was near complete mortality of belowground roots in  
146 our experiment, and may have allowed ecogeomorphic feedbacks<sup>23,24</sup> to become reinforced,  
147 processes that may not have been captured in the Texas study.

148 Our results, combined with past studies, reveal important processes underlying  
149 vegetation-geomorphology interactions: loss of plant root structures on the edge of coastal  
150 wetlands can trigger a powerful ecogeomorphic response of elevated erosion rate. Enhanced  
151 erosion can, in turn, negatively affect the survival and growth of plants ahead of the erosive  
152 front<sup>4</sup> and even create or enhance a persistent positive geomorphic feedback<sup>4,14</sup>, where erosion  
153 leads to permanent wetland habitat loss. When erosive fronts form, the remaining protective  
154 effect of the vegetation on top of the escarpment can be overwhelmed as continued wave action  
155 leads to undercutting and eventual collapse of the escarpment wetland edge. Such runaway erosion  
156 of wetland edges can persist for decades and lead to extensive marsh loss, as is observed along  
157 many European<sup>25</sup> and North American salt marshes<sup>23</sup>.

158 This new theoretical synthesis highlights the need for wetland science and management  
159 to more fully incorporate lateral erosion, fueled by vegetation die-off on the wetland edge, as a  
160 primary agent of wetland loss. This is a crucial element to coastal wetland conservation, as  
161 wetland vegetation itself is typically highly resilient to disturbances that impose mortality  
162 without the potential for elevated erosion, even when these occur at dramatic, ecosystem-wide  
163 scales<sup>26,27</sup>. However, processes that cause vegetation loss on the edge of wetlands, such as  
164 food-web interactions (e.g. trophic cascades, runaway grazing), increased physical or chemical  
165 stress (e.g., pollution, eutrophication), or human activities (e.g. haying), can accelerate erosion  
166 and subsequent land loss, reducing the potential for wetland recovery. Hence, wetland vegetation  
167 on the ecosystem edge acts as a nexus for strong, indirect interactions between species  
168 interaction networks, biogeochemistry, anthropogenic impacts and geomorphology. Not

169 accounting for the potential for this powerful ecogeomorphic feedback can lead to incorrect  
170 predictions of the impact of large-scale vegetation loss on wetland coverage (e.g. from massive  
171 oiling events) and underestimating the destructive impacts of grazing that is now common  
172 throughout many Western Atlantic salt marshes<sup>26</sup>.

173 Given these findings, it is imperative that we continue integrating preservation and  
174 enhancement of coastal wetlands into our shoreline defense strategies to protect against  
175 wave-induced erosion<sup>5</sup>. This should involve both conservation of existing wetlands and active  
176 restoration of coastal wetlands on degraded shorelines. Key for effectively integrating wetland  
177 vegetation into coastal defense strategies will be unraveling the functional relationship of this  
178 now confirmed coastal-wetland-shoreline protection paradigm (i.e. when and where wetlands  
179 provide protection and when they do not). This will require integration of observations,  
180 large-scale experimental studies, and mathematical approaches that can scale-up non-linearities  
181 in wave protection functions and geomorphological dynamics to provide a thorough  
182 understanding of the stability and persistent effectiveness of coastal wetlands as an integrated  
183 line of defense against the rising and ever more energetic seas.

184

185 **Methods (< 3000 words)**

186 **Field experiment**

187 We conducted our experiment from August 2010 to October 2013 in *Spartina*  
188 *alterniflora*-dominated salt marshes fringing the intercoastal waterway (ICW) in Marineland,  
189 Florida (29°40'52.56"N, 81°13'26.85"W). We selected this location for our study for the

190 following reasons. First, many of the salt marshes along the ICW in this area display the defining  
191 characteristic of an eroding coastal wetland<sup>20</sup>: an escarpment, ~ 90° edge (40-60cm in height) with  
192 exposed rhizomes (Fig 1). This ecosystem edge profile is similar to that of eroding Gulf Coast  
193 marshes both in the Feagin et al. experimental study<sup>3</sup> and in the BP-DWH oil impact  
194 investigation<sup>4</sup> and the vertical angle of the edges in this study did not vary among treatments  
195 (mean = 82° +/- 4.5°,  $P = 0.43$ ). Second, we found replicate sites with statistically similar slopes  
196 over the first 3m from the edge; fetch also did not vary between treatments, as the width of the  
197 ICW is relatively constant and the directionality is nearly straight with no significant bends in  
198 this area (fig. S4). Specifically, the mean slope and fetch were 0.093 ( $\pm 0.021$ , standard  
199 deviation) and 174 ( $\pm 9$ ) m, respectively, and did not differ among treatments ( $P = 0.54$  and 0.81,  
200 respectively). These data (edge angle, slope, and fetch) suggest that the erosion potential for our  
201 sites did not vary among treatments. Third, because of the relatively close proximity of all sites  
202 (all replicates were located along a 2,000m stretch of marsh edge), all replicates were exposed to  
203 a very similar frequency and amplitude of both wind- and boat-generated waves (R. Gleeson,  
204 *personal communication*). The average tidal range in this area of the ICW is ~ 0.76 m, the marsh  
205 surface is ~ 10 cm above the mean water level, and boats are the primary generator of waves in  
206 this system.

207 To investigate the impact of vegetation presence on marsh edge erosion rate, we set up a  
208 factorial experiment with plot size and plant presence as factors. There were three levels of plot  
209 size (2, 4 and 8m<sup>2</sup>: 1, 2, and 4m parallel to marsh edge  $\times$  2m perpendicular to marsh edge) and  
210 three levels of plant presence (control, aboveground removal, and aboveground + belowground

211 removal). We chose these plot sizes as they encompass the sizes of die-off patches that naturally  
212 occur along marsh edges due to disturbance by mats of vegetation, algae, or oil. Plots (43 in  
213 total) were positioned 2-4m apart and haphazardly assigned to each plot size and plant presence  
214 treatment combination (replicated 4-5 times). Aboveground removal treatments were maintained  
215 by trimming all stems within plots down to the substrate and repeating this treatment each month  
216 to ensure treatment integrity. The presence of emergent shoots from rhizomes indicated  
217 belowground plant structures remained alive through the duration of the experiment.

218 Aboveground + belowground removal treatments were maintained by trimming stems, as above,  
219 and dripping Rodeo® herbicide into the exposed, cut stems bi-monthly. Herbicide was applied in  
220 this fashion to ensure it only contacted plants and thus would not interact directly with the  
221 sediment or infauna. As a procedural control, control plots received a similar amount of walking  
222 activity as plant removal treatments. To assess the effect of experimental treatments, we  
223 measured live plant cover (in 50×50cm quadrats) and ratio of dead:live rhizomes in marsh cores  
224 in each plot using established methods<sup>4</sup> after one year.

225 To quantify the effect of experimental treatments on shoreline erosion, we demarcated  
226 the marsh edge at the beginning of the study by pushing 0.5cm diameter PVC stakes 50cm into  
227 the substrate at 0.25m increments along the marsh edge in each plot. To ensure proper  
228 orientation of subsequent erosion measurements, we installed 3cm diameter PVC pipes along the  
229 medial line of each plot, perpendicular to the shoreline, at three positions: the leading edge of the  
230 marsh, 1m from the leading edge, and 2m from the leading edge. After three years, we quantified  
231 lateral erosion by measuring the distance between the initial edge and new edge every 25cm of

232 shoreline within each plot and averaged all measurements collected per plot. We used this spatial  
233 interval for measurements and averaging approach because the erosion of escarp edges occurs  
234 via the slumping off and washing away of clumps of marsh and is therefore variable over short  
235 distances (see photo of aboveground + belowground removal plot in fig. S3) (refs. 4,28).  
236 Consequently, multiple measurements along the edge are needed to avoid place-based sampling  
237 biases that can occur from having designated measurement points that occur on areas with either  
238 slumping or not. We estimated changes in vertical erosion by pushing 0.5cm diameter PVC  
239 stakes 50cm into the substrate 10 cm from the marsh edge, notching the marsh surface soil  
240 interface and then measured vertical change after 1 year. Each plot had 2 vertical PVC pipes for  
241 measuring vertical erosion. The amount of vertical erosion did not differ between year 1 and 3,  
242 so we reported vertical erosion after 1 year.

243 We used a two-way ANOVA to examine the effects of plot size and plant presence  
244 treatments on lateral and vertical marsh erosion rates. Post hoc Tukey HSD multiple comparisons  
245 were conducted to examine if marsh erosion rate differs between each pair of treatments.  
246 Differences were considered significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . All statistical analysis was  
247 performed using R 3.04 (ref. 29).

248

## 249 **Meta-analysis**

250 To examine whether vegetation generally suppresses marsh lateral erosion, we conducted  
251 a synthesis of relevant studies. We focused on marsh edge erosion because it provides a direct  
252 measure of the capacity of a wetland to withstand the stress of small to intermediate waves that

253 impact the marsh on its edge. Vegetation effects on sedimentation and elevation changes in  
254 marsh interiors or on wave attenuation have been well established in previous syntheses<sup>16,17,30</sup>, so  
255 were not considered here.

256 To compile a list of relevant studies on vegetation's effect on marsh edge erosion, we  
257 first searched Web of Science for articles using the search query TS = marsh\* AND TS =  
258 (erosion OR retreat OR loss). This search resulted in 1243 articles between 2010 and 2017. Then,  
259 for studies prior to 2010, we considered those included in a previous meta-analysis (16), which  
260 examined the protective role of marsh vegetation but did not specifically investigate the effect of  
261 vegetation on marsh edge erosion, the focal question of our study. Studies from these two  
262 sources that compared erosion rates in vegetated and vegetation-reduced conditions were  
263 retained for data extraction. Studies could be observational or experimental, and vegetation  
264 reduction could have been caused by experimental removal or other factors that depressed  
265 above- and/or below-ground vegetation. For each study, mean erosion rates in vegetated and  
266 vegetation-reduced treatments, as well as their standard errors/ deviations and sample sizes, were  
267 extracted from tables, figures or text, and the study system (either lab flume or field setting),  
268 study species, cause of vegetation reduction (e.g., experimental removal, naturally unvegetated,  
269 oil-, herbivory-, or eutrophication- induced loss), and the measure of edge erosion  
270 (weight/volume loss, elevational loss, or lateral loss) were recorded. When available in the above  
271 studies, belowground biomass data (means, standard errors/ deviations and sample sizes) in both  
272 vegetated and vegetation-reduced treatments were also extracted.

273 We computed Hedges'  $g^*$  effect sizes<sup>31</sup>, a measure of the unbiased, standardized mean

274 difference in erosion rate between vegetation-reduced and vegetated treatments for each study. A  
275 positive effect size indicates the measure of erosion was lower in the presence than absence of  
276 vegetation in the study. Effect sizes are considered significant if their 95% confidence intervals  
277 do not overlap zero. Mean effect sizes across all retained studies were estimated using  
278 random-effects models<sup>31</sup>. Similarly, we computed Hedges'  $g^*$  effect sizes for belowground  
279 biomass where belowground biomass data were available. To examine if variation in the effect  
280 of vegetation on erosion reduction among studies is related to variation in relative changes in  
281 belowground biomass, we examined the relationship between erosion and belowground biomass  
282 effect sizes using a meta-regression.

283 To test for the influence of potential publication bias, we used three analyses. First, we  
284 tested the asymmetry of funnel plots using a regression test with the sampling variance as the  
285 predictor<sup>32</sup>. Second, we estimated mean effect sizes after correcting potential publication bias  
286 using the trim and fill method, which is a nonparametric data augmentation technique to estimate  
287 the number of missing studies due to the suppression of the most extreme results on one side of  
288 the funnel plot. Missing data were estimated and filled in, and mean effect sizes were  
289 re-computed (see details in ref. 32). Third, we computed Rosenthal's fail-safe number to  
290 determine the number of studies with no significant effect that are needed to change the  
291 significance of the meta-analysis<sup>33</sup>. The regression test showed that the funnel plot was  
292 significantly asymmetric ( $z = 3.70, P = 0.0002$ ). Adjusting publication bias using the trim and fill  
293 method yielded a smaller but consistently significant mean effect size of 0.95 (0.21-1.69). The  
294 Rosenthal's fail-safe number was 346, higher than  $5n + 10$ , where  $n$  is the number of studies (i.e.,

295 15) included in our analysis. Collectively, they indicate that our results were robust to  
296 publication bias. All analyses were conducted using the *metafor* package<sup>32</sup> in R 3.04.

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410

411 **Author contributions**

412 BS, QH, CA, MK, PD, JB, JN, JvdK wrote the paper; BS, CA and JN designed study, QH and

413 BS analyzed data.

414

415 **Competing interests**

416 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

417

418 **Additional information**

419 Supplementary information is available for this paper:

420 Text S1. Treatment effects on plant cover and rhizomes in the field experiment.

421 Fig. S1. Vertical erosion rates in each plant presence x plot size treatment.

422 Fig. S2. Meta-regression of the effect sizes of vegetation on erosion against relative changes in

423 belowground biomass.

424 Fig. S3. Experimental field site and photographs showing different experimental treatments

425 Fig. S4. Map of the site where the experiment took place.

426

427 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

428 **Fig. 1. Photographs showing the experiment.** (A-C) Representative experimental plots. (A)  
429 Control, (B) aboveground removal belowground removal, and (C) aboveground removal only.  
430 Note that the marsh in front of and behind the first white marker pole in  
431 aboveground+belowground removal plots has already collapsed while in aboveground removal  
432 and control plots the marsh is still intact. Photos were taken one year after the beginning of the  
433 experiment. (D-E) Representative photographs showing wave exposure on marsh borders (D)  
434 and substantial erosion in aboveground+belowground removal treatments three years after the  
435 experiment began (E).

436

437 **Fig. 2. Summary of the results of the field experiment.** (A) Erosion rates on the marsh edge,  
438 (B) plant cover, and (C) proportional rhizomes dead in each plot presence  $\times$  plot size treatment.  
439 Shown are means and SEs ( $n = 4-5$ ). Plant presence treatments significantly affected edge  
440 erosion rates ( $P = 0.0146$ ), plant cover ( $P < 0.001$ ), and proportion of dead rhizomes ( $P < 0.001$ )  
441 and while neither bed size alone nor its interaction with vegetation removal affected those  
442 vegetation variables or marsh edge erosion ( $P > 0.45$  in all cases).

443

444 **Fig. 3. Synthesis of field and laboratory studies on salt marsh vegetation loss and marsh**  
445 **edge erosion.** All study species were *Spartina alterniflora*, except that Coops et al. (1996)  
446 examined *Scirpus lacustris* (the lower one) and *Phragmites australis* (the upper one) and that  
447 Benner et al. (1982) examined a mixed group of grasses and sedges. Data points and error bars

448 are effect sizes (Hedges'  $g^*$ ) and 95% confidence intervals. Positive effect sizes indicate  
449 vegetation reduces erosion. Effect sizes are significant if their 95% confidence intervals do not  
450 overlap zero. Although five of the 15 comparisons had an insignificant effect size, three were  
451 actually reported as being significantly positive in the original studies (only our more  
452 conservative test found them to be insignificant).

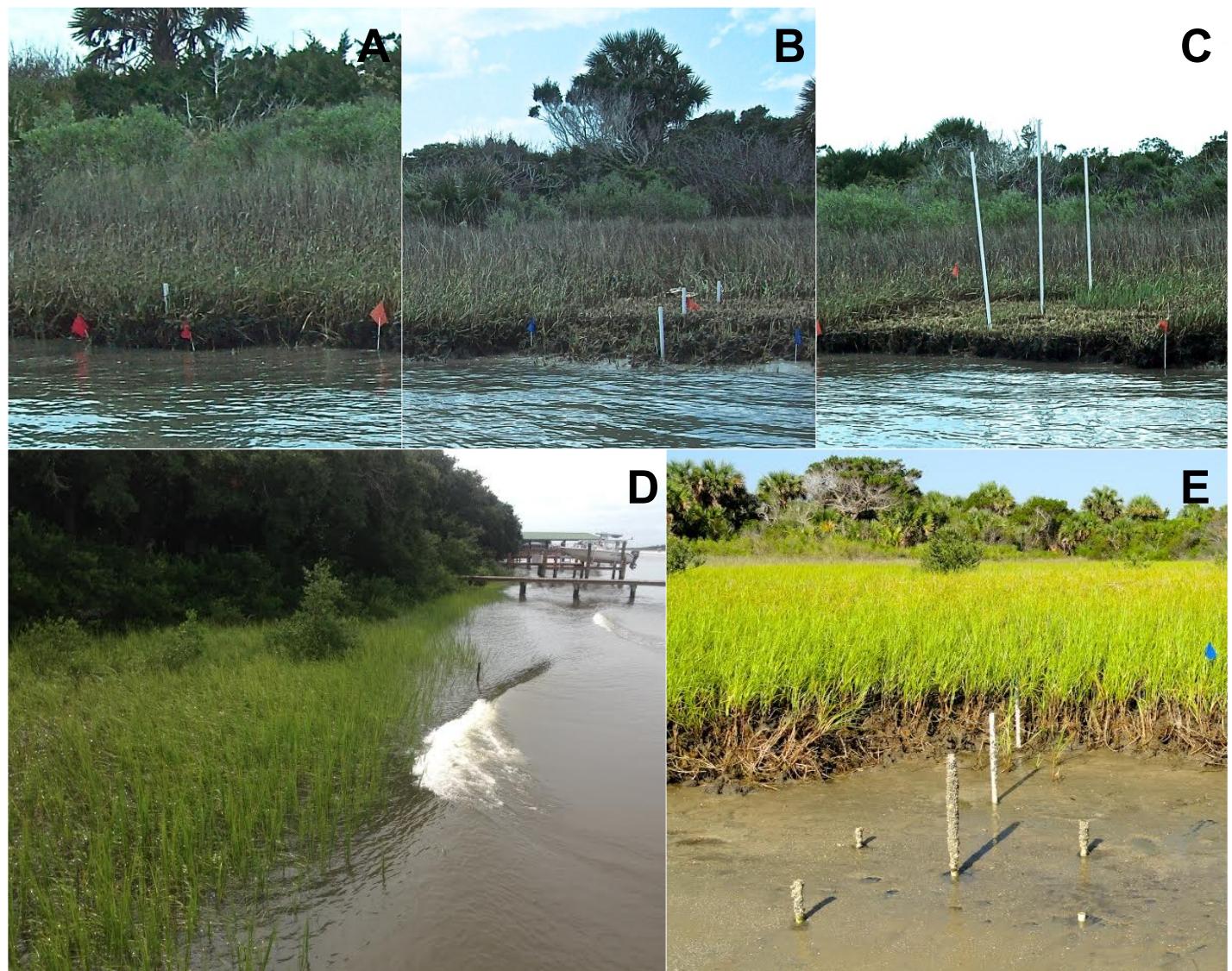
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454 **Figures**

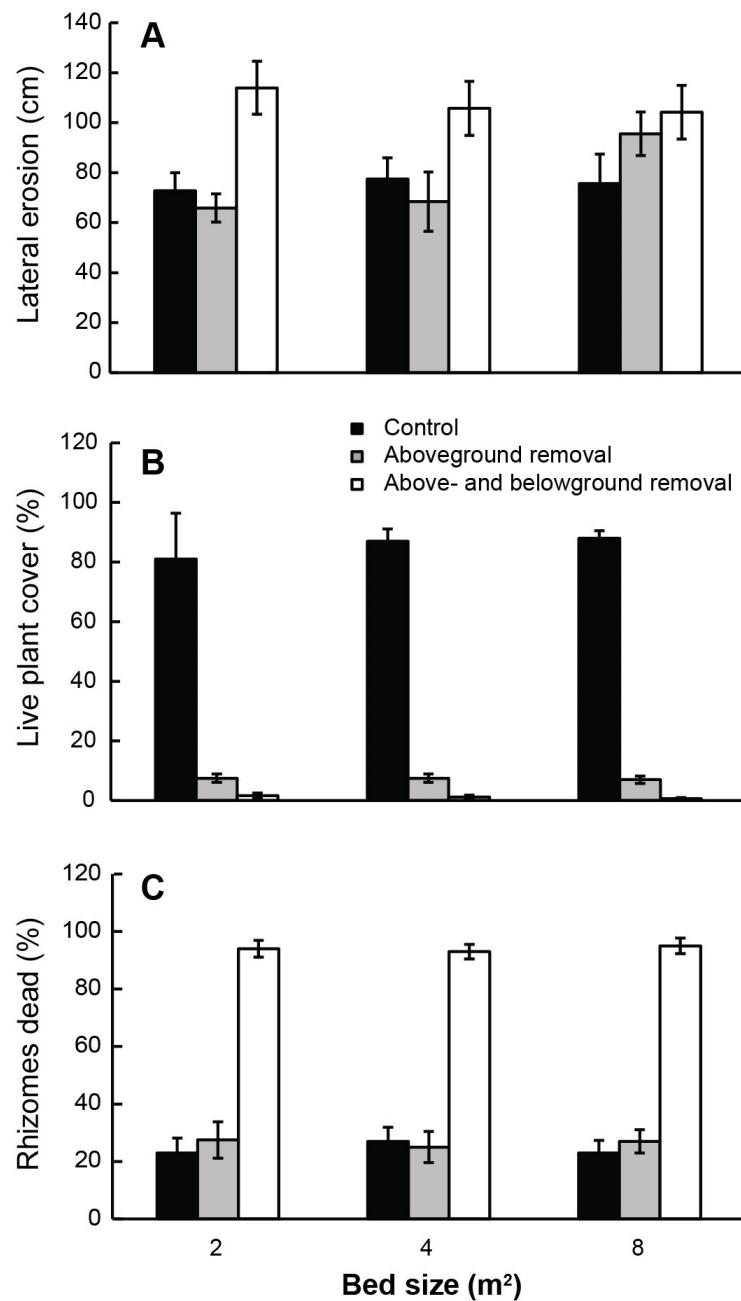
455 Figure 1

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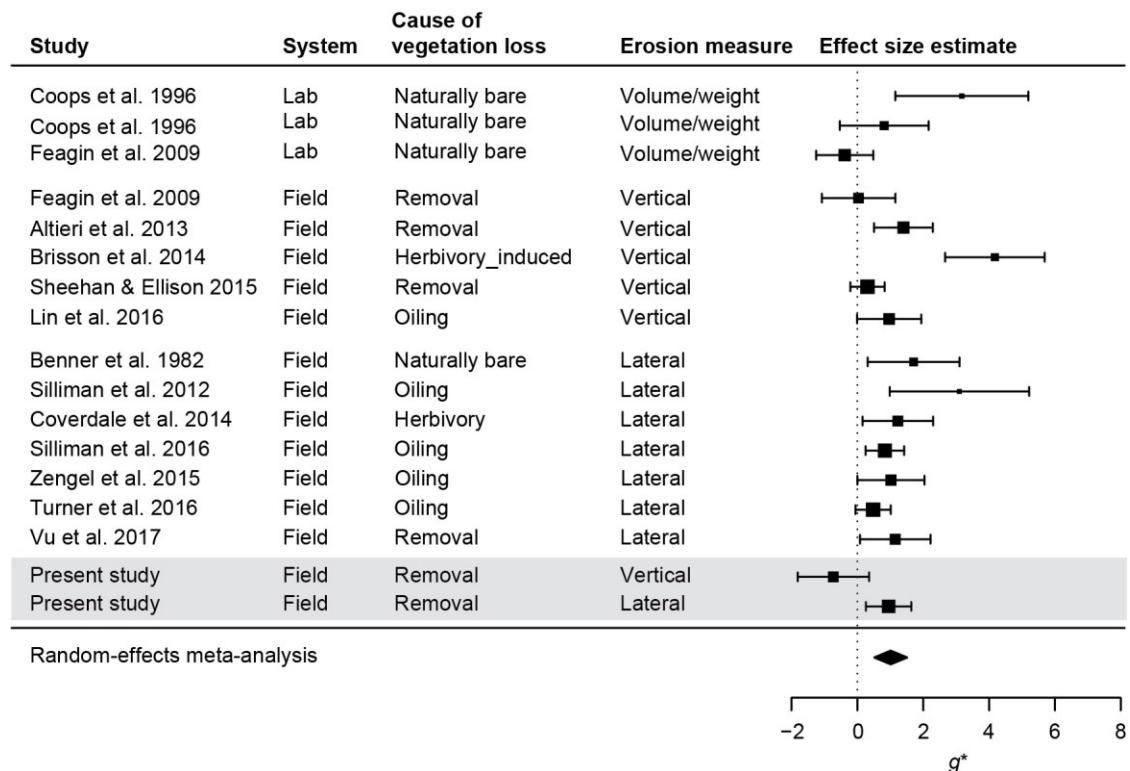


458 Figure 2.



459

460 Figure 3.



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462

463 **Supplementary Materials**

464

465 **Text S1. Treatment effects on plant cover and rhizomes in the field experiment**

466       Generalized linear models (GLM) were used to examine the individual and interactive  
467    effects of plot size and plant presence treatments on live plant cover and the proportion of dead  
468    rhizomes. Quasi-Poisson distributions were used to account for overdispersion (overdispersion  
469    parameters were 2.83 and 3.11 for live plant cover and proportional of dead rhizomes data,  
470    respectively). Effects of plot size and plant presence treatments and their interactions were tested  
471    by comparing the resulting deviances to Wald  $\chi^2$  test statistics using the Type II sum of squares  
472    in R *car* package<sup>30,31</sup>.

473       As expected, aboveground removal significantly eliminated live plant cover in both  
474    aboveground and aboveground + belowground removal treatments ( $df = 2, \chi^2 = 368.2, P < 0.001$ ;  
475    Fig. 2B). Average live plant cover in control treatments was  $85.33 \pm 5.03\%$ , while in  
476    aboveground and aboveground + belowground removal treatments live plant cover was  $< 10\%$ .  
477       Neither plot size ( $df = 2, \chi^2 = 0.20, P = 0.82$ ) nor the interaction between plant presence and plot  
478    size ( $df = 4, \chi^2 = 0.27, P = 0.90$ ) affected live aboveground plant cover. The proportion of dead  
479    rhizomes, in addition, was significantly greater in aboveground + belowground removal  
480    treatments that received regular herbicide application ( $df = 2, \chi^2 = 260.2, P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2C),  
481    indicating this method for killing belowground plant structures was effective. No effect was  
482    found of plot size ( $df = 2, \chi^2 = 0.01, P = 1.00$ ). While the proportion of dead rhizomes in cores  
483    was typically 10-30% in control and aboveground removal treatments, it was  $> 90\%$  in all

484 aboveground + belowground removal treatments. No interaction between plant presence and plot  
485 size treatments on rhizome mortality was found ( $df = 4, \chi^2 = 0.90, P = 0.92$ ).

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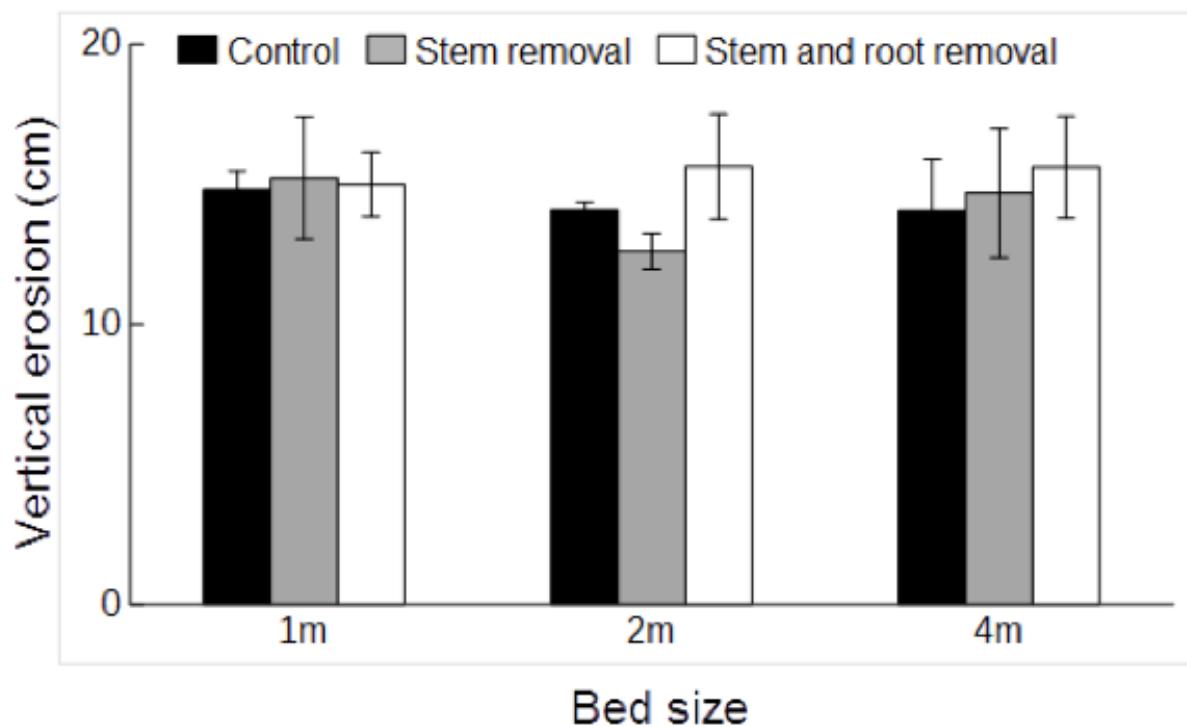
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493 **Fig. S1.** Vertical erosion rates in each plant presence x plot size treatment. Shown are means and  
494 SEs ( $n = 4-5$ ).

495



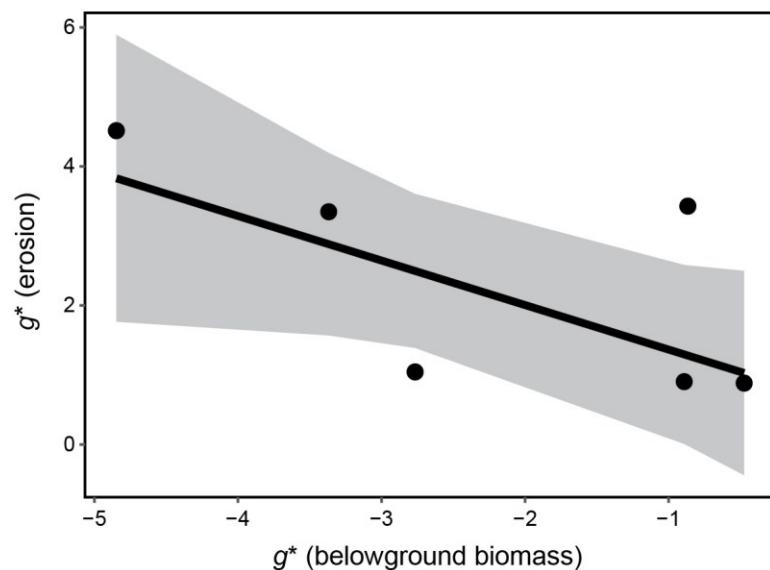
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499 **Fig. S2** Meta-regression of the effect sizes of vegetation on erosion against relative changes in  
500 belowground biomass. Negative  $g^*$  (belowground biomass) indicates reduction in belowground  
501 biomass, and positive  $g^*$  (erosion) indicates that higher erosion rate in vegetation-reduced  
502 treatments than in control treatments. The meta-regression model is nearly significant ( $R^2 = 0.48$ ,  
503  $P = 0.054$ ). Shaded areas are 95% confidence intervals.

504

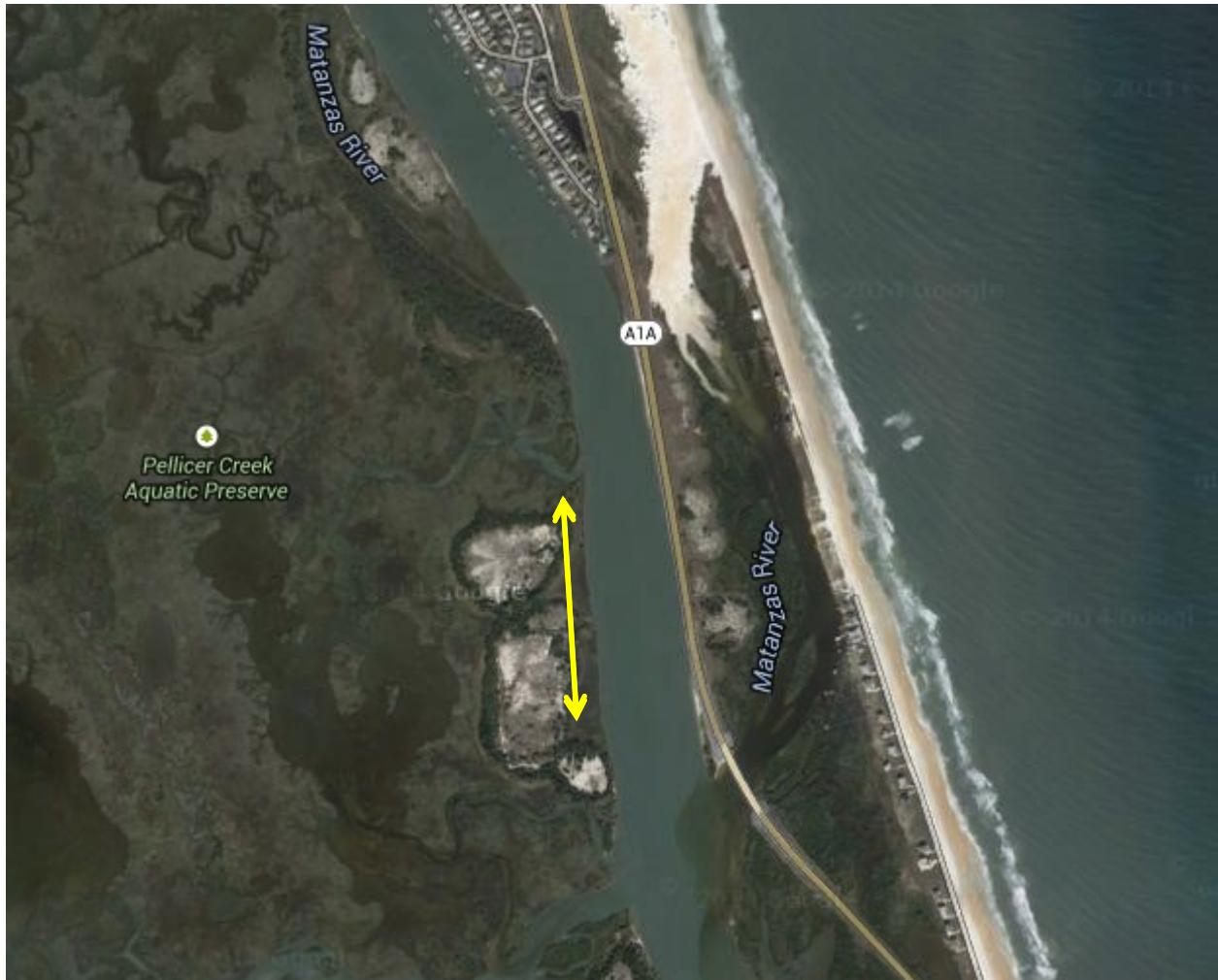


508 **Fig. S3.** Experimental field site and photo showing, from left to right, (1) 1x2m aboveground +  
509 belowground removal, (2) 1x2 m control plot, (3) 2x2m aboveground removal, and (4) 2x2m  
510 aboveground+belowground removal. Note that the escarped edge indicates that the shoreline is  
511 already eroding and that there are clumps of marsh eroding from the aboveground +  
512 belowground removal plot.



513  
514

515 **Fig. S4.** Map of the ICW ~ 30km south of St. Augustine Florida where the experiment took  
516 place. Note consistent width of the ICW in this area. Yellow line indicates the area and the side  
517 of the ICW where this study took place.



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