

## *Litter decomposition in retreating coastal forests*

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**11 Abstract:** Rising sea levels lead to the migration of salt marshes into coastal forests

12 thereby shifting both ecosystem composition and function. In this study we investigate leaf litter

13 decomposition, a critical component of forest carbon cycling, across the marsh-forest boundary

14 with a focus on the potential influence of environmental gradients (i.e., temperature, light,

15 moisture, salinity, and oxygen) on decomposition rates. To examine litter decomposition

16 these potentially competing co-occurring environmental gradients, we deployed litterbags within

17 distinct forest health communities along the marsh-forest continuum and monitored

18 decomposition rates over six months. Our results revealed that while the burial depth of litter

enhanced decomposition within any individual forest zone by approximately 60% (deca-

20  $0.272 \pm 0.020 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (surface),  $0.450 \pm 0.030 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (buried)) we observed limited changes in

<sup>11</sup> See, e.g., *W. H. H. Stassen, The Hague, 1919* (1920), pp. 111-112, and *W. H. H. Stassen, The Hague, 1920* (1921), pp. 111-112.

25 decomposition across the marsh-forest boundary. However, despite similar decomposition rates  
26 across the boundary, the accumulated soil litter layer disappears because leaf litter influx  
27 decreases from the absence of mature trees. Our finding that environmental gradients counteract  
28 expected decomposition trends could inform carbon-climate model projections and may be  
29 indicative of decomposition dynamics present in other transitioning ecosystem boundaries.

30 **Key Words:** Decomposition, leaf litter, marsh-forest boundary, saltwater intrusion

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42

43      ***Introduction***

44           Accelerating sea-level rise rates (Kemp et al. 2011) promote ecosystem transitions within  
45       low-lying coastal landscapes and fundamentally reorganize ecosystem structure (Hein and  
46       Kirwan 2023; Langston et al. *in review*). Coastal salt marshes are vital environments that provide  
47       ecosystem services such as critical habitat, storm surge protection, and long-term carbon storage  
48       (Chmura et al. 2003; Gedan et al. 2009; Möller et al. 2014). Unfortunately, coastal marshes are at  
49       the forefront of climate-driven ecosystem loss where projected rates of sea-level rise are  
50       expected to overcome internal biophysical feedbacks that maintain ecosystem resilience (Kirwan  
51       et al. 2016; Törnqvist et al. 2021; Saintilan et al. 2022). However, across widespread areas,  
52       increasing inundation and saltwater intrusion driven by sea-level rise facilitate simultaneous  
53       migration of wetlands and retreat of upland forests (Fagherazzi et al. 2019; Kirwan and Gedan  
54       2019). While marsh migration helps to maintain coastal wetland extent, coastal forests that  
55       provide unique ecosystem services are lost (Brinson 1991; Smith and Kirwan 2021; Chen and  
56       Kirwan 2022). This ecosystem conversion has been shown across the Atlantic Coast of the  
57       United States (Chen and Kirwan 2022; Warnell et al. 2022; White et al. 2022), but despite its  
58       widespread occurrence, ecological and carbon dynamics during this transition remain  
59       understudied.

60           Although marsh migration results in the eventual ecosystem transition from coastal forest  
61       to coastal wetland, subtle changes in ecology and soil biogeochemistry precede widespread  
62       forest mortality (Tully et al. 2019). For example, in the early stages of groundwater salinization  
63       living trees reduce sap flow and annual growth (Krauss and Duberstein 2010). Likewise,  
64       saltwater intrusion increases alkalinity and ionic strength in soils, which leaches critical nutrients  
65       and saturates soils (Weston et al. 2006; Tully et al. 2019). As salinization and inundation

66 increase, tree recruitment ceases and immature trees display early signs of mortality such as low  
67 needle production (Conner et al. 2007; Kirwan et al. 2007). This creates a forest dominated by  
68 mature trees unable to reproduce (Kearney et al. 2019), but as salinity and flooding frequency  
69 increase, even these mature salt-tolerant tree species begin to die. The remaining standing dead  
70 mature trees form the overstory of the ghost forest transition zone that characterizes the marsh-  
71 forest ecotone (Kirwan and Gedan 2019). While past research has emphasized the effect of  
72 marsh migration on mature tree communities, ecosystem functions, such as decomposition,  
73 remain relatively understudied.

74 Sea-level driven saltwater intrusion into coastal forests creates an inundation and salinity  
75 gradient across the marsh-forest ecotone (Fig. 1). Increased inundation has been shown to have a  
76 range of positive to negative effects on litter decomposition in intertidal marsh field and  
77 mesocosm experiments (White and Trapani 1982; Hackney 1987; Conner and Day 1991; Halupa  
78 and Howes 1995; Kirwan et al. 2013; Janousek et al. 2017). While moisture can facilitate  
79 decomposition in dry environments, inundation magnitude, duration, or frequency can modify  
80 decomposition responses, such as reducing decomposition when transitioning from aerobic to  
81 anaerobic conditions (Happell and Chanton 1993; Langhans and Tockner 2006; Janousek et al.  
82 2017). Parallel with this flooding gradient is the introduction of salts into coastal forests, which  
83 can increase labile organic matter decomposition and stimulate soil respiration in short-term  
84 exposures ( Weston et al. 2006; Chambers et al. 2011; Stagg et al. 2017). However, indirect  
85 effects of sea level rise, such as salinity driven shifts in vegetation community, can mitigate  
86 increased decomposition at longer time scales, and other studies indicate reduced decomposition  
87 under higher salinities (Stagg et al. 2017; Qu et al. 2019). Additionally, shifts in the vegetation  
88 community and opening of the forest canopy further alter the abiotic environment by increasing

89 light availability (photodegradation), soil temperatures (microbial respiration and organic matter  
90 destabilization), and nutrient enrichment (priming), all of which can potentially increase  
91 decomposition rates ( Mendelsohn et al. 1999; Austin and Vivanco 2006; Mueller et al. 2018;  
92 Jobe IV and Gedan 2021; Kottler and Gedan 2022; Nordio and Fagherazzi 2022; Sward et al.  
93 2023). These co-occurring environmental gradients have variable effects on decomposition  
94 independently and interactions between these drivers are often difficult to parse (Stagg et al.  
95 2017; Mueller et al. 2018; Joly et al. 2023), but competition between these drivers may reveal  
96 unique decomposition dynamics within this rapidly transitioning boundary. Previous studies  
97 have identified these drivers across single ecosystems, but this study presents the first  
98 information on litter decomposition across this ecotone.

99 While conventional blue carbon research may have indicated that a transition from forest  
100 to wetland soils would likely increase carbon storage due to inundated, anaerobic conditions,  
101 whole-ecosystem carbon stock assessments document an initial, large magnitude loss of carbon  
102 during marsh migration (Smart et al. 2020; Smith and Kirwan 2021). This reduction is expected  
103 to have decadal scale impacts on regional carbon storage (Smith and Kirwan 2021). However,  
104 organic matter preservation and decomposition during marsh migration is largely undefined and  
105 could reduce the scale of carbon loss (Valentine et al. 2023; Van Allen et al. 2021). To examine  
106 changes to decomposition during marsh migration, we quantified the decay rate of surficial and  
107 buried leaf litter at distinct forest health zones along the marsh-forest ecotone.

108 **Methods**

109 *Study area and approach*

110 To test how forest leaf litter decomposition differs across the marsh-forest ecotone, we  
111 deployed litter bags at the marsh-forest boundary situated near Phillips Creek, a tidal creek  
112 within the back-barrier landscape of the Eastern Shore of Virginia, USA (Fig. 2). The study area  
113 is located within The Nature Conservancy's Brownsville Preserve, part of the Virginia Coast  
114 Reserve and a Long-Term Ecological Research site (Brinson et al. 1995; Kirwan and Blum 2011;  
115 Smith et al. 2024). This ecotone is situated within the Mid-Atlantic sea level rise hotspot  
116 (Sallenger et al. 2012), which serves as a model region to study the effects of sea-level driven  
117 land conversion because rates of relative sea-level rise (between 3 and 6 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>) in recent  
118 decades are twice as fast as eustatic rates (~2 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>) and the gently sloping, rural coast  
119 facilitates marsh migration (Chen and Kirwan 2022). Approximately 400 km<sup>2</sup> of salt marsh have  
120 migrated into retreating coastal forests within this region since the mid-nineteenth century  
121 (Schieder et al. 2018), and rates of forest retreat are accelerating in parallel with relative sea-  
122 level rise (Schieder and Kirwan 2019).

123 Phillips Creek presents small differences in elevation between the highest and lowest  
124 point across the environmental gradient (<0.2 m) which extends the ecotone width and provides  
125 an ideal site at which to study sea-level driven changes (Smith and Kirwan 2021). Despite  
126 relatively similar elevations, the overstory and understory vegetation communities vary  
127 significantly along the ecotone (Supplementary Fig. 1). Specifically, Phillips Creek exemplifies  
128 expected forest zonation at the marsh forest boundary including a high forest (HF), mid forest  
129 (MF), low forest (LF), and transition zone (TZ), which are characterized and described in Smith  
130 and Kirwan (2021; Supplementary Fig. 1). The HF is unaffected by salt intrusion with a mixed-  
131 age structure. The mid forest (MF) displays early signs of salt stress through needle browning,  
132 increased hardwood tree mortality, and maximized shrub (*Morella cerifera*) encroachment. In

133 the low forest (LF) there are few hardwood trees alive, early signs of salt stress in softwood  
134 trees, no forest regeneration in the understory, and shrub encroachment is diminished by  
135 increasing soil salinities. Finally, the transition zone (TZ) displays at least 50% of the standing  
136 trees are dead and the understory is dominated by *Phragmites australis* and high marsh  
137 herbaceous species (Sward et al. 2023).

138 *Litterbag Decomposition Experiment*

139 To measure decomposition of forest litter, we used the litter bag technique, where mesh  
140 bags of leaf litter are placed on the forest floor or buried and the amount of mass lost over time is  
141 determined (Krishna and Mohan 2017). Bags (20 cm x 20 cm) were constructed using 1 mm  
142 polyester mesh (Bioquip Inc.) and nylon thread. An 1 mm mesh size allowed for some  
143 macrofauna access to bag contents, but minimized material loss through the mesh (Krishna and  
144 Mohan 2017). Fresh litter was collected from the high forest zone at Phillips Creek, VA, dried at  
145 60 °C and sorted into pine needles and mixed-species deciduous leaf litter. Litter bags were filled  
146 with 10 g of litter consisting of 6 g of dried pine needles and 4 g of dried deciduous leaves,  
147 which is representative of the dry weight fraction present in the leaf litter at the field site.  
148 Although litter type affects decomposition rates (Gartner and Cardon 2004), we included both  
149 coniferous and deciduous material in the bags to represent the mixed litter present at the site. All  
150 bags were labeled, dried, and weighed prior to deployment.

151 Bags were deployed in March 2022 along a pre-existing gradient within the marsh-forest  
152 ecotone (Smith and Kirwan 2021; Fig. 1; Fig. 2). Four sites were selected in each of the  
153 dominant vegetation types: high forest, mid forest, low forest, and transition zone. Within the  
154 forest zones at Phillips Creek, approximately 600 tree individuals were identified to characterize

155 community composition within the forest zones. At each site, we buried half of the bags at the  
156 soil-litter interface (~5 cm) and laid the other half on the surface of the forest floor, on top of the  
157 existing litter layer. For each of the vegetation zones and depths (8 combinations), 18 bags were  
158 deployed to allow for monthly collection in triplicate over six months.

159 Litter bags were collected once a month from each location for six months from April to  
160 September. Because the system is not in steady state and is rapidly changing in response to sea-  
161 level rise, we selected a short time frame compared to other decomposition experiments (Krishna  
162 and Mohan 2017). However, our deployment (March - September 2022) covered the summer,  
163 when decomposition rates are the highest in a given year and better represent yearly litter  
164 decomposition (Morffi-Mestre et al. 2023).

165 During collection, litter on the outside of bags and any vegetation that had grown into the  
166 bags was removed. Following collection, bags were dried at 60 °C for at least 48 hours, or until  
167 completely dry, and weighed. Control bags containing no leaf litter were collected at the final  
168 sampling. Weight change for these control bags was not significantly different than zero and  
169 therefore no correction was made for background change in bag weight.

170 Decomposition data were fit to exponential decay functions (Wider and Lang 1982) in  
171 the form:

$$172 \quad X = e^{-kt} \quad (1)$$

173 where  $X$  is the proportion of initial mass remaining (i.e.  $X = X/X_0$ ),  $-k$  is the decay  
174 coefficient ( $yr^{-1}$ ), or relative decomposition rate, and  $t$  is time. A single exponential decay model  
175 is the most common and most intuitive for litter decomposition studies (Wider and Lang 1982

176 and citations within), and well represents our data. T-tests were used to compare decomposition  
177 rates across vegetation communities and depths.

178 *Environmental Gradients*

179 We measured salinity in the forest zones by preparing soil slurries of 1:5 soil to water  
180 suspensions from the top 10 cm of soil collected at 12 points within each forest zone. Soil  
181 samples were collected once in June 2022 less than 10 m from litterbag deployment sites, and in  
182 areas where the overstory community composition and environmental setting were similar.  
183 Slurry extracts were measured using a FieldScout EC 450 Meter conductivity probe and  
184 converted to soil salinity following equations in Hardie and Doyle (2012; see Smith and Kirwan  
185 (2021) for expanded detail). Elevation relative to a benchmark was measured at the center of  
186 each deployment site using a laser level. This relative elevation was then referenced to NAVD88  
187 using an RTK GPS deployed at the benchmark location. PAR (photosynthetically available  
188 radiation) at the litter surface was measured using a MQ-500 Full Spectrum Quantum Meter  
189 (Apogee Instruments) between 2:30 and 3:30 pm at each deployment site in August 2022.  
190 Measurements were taken in triplicate and then averaged. While both soil salinity and PAR are  
191 expected to be highly variable temporally over the experimental period, our measurements are  
192 meant to characterize general trends across the marsh forest boundary. Soil temperature sensors  
193 (TER0S12 sensor, METER Group) were deployed 7 and 30 cm below the ground surface along  
194 the gradient and collected hourly readings over the study period.

195 Litterfall was collected approximately monthly from March to December in 2022 from  
196 baskets (0.25 x 0.25 m opening) deployed within high, mid, and low forest (n=24 baskets per  
197 forest zone) at Phillips Creek. To ensure drainage without the loss of captured litter, baskets were

198 lined with mesh, holes were drilled in the bottom, and baskets were elevated off the ground  
199 approximately 25 cm by PVC frames. Litter was dried in drying ovens for a minimum of 48  
200 hours at 60 °C. Litter was sorted by plant species and structure (i.e. fruit, cones, flowers,  
201 branches, and leaves or needles). In this paper we report only leaf and needle material to match  
202 the contents of the litter bags. After the dry mass of the leaf litter was calculated, this value was  
203 divided by the period between collections, which ranged from 14-50 days, to calculate an  
204 average daily litter fall rate.

205 Leaf litter thickness was measured at 16 points within the high, mid, and low forest in  
206 May of 2023. Leaf litter thickness was estimated by removing leaf litter from a discrete section  
207 of the forest floor and measuring the difference in height between the forest floor and the  
208 adjacent, undisturbed litter layer to the nearest 0.5 cm.

209 **Results**

210 *Litter Decomposition Rates*

211 The mass of the deployed litter bags decreased over time for all samples and was well-  
212 described by a single exponential decay (SI Table 1, Supplementary Fig. 2). Decay coefficients  
213 were significantly different ( $t(6)=-7.3168$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) between the buried and surface bags, where  
214 decay coefficients were 1.5 times higher for buried bags compared to surface bags with an  
215 average surface leaf litter decomposition of  $0.272 \pm 0.029 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and an average buried  
216 decomposition rate of  $0.450 \pm 0.039 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Fig. 2).  
217 However, there was no significant difference in litter decay coefficients (i.e., decomposition  
218 rates) across the vegetation zones of the marsh-forest ecotone when comparing similar depth  
219 treatments (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table 1). Decomposition rates were higher in the mid forest,  
220 both in the surface and buried samples (Supplementary Table 1), but this was not statistically

221 significant due to the limited number of data points. Although we could not demonstrate  
222 statistical significance, the mean decomposition rates in the mid forest were 1.5 standard  
223 deviations greater than the average decomposition rate for both the surface and buried litter bags  
224 and this pattern occurred both in the surface and buried bags.

225 Decomposition rates increased the most in all zones and treatments between May and  
226 June, coincident with an increase in average temperature (Fig. 4). Noticeably, there is no change  
227 in decomposition rate during the peak of highest litterfall (Fig. 4). Between the surficial and  
228 buried litter bags, decomposition rates were almost always greater in the buried treatment than  
229 the surficial treatment across all months and forest zones.

230 *Environmental Parameters*

231 Soil temperatures increased throughout the spring and then plateaued in the summer at all  
232 sites (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig.3). The temperature ranged from 7 to 25 °C, with an overall  
233 average temperature of 16.5 °C. Soil temperatures were similar at all sites except in the mid  
234 forest where temperatures were the lowest throughout the entire deployment and particularly  
235 during the summer high temperatures (Fig.4, Fig. 5).

236 Soil salinity increased across the marsh-forest boundary with lowest salinity in the high  
237 forest ( $0.4 \pm 0.4$  ppt) and the highest salinity in the transition zone ( $7.5 \pm 2.6$  ppt). Salinity in the  
238 mid forest ( $1.2 \pm 0.6$  ppt) and low forest ( $1.8 \pm 1.1$  ppt) were slightly higher on average than in  
239 the high forest, but salinity was not significantly different between these three zones (one-way  
240 ANOVA,  $p=0.32$ ; Fig. 5). The lowest amount of light available at the litter layer was within the  
241 high forest ( $4.67 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and increased across the marsh forest boundary to near ambient  
242 conditions in the transition zone ( $78.33 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 5).

243 *Litter Inputs*

244 The rate of litterfall was measured monthly from March to December across the high,  
245 mid, and low forest by dividing the accumulated litter by the duration of deployment (Fig. 3, Fig.  
246 5). During the litter bag deployment from April to September, the average rate of litterfall was  
247 similar across low, mid, and high forest zones (2.70, 2.57, and 2.65 g/d, respectively). However,  
248 during the year, the timing of peak litterfall varied by zone. In the low forest, litterfall peaked in  
249 July (5.61 g/day). In the mid and high forest, litterfall was highest in November (8.58 g/day and  
250 16.13 g/day for the mid and high, respectively). On average between March and December,  
251 litterfall was highest in the high forest (4.37 g/day), intermediate in the mid forest (3.36 g/day)  
252 and lowest in the low forest (2.20 g/day). Forest litterfall rate is expected to be negligible in the  
253 transition zone due to the low abundance of living trees within this zone (Smith and Kirwan  
254 2021; Langston et al. *in review*) and the absence of forest litter in surficial detritus.

255 Leaf litter layer thickness varied by habitat. Forest leaf litter was negligible within the  
256 transition zone. The detrital layer in this zone was dominated by *Phragmites australis* and there  
257 was no visible forest leaf litter on the sediment surface. Within the other zones, leaf litter  
258 thickness was not significantly different between the high forest and mid forest (2.0 and 1.9 cm  
259 respectively) but was significantly lower in the low forest (0.3 cm) where nearly half of litter  
260 thickness measurements were less than 0.5 cm (Fig. 5).

261 ***Discussion***

262 ***Decomposition and Drivers in the Context of the Marsh-Forest Ecotone***

263 Leaf litter decomposition at Phillips Creek followed the same single exponential decay  
264 form as in previous forest decomposition experiments. This representation can describe two  
265 processes that are occurring at the same time in the forest litter consistent with previous studies.

266 First, initial rapid decomposition occurs after deployment, representing the leaching and  
267 mineralization of labile components of the litter ( Weston et al. 2006; Tully et al. 2019). The  
268 remaining, more recalcitrant, matter continues to decay, but slower, resulting in decreased  
269 decomposition rates later in the deployment. Additionally, temperature increases in the summer  
270 (Fig. 4), which typically increases decomposition rates independent of the material composition  
271 (Kirwan and Blum 2011). The highest increase in decomposition rates was measured in the  
272 summer and coincided with the rapid decrease in mass represented by the single exponential  
273 decay function. The litter decay coefficients presented here are consistent with other forest decay  
274 studies, which report a median decomposition rate of  $0.3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  across 70 studies (Zhang et al. 2008  
275 and citations therein).

276 In typical forests, decomposition of leaf litter is the process in which organic matter is  
277 broken down into  $\text{CO}_2$  and nutrients through heterotrophic respiration by soil organisms  
278 (bacteria, fungi and macrofauna) (Aerts 1997). On the forest floor, leaf litter decomposition is  
279 dominated by aerobic respiration and modified by temperature and moisture, which increase  
280 decomposition through increased bacterial and fungal respiration (Meentemeyer 1978). We find  
281 that temporally at the marsh-forest boundary, increases in decomposition coincide with a  
282 seasonal increase in temperature (Fig. 4). However, contrary to the expectation of a uniform  
283 change in decomposition rate across the ecotone, decomposition rates were the highest in the mid  
284 forest where temperatures were the lowest (Fig. 5). We observed no significant change in  
285 decomposition rates across the marsh-forest ecotone. Our findings suggest that the unique  
286 environmental gradients present at the marsh forest boundary potentially disrupt expected forest  
287 litter decomposition patterns.

288 Along the marsh-forest ecotone, competing interactions between environmental drivers  
289 may interact and alter expected decomposition patterns. First, the soil can become waterlogged  
290 from flooding, leading to a decrease in oxygen availability and suppression of heterotrophic  
291 activity. Decomposition in non-coastal forest soils are often dominated by aerobic fungal  
292 respiration (Kjøller and Struwe 1992). Therefore, these species may be maladapted for the  
293 transition from aerobic to anaerobic environment during marsh migration. Secondly, salt can  
294 enter the soils, increasing microbial and fungal stress and decreasing decomposition rates (Elsey-  
295 Quirk et al. 2011; Stagg et al. 2017). Litter decomposition is stifled under very high salinities,  
296 but otherwise salinity does not have strong direct effects on the rate of litter decomposition (Qu  
297 et al. 2019; Stagg et al. 2017; Volik et al. 2021). Furthermore, previous work has indicated that  
298 in stressed ecosystems, decomposition rates can decrease (Pascoal and Cássio 2004). Conversely,  
299 leaching processes may increase at the introduction of saltwater to leaf litter and organic matter  
300 can also destabilize during initial salinization thereby increasing decomposition rates (Weston et  
301 al., 2006; Chambers et al. 2011; Tully et al. 2019).

302 Additionally, salt-stress induced tree mortality and a thinning canopy result in increasing  
303 light availability on the forest floor across the marsh-forest boundary (Kottler and Gedan 2022).  
304 While higher light availability has been shown to both increase and decrease decomposition rates  
305 (King et al. 2012), increasing light availability across the marsh-forest boundary did not affect  
306 decomposition rates in a linear way (Fig. 5). However, there is a marked increase in PAR  
307 between the high and mid forest (from 4.67 to 32.67  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), which may drive some of the  
308 changes observed in the mid forest. Ultimately, the combination of standard environmental  
309 drivers for decomposition in the forest (e.g., temperature) and the unique environmental drivers

310 introduced at the marsh-forest ecotone (e.g., flooding, saltwater intrusion), negate or balance one  
311 another and result in no net trends in litter decomposition along the marsh-forest ecotone.

312 *Nonlinear Change Across the Ecotone*

313 Interestingly, there is no statistical difference in decomposition between high forest, low  
314 forest, and the transition zone within a given treatment (surface or buried), despite different  
315 flooding and light regimes. We hypothesize that while a range of environmental conditions drive  
316 decomposition across the ecotone, the competing environmental drivers offset, resulting in a  
317 minimal net change in decomposition. For example, fungus growth decreases with increasing  
318 salinity (Yunasfi et al. 2021), and is therefore expected to be minimized in the transition zone  
319 where salinities are highest. Meanwhile, photodegradation from light is shown to increase  
320 decomposition, and light availability is greatest in the transition zone. Therefore, one might  
321 expect decomposition to decrease when considering only the fungal community while another  
322 might expect decomposition to increase when only considering light availability. This  
323 exemplifies that the combination of these competing factors may offset, leading to leaf litter that  
324 decomposes at approximately equal rates across the forest-marsh transition.

325 Importantly, however, there is a change in decomposition rate at the mid forest compared  
326 to the other zones, where decomposition rates are higher (+ 1.5 standard deviations) relative to  
327 the other zones (Fig. 5). Although this result is not statistically significant, partially due to low  
328 sample size, the change in decomposition rate occurs in the mid-forest at both the surface and  
329 buried bags, hinting at a potentially important process occurring in this area. The resulting  
330 nonlinear response with a peak in decomposition mid-way through the gradient points to an  
331 emergent property of the marsh-forest transition. The mid-forest is at the front of saltwater  
332 intrusion and therefore may be expressing elevated changes (Tully et al. 2019). We posit there is

333 a nonlinear combination of environmental parameters (temperature, salinity, light availability)  
334 that arise at the first vestiges of saltwater intrusion, which is within the mid forest. The overlap  
335 of environmental parameters representative of a marsh and a forest that occur in the mid forest  
336 create an ecotone where invertebrates and other macrofauna from both the salt marsh and the  
337 forest can thrive. Invertebrates acclimatize litter by physical breakup and enhancing microbial  
338 activity (Anderson 1995; Krishna and Mohan 2017). In the mid forest, invertebrate communities  
339 in leaf litter at Phillips Creek exhibit the highest rarified Shannon diversity and species richness,  
340 indicative of an overlap of salt marsh and forest species (Goetz 2023), which could facilitate  
341 increased decomposition through physical breakup of leaf litter. Additionally, the rapid  
342 expansion of shrubs into the forest understory seen in the mid forest could be facilitating the  
343 creation of a nutrient-enriched microclimate that potentially enhances decomposition (Thompson  
344 et al. 2017; Sward et al. 2023). More data are needed to corroborate the apparent increased  
345 decomposition rate in the mid forest.

346 *Role of Litter Burial Depth in Decomposition*

347 Across the forest, independent of location, buried litter bags had higher decomposition  
348 rates compared to the surface litter bags (Fig. 5, Supplementary Table 1). Our findings support  
349 previous work (McClellan et al. 1990; Silver and Miya 2001; Zhang et al. 2008) that found  
350 similar trends across multiple ecosystems. Within the leaf litter, environmental conditions vary  
351 with depth. For example, moisture content increases with depth (Taylor and Parkinson 1988).  
352 The increase in moisture content can increase fungal productivity and microbial productivity  
353 (Osono et al. 2006), leading to increased decomposition rates. Furthermore, repeated wetting and  
354 drying can increase the decomposition rates (Taylor and Parkinson 1988), and flooding tends to

355 increase mass loss compared to non-flooded sites (Brinson 1977; Yates and Day 1983).

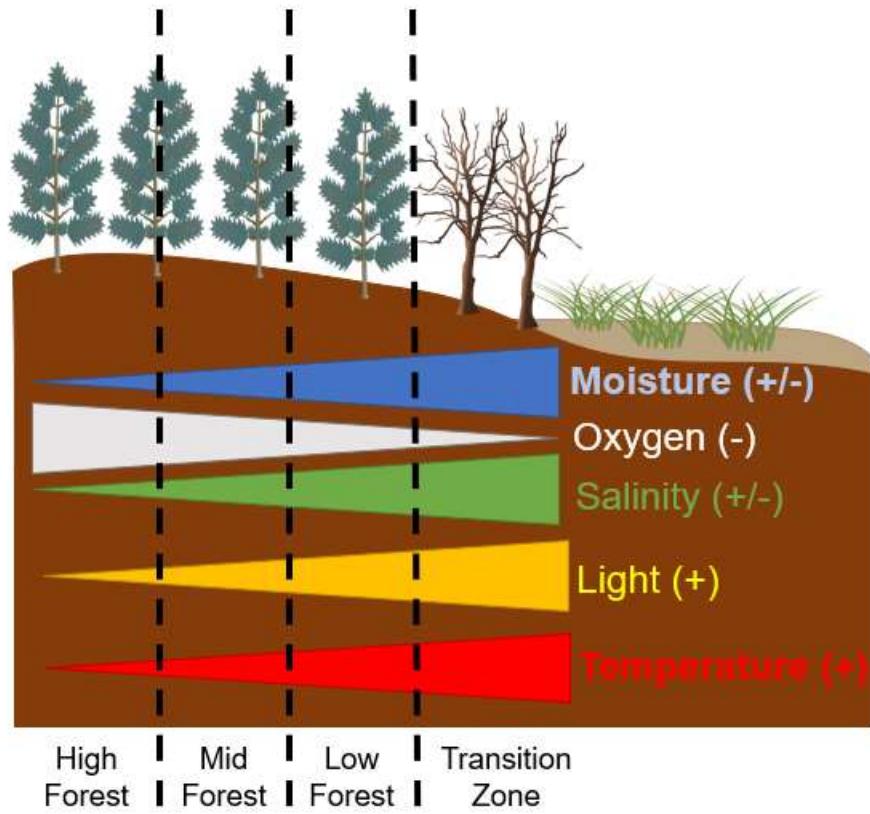
356 Ultimately, buried litter tends to have conditions that are more favorable for decomposition.

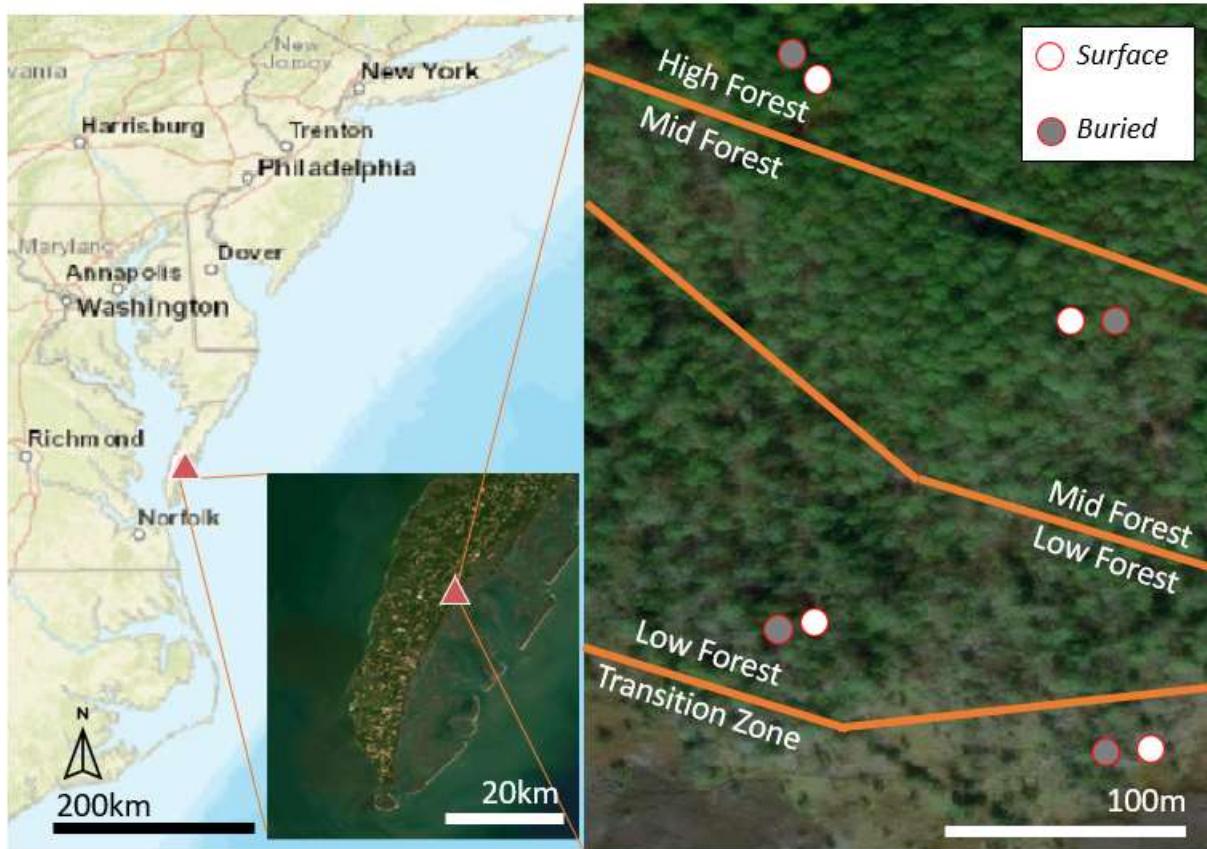
357 *Role of Litter on the Forest Floor*

358 Litter on the forest floor is important for forest ecosystem dynamics and is vital to carbon  
359 and nutrient cycling in forests and provides a protective layer to the forest floor (Olson 1963;  
360 Sayer 2006). In this study, although decomposition rates were highest in the mid forest,  
361 measured litter thickness remained constant within the high forest and mid forest, but was almost  
362 entirely absent in the low forest and transition zone (Fig. 5). This pattern appears to be driven by  
363 litterfall inputs, which followed the same pattern. While diminishing litter layers within soils can  
364 destabilize microclimate conditions and alter nutrient and carbon cycling (Sayer 2006), it also  
365 indicates relatively limited connectivity and preservation of organic matter during this ecosystem  
366 transition.

367 Leaf litter decomposition is a critical factor for understanding the carbon cycle under  
368 global climate change (Liski et al. 2003; Brennan et al. 2009). While a plethora of studies have  
369 examined leaf litter decomposition and climate change in marshes (e.g., Wu et al. 2016; Ouyang  
370 et al. 2023) and in forested landscapes (e.g., Yang et al. 2007; Prieto et al. 2019), there is a  
371 paucity of studies in a transitional forest along the coast. Global climate models do not resolve  
372 coastal processes (Ward et al. 2020), and even models of the marsh-forest boundary poorly  
373 parameterize coastal forest litter decomposition (Kirwan et al. 2016; Reeves et al. 2022;  
374 Valentine et al. 2023). This transition zone, or ecotone, will become increasingly relevant with  
375 future marsh landward migration and associated shifts in land management through retreat and  
376 upland migration (Kirwan and Gedan 2019; Van Dolah et al. 2020; Molino et al. 2022; Osland et

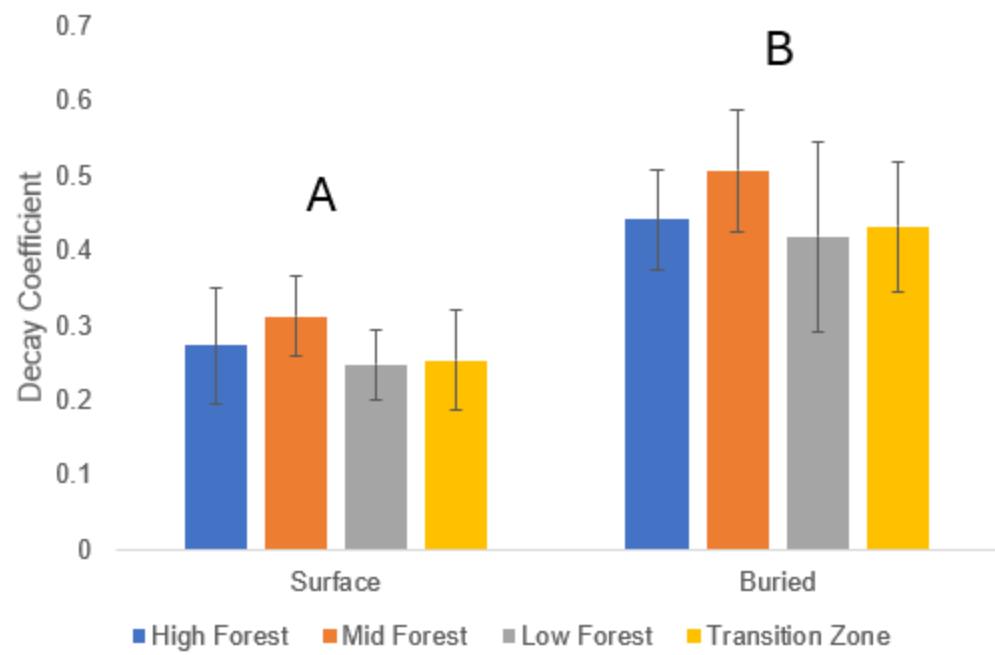
377 al. 2022). Our results highlight an area for forward progress in understanding the marsh-forest  
378 ecotone and improvement of both coastal and global modeling frameworks.





382

383 Fig. 2



384

385

Fig. 3

386

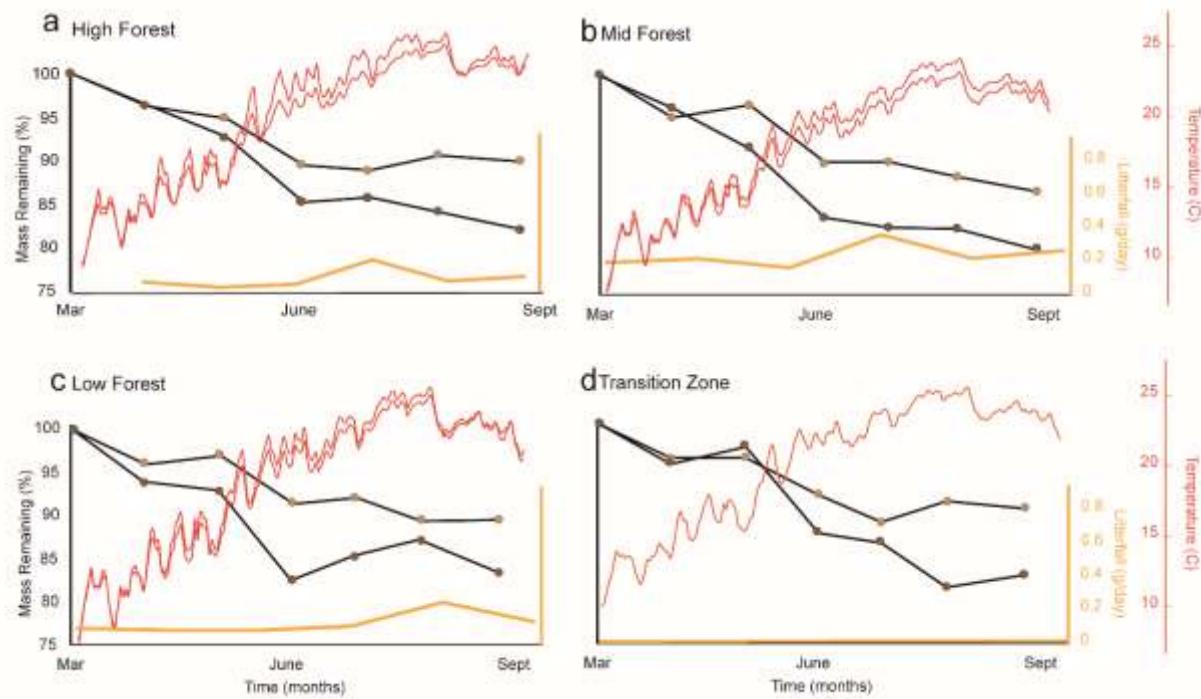
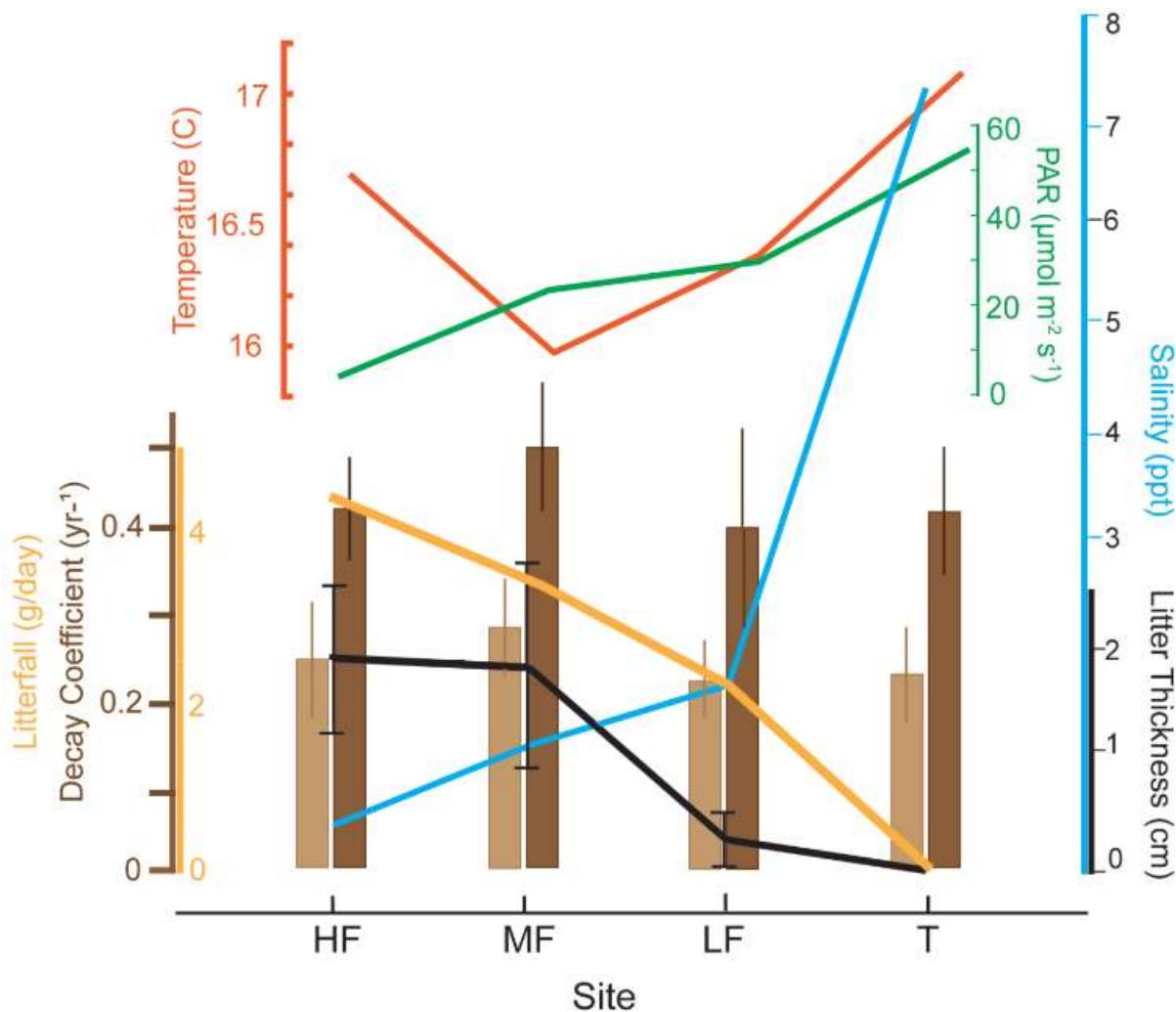


Fig. 4



390

391 Fig. 5

392

393 **Figure Captions**

394 **Fig. 1** Schematic of a cross section of the coastal landscape at Phillips Creek depicting the  
 395 marsh-forest ecotone from coastal forest (to the left) to salt marsh and various environmental  
 396 drivers driving decomposition

397

398 **Fig. 2** A general map of the North American mid-Atlantic region (A) with inset maps showing  
399 satellite imagery of the Eastern Shore of Virginia (B) as well as the study site at Phillips Creek  
400 (C;  $37^{\circ}27'48.0''N$   $75^{\circ}50'11.9''W$ ). The locations of the leaf litter deployment sites within the  
401 forest health zones are indicated within Figure 2c as either white circle (surficial deployments) or  
402 gray circles (buried deployments)

403

404 **Fig. 3** Calculated decay coefficients across all zones and treatments. Error bars represent the  
405 95% confidence interval on the fitting of the exponential relationship. A and B indicate a  
406 significant difference between the decomposition rate at the surface and buried

407

408 **Fig. 4** Temporal changes in decomposition rates, temperature, and litterfall in the high forest (a),  
409 mid forest (b), low forest (c), and transition zone (d) throughout the study period. Temperature  
410 and litterfall data are not quantified for the transition zone. Both shallow and deep soil  
411 temperature sensors are reported and show similar trends at a given site.

412

413 **Fig. 5** The measured decay coefficients of forest litter decomposition (light brown = surface,  
414 dark brown = buried) across the marsh-forest boundary with relevant changing environmental  
415 gradients: litter thickness (black), litterfall (tan), soil salinity (blue), PAR (green), and average  
416 temperature (red). Litterfall data represents all litterfall March – December.

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