
Particulate Matter in Mangrove Forests and Seagrass Beds as a Nitrogen Source in Tropical Coastal Ecosystems

Gillis Lucy G. ^{1,*}, Bouma Tjeerd J. ², Cathalot Cecile ³, Ziegler Alan D. ⁴, Herman Peter M. ²

¹ Leibniz Ctr Trop Marine Ecol GmbH, Mangrove Ecol, Bremen, Germany.

² Royal Netherlands Inst Sea Res NIOZ, Spatial Ecol, Yerseke, Netherlands.

³ Ctr Brest, IFREMER, LEP, Brest, France.

⁴ Natl Univ Singapore, Dept Geog, Singapore 117548, Singapore.

* Corresponding author : Lucy G. Gillis, email address : lucy.gillis@zmt-bremen.de

Abstract :

We show in laboratory and field investigations that in the short-term seagrasses obtain most of their required nitrogen from the degradation of seagrass leaves, rather than degradation of leaves exported from adjacent mangroves. Mangrove forests at our Thailand site retain the majority of their nutrients, and therefore potentially buffer seagrasses from nutrients.

Keywords : buffering, mangrove forests, nitrogen, outwelling, particulate organic material, seagrass beds

23 1. Introduction

24 Tropical coasts contain highly productive ecosystems, such as mangrove forests and
25 seagrass beds, which can be a sink and a

26 source of significant amounts of particulate organic matter (POM) and associated
27 nutrients (carbon and nitrogen) to neighboring

28 ecosystems (1-2). In nutrient limited conditions (3-4), POM originating from adjacent
29 ecosystems may form an important source of

30 nutrients for both keystone organisms such as stony corals and seagrass plants, and
31 their associated species (5-7). Given their

32 large standing biomass and high productivity, mangrove and seagrass POM could be an
important nutrient source to adjacent

ecosystems (8-9). Mangroves may even contribute to positive interactions between
adjacent ecosystems at the tropical seascape

scale, but experimental evidence is very limited to date.

Mangrove nutrient recycling is thought to occur predominantly in situ within the
forest, with unused nutrients exported to

coastal waters, in part via leaves and other types of POM (10-12). Decaying leaves

release both organic and inorganic forms of
33 dissolved nitrogen. Leaves are also utilized by organisms, such as crabs that process
nitrogen to more palatable forms, ultimately

34 providing it to other organisms (8, 13). Mangroves with high nutrient inputs may
therefore export considerable amounts of nutrients
35 in their exported leaves.
36 Seagrass beds typically have high productivity, even within nutrient-poor environments
(9,14). One explanation for the ability
37 to flourish in such conditions is internal recycling of nutrients released by senescent
leaves or those shed by hydrodynamic forces–
38 provided that degradation starts before leaves are exported from the beds (9, 14-15).
Alternatively, some of the nutrients may come
39 from the import of POM from adjacent sources, including mangroves.
40 It has previously been observed that plant material from seagrasses and mangrove trees
can form an important source of
41 particulate organic matter in the water column (16-18). However, there is a lack of
experimental studies addressing the importance
42 of POM transfer as nutrient source to adjacent ecosystems. In order to understand the
potential role of POM originating from
43 mangrove forests and seagrass beds as nitrogen sources for adjacent ecosystems, one
must first understand the rates of tidal
44 export of POM from mangroves and seagrasses, as well as nutrient release rates from
degrading leaves. In this study, we
45 investigate if, and how, the degradation rate depends on the location within the
ecosystem, for example, in the sediment or in
46 suspension in the water column. We also investigate the difference between mangrove and
seagrass leaves. Seagrass leaves are
47 thought to break down easily and release nutrients much quicker than mangrove leaves,
which have lower nutrient ratios and
48 higher fiber content (20). Mangrove leaves generally depend on organisms like crabs and
bacteria for breakdown (21-22).

Our aim is to determine the process rates that are needed for understanding nutrient
exchange via POM between mangrove

50 and seagrass. We address the following questions: 1) To what extent are mangrove &
seagrass leaves exchanged under normal
51 tidal conditions; 2) What is the rate of degradation of mangrove and seagrass leaves;
(3) How do C:N ratios change with
52 degradation; (4) How does leaf degradation affect dissolved organic and inorganic
nitrogen in the water column; (5) How much
53 nitrogen exchange potentially occurs between mangrove forests and seagrass beds as a
result of the interchange of particulate
54 organic matter and (6) Is the exchange of mangrove POM sufficient for seagrass plant
nitrogen requirements . These questions are
55 addressed through several field-and lab-based experiments.

56

57 2. Study Area

58 2.1 Ethics statement

59 The fieldwork was completed in collaboration with Rajabhat University (Phuket), which
gained permission from the Ministry of
60 Natural Resources and Environment.

61 2.2 Study site

62 The study site for all field-based experiments was located in Koh Chong Lat Noi bay, on
the island of Koh Yao Yai, in Pang Nga

63 Province in Southern Thailand (7°54'28. 26"N, 98°35'12. 47"E) (Fig. 1). Incubation experiments were completed in the marine research station, also located on the island. Seagrass and mangrove leaves, sediment and water for the degradation and

65 incubation experiments were taken from Chong Lat Noi bay during July 2011. Mean temperature during sampling was 29°C and salinity was 32 PSU. We compared degradation rates in three habitat types: (1) the edge of the mangrove forest (MF); (2) the tidal flat (TF) at approximately 300 m from the mangroves; and (3) a seagrass bed (SB), located approximately 600 m from the mangrove forests (Fig 1). The mangrove forest was composed of fringing *Rhizophora* sp, *Ceriops* sp and *Xylocarpus* sp. The seagrass beds comprised *Enhalus* sp, *Halodule* sp, *Halophila* sp and *Thalassia* sp, with *Enhalus* sp being the climax species with highest biomass. For the experiments we used leaves from *Rhizophora* sp and *Enhalus* sp. The seagrass, tidal flat and fringing mangrove were exposed at low tide for between 1-4 hours.

73

74 3. Methods

75 3.1 Incubations to measure release rates of dissolved nitrogen from seagrass and mangrove leaves

76 Sediment and mangrove/seagrass leaf samples were collected at low tide. Care was taken to pick leaf samples similar length (mangrove leaves: 0.1 m, seagrass leaves: 0.45 m) and physical state (whole green leaves with no imperfections in the leaf structure). Water samples were collected in the bay at high tide and transported to the marine laboratory in an icebox. Salinity and temperature was recorded during sampling. Water samples were filtered to remove large particles (>2 mm). Three dark -incubations with mangrove leaves were completed in parallel over a 24-hour period. The first incubation contained only seawater collected at

81 the mangrove site (control treatment); the second, mangrove sediment/soil plus seawater (soil treatment); and the third, fresh mangrove leaves plus sediment plus seawater from mangroves (leaves treatment). Three replicates of all treatments were performed.

84 Samples were incubated in the dark in 19.2-L chambers (radius: 142 mm, height: 303 mm). For the sediment and leaf

85 treatments, a 0.1 m thick sediment layer was placed on the bottom; and 12.9 L seawater was added. The temperature was kept constant by placing the chambers in a water bath in which the temperature was maintained manually. Temperature (27-30 °C) and salinity (28-33 ppt) were held within narrow ranges that corresponded with the sampling conditions. A magnetic stirrer was used to maintain thorough mixing during the 24-hour incubations. Water samples (25 ml), were taken every 6 hours (at times 0, 6, 12, 18, 24 hours); temperature and salinity were recorded at the times of sampling. The water in the incubation chamber was replaced by seawater from the site that had been kept at the sample temperature and salinity. Samples were immediately frozen for analysis at a later date. After transporting to NIOZ, the samples were analyzed for dissolved organic and inorganic nitrogen (DON & DIN). For determining seagrass release of DON and DIN, we followed the same protocol described

above for mangroves. Nitrogen release

93 from mangroves or seagrass leaves was calculated as the subtraction of N contents (DON & DIN) of the soil treatment (seawater +

94 sediment incubation) from those of the leaves treatment (leaves + sediment + seawater incubation).

95 3.2 Transportation rate of seagrass and mangrove leaves -Field experiment

96 We estimated the residence time of mangrove and seagrass leaves deposited on the sediment within the mangrove forest (MF),

97 tidal flat (TF) and seagrass bed (SB). In each of these habitat types, three replicates of marked fresh mangrove and seagrass

98 leaves were placed at low tide at edge (< 10 m from the ocean) and interior (100 m from the ocean) locations. The sites were

99 monitored every tidal cycle to determine the time when leaves were transported from their initial locations.

100 We measured the import/export rates of leaves from each ecosystem with 50 (length) x 1 (height) m nets, mesh size 0.05 m,

101 stretched across the seaward edge of the mangrove forest (1 in Fig. 1), the landward edge of the seagrass bed (2 in Fig. 1), and

102 the seaward edge of the seagrass bed (3 in Fig. 1). We collected particulate matter during low tide for five tidal cycles, separating

103 the mangrove and seagrass leaves. Dry mass (g) was determined after drying for at least 48 hours at 60 °C.

104 Particulate organic material transportation (POMtransport; mg m⁻² day⁻¹) per unit area of each ecosystem was estimated as the

105 following (Fig. 2):

106 $POM_{transport} = 2 \times POM_{net} \times (L_{eco}/L_{net}) / A_{eco}$ (1)

107 where POM_{net} (mg tide⁻¹) is the total POM captured in the 50 m long net during one tidal cycle; L_{net} is the length of the net (50 m)

108 and L_{eco} the total length of the fringe edge of the ecosystem which is donating the POM (~900 m for mangrove, 560 m for

109 shoreward seagrass bed, 680 m for seaward seagrass bed); A_{eco} (m²) is the surface area of the entire donating ecosystem

110 (mangrove forest 2093775 m² and seagrass bed 960000 m²); and the constant 2 converts the transportation rate from per tide to

111 per day.

112 We also calculated the total nitrogen exported per unit area (TNtransport; . mole m⁻² day⁻¹) as:

113 $TN_{transport} = POM_{transport} \times TN_{leaf}$ (2)

114 where TN_{leaf} (%) is the total leaf N determined from the fresh mangrove/seagrass leaves used in the degradation experiments (see

115 section 3.3). Collectively, these calculations provide a rough estimate of POM exchanged between ecosystems and the ocean, as

116 we assume all trapped leaves contribute to the total POM exported/imported.

117 3.3 In situ seagrass and mangrove leaf degradation experiment

118 Fresh seagrass (*Enhalus* sp) and mangrove (*Rhizophora* sp) leaves of similar length (mangrove leaves: 0.1 m, seagrass leaves:

119 0.45 m) and physical state (whole green leaves with no imperfections in the leaf structure) were used in the degradation

120 experiments. Leaves were collected at low tide and epiphytes were removed.

Subsequently, leaves were separated into 180 piles;

121 90 piles of seagrass and 90 piles of mangrove leaves which were weighted (approximately 10 g wet weight each). Each pile was then

122 placed into a net bag of mesh size < 0.5 mm that allowed for small organisms to migrate in and out, but dispelled larger marine

123 animals such as crabs. Additional seagrass and mangrove leaf samples (3 replicates
each) were used to determine initial wet mass
124 (M_{wet}), dry mass (M_{dry}), and C:N ratios. At each habitat type (MF, TF, SB), three
replicates 50 m apart were established, creating
125 three parallel transects (mid point symbolized by solid circle: Fig. 1). At each
replicate, sets of 5 poles were driven into the
126 substrate. The poles were the support of 2 sets of bags: one attached 0.05 m above the
surface, and one buried 0.05 m in the
127 sediment. Each set of bags consisted of a bag with mangrove leaves (approx. 10 g) and
a second bag with seagrass leaves

128 (approx. 10 g). We collected one set of randomly chosen bags after periods of 2, 4, 6,
20 and 30 days to determine the leaf
129 degradation rates and changes in C: N ratios. Following collection, the samples were
dried in an oven for 48 hours at 60°C. They
130 were then weighed and placed in labeled sealed plastic bags for transpiration to
NIOZ, where they were further analyzed for C: N
131 ratios.

132 3.4 Nitrogen requirements of seagrass beds

133 To quantify if nitrogen in mangrove POM exported to seagrass ecosystems could provide
the seagrass plants with their nitrogen
134 needs we completed an approximate calculation of these requirements. The nitrogen
requirements of seagrass plants *Enhalus* sp
135 and *Halophila* sp (NR; . mole m⁻² day⁻¹) was calculated as follows:

$$136 \text{NR} = \text{TN}_{\text{leaf}} * \text{B} / \text{LT} \quad (3)$$

137 where TN_{leaf} (. mole gleaf

-1) for *Enhalus* sp is the total leaf N determined from the fresh seagrass leaves used in
the degradation

138 experiment (1143 . mole gleaf

-1). For *Halophila* sp we used total N leaf content data of 34-54 . mole gleaf

-1 (23). Standing biomass

139 of the seagrass per m² is represented as B, which was calculated by determining the
above ground weight of *Enhalus* sp and

140 *Halophila* sp per m². The leaf turnover (LT; days) for *Enhalus* sp is 100 days and for
Halophila sp 30 days.

141 3.5 Analytical analyses

142 Following drying, leaf samples were ground to ensure homogenization using a mixer mill
(Retsch, type MM301). The total per cent

143 of C, N & CN ratios in dried leaves were determined using a Flash EA 1112
Elemental Analyzer (Thermo Finnigan).

144 Dissolved inorganic (NH₄

+ , NO₃

- & NO₂

-) nitrogen (DIN) accumulated in the incubation water were filtered onto a GFF filter

145 (Whatman) and determined calorimetrically using a SK12 nutrient analyser, Skalar &
Seal (24). Total nitrogen (TN) was determined

146 from a GFF filter (Whatman) after an alkaline persulphate destruction using the same
instrument for dissolved nutrient

147 concentrations (25). Dissolved organic nitrogen was calculated from the difference
between dissolved organic nitrogen (DIN) and

148 total nitrogen (TN).

149 3.6 Statistical analysis

150 Prior to testing, normality in the data was tested using a D'Agostino-Pearson test. To
test the differences between mangrove and

151 seagrass leaf export to other ecosystems and to the ocean, we used a Kruskal-wallis

test (K-W test) because the data were not normally distributed. Three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with replication was used to test for differences in the following: i) decomposition of detritus related to habitat type (MF, TF, SB) versus time period (2, 4, 6, 20 and 30 days) for each environment (sediment and water column); and ii) C:N ratios of mangrove and seagrass leaves between habitat type (MF, TF, SB) versus time period (2, 4, 6, 20 and 30 days) for each environment (sediment and water column). Three-way ANOVA was also used to compare nitrogen release from both mangrove/seagrass leaves (DIN & DON) and time in the incubations. A Kruskal-wallis test was used to compare changes in DIN & DON release from mangrove and seagrass leaves at 24 hours in the incubation; to prevent serial correlation we used the final concentrations of DIN & DON. Least squares difference (LSD) post-hoc testing was performed

following ANOVA and Kruskal-wallis test. Probabilities (p) were expressed at $p < 0.01$ & 0.1 , and are referred to in the text as significant. All statistical testing was completed in an R programming platform.

4. Results

4.1 Incubation experiment

There was no apparent release of DIN from either *Rhizophora* sp. and *Enhalus* sp. leaves in the incubation experiments, the amount did not significantly differ from zero (Fig. 2). In contrast, DON-amounts increased during 24-h of seagrass leaf decomposition, with the maximum of the mean values of 93 . mole DON g⁻¹. DON-release from decomposing mangrove leaves was negligible (Fig. 2). A significant (K-W test: $p = 0.04$) difference was seen between DON release from seagrass versus mangrove leaves at 24 hours (Fig. 2). In addition, DON amounts for seagrass increased significantly (Three-way ANOVA: $p = 0.05$), then stabilized after 6 hours until the end of the experiment. Negative values originate from the calculation of the nitrogen release from mangroves or seagrass leaves (subtraction of the N values of the “seawater + sediment” incubation from the “leaves + sediment + seawater” incubation) (Tab.S1).

4.2 POM and TN exchange calculations

All tagged leaves that were deposited at positions within the mangrove forest, tidal flat and seagrass bed were transported away from their original location within one tidal cycle (data not shown). However, it is not known if they were transported out of the system, or simply mobilized by the tide.

Our flux measurements using nets across the bay indicated that the export of mangrove leaves moving into seagrass beds was significantly higher than the biomass of seagrass leaves moving inland toward the mangrove (K-W test, $p = 0.01$; net 3; Fig. 3).

The daily area-weighted mass of mangrove leaves transported toward the seagrass beds (3.7 mg m⁻² day⁻¹) was approximately six times higher than for seagrass material transported toward the mangroves (0.6 mg m⁻² day⁻¹; Fig. 3; nets 1 and 2). The transport to the ocean of both mangrove (0.3 mg m⁻² day⁻¹) and seagrass leaves (0.1 mg m⁻² day⁻¹) was much lower than the exchange between mangroves and seagrass (Fig. 3; nets 3 and 4). The total nitrogen in seagrass leaves conveyed to mangrove forests was approximately half of that transferred to seagrass beds from mangroves (K-W test, $p =$

0.001; Fig. 3). There was no detectable
182 difference in TN exported to the ocean by mangrove and seagrass leaves.
183 4.3 Degradation experiments
184 *Enhalus* leaves followed an exponential decay pattern where loss of mass showed a
185 50-75% decrease within 6 days in the water
186 column or in the sediment (Fig. 4B&D). The leaves plateaued in mass loss from 20-30
187 days in the water column, whilst in the
188 sediment, only 10-50 % of the initial mass of seagrass leaves remained (Fig.4B&D).
189 Thereafter, little change in seagrass leaves
190 mass occurred until the end of the 30-days experiment (Fig. 4B&D). The degradation
191 pattern of *Enhalus* leaves was in direct
192 contrast to *Rhizophora* leaves, which showed only a 25% loss in mass after 6 days, both
193 in the water column and sediment
194 (Fig.4A&C). *Rhizophora* leaf mass were still around 50% of their initial weight after
195 30 days (Fig.4A&C). A significant relationship for
196 mangrove leaf mass loss was seen between the water column and the sediment in the
197 different environments (water column &

198 sediment) ($p = 0.01$; Tab. 2). Changes in seagrass leaf mass over time were significant
199 at the level $p = 0.1$ (Tab.1). Both mangrove
200 and seagrass leaves also indicated an interaction between time and the environment
201 (water column vs. sediment) at $p = 0.01$ and p
202 = 0.1 respectively (Tab.1). No other mass changes were significant (Tab.1).
203 The C:N-ratio of *Enhalus* leaves in the water column gradually increased from a mean of
204 18 (0 days) to 26 (30 days)
205 (Fig.5B). In comparison, the C:N ratio of the *Enhalus* leaves in the sediment didn't
206 change greatly from the initial mean value of 16
207 (Fig.5D). A highly significant ($p = 0.01$) difference was seen for C:N ratios of
208 seagrass leaves between the water column and the
209 sediment and these differences in the water column changed over time (Tab.1). The C:N-
210 ratio of *Rhizophora* leaves decreased
211 from mean values of 37 (6 days) to 32 (30 days) during degradation (Fig. 5A&C).
212 Mangrove leaves showed a highly significant
213 change ($p = 0.01$) between C:N ratios at 6 and 20-30 days and these were affected by
214 the site (Tab.1; LSD test).

200

201 5. Discussion

202 Mangrove leaves were the dominant POM source transported between adjacent seagrass
203 beds and mangrove forests, but had
204 similar POM transport rates to the open ocean as seagrass beds (Fig. 3). However, our
205 results show faster degradation rates of
206 seagrass leaves than mangrove leaves (Fig. 4), with higher DON releases from the
207 seagrass leaves (Fig.2). Thus on a short time
208 scale, seagrass leaves may be an important nitrogen source for the tropical coastal
209 seascape due to their fast turnover rates and
210 the associated nitrogen release, but such process will strongly depend on local
211 hydrodynamics. In contrast mangrove leaves are

207 the dominant particulate organic matter in the coastal area and they cannot be
208 discarded as another potential source for dissolved
209 nitrogen. Importantly our study provides results, which could be used to quantify N
210 processes and pathways in the tropical coastal
211 seascape.

210 5.1 Leaf litter nitrogen release from seagrass & mangrove leaves

211 It has been thought that seagrass and mangrove detritus enhance nitrification and
212 denitrification processes in the water

212 column (26-27). Detritus is a DIN/DON source through leaching and bacterial
degradation. Fresh seagrass leaves had a much
213 higher concentration of TN (total nitrogen) in the leaf than mangroves leaves (SL: 2 .
mole N g⁻¹ , ML: 1 . mole N g⁻¹). Our
214 incubations indicate that initially (first 24 hours) seagrass leaves are a more
important source of DON in the coastal zone. The C:N
215 ratios in the degradation experiments indicated that overall seagrass leaves release d
nitrogen, whereas mangrove leaves retained
216 it, in agreement with previous studies (26-27). Our incubations also verify this
result for a very short initial time period.
217 5.2 Leaf litter transportation
218 Although rough estimates, the results of our POM transportation experiment across
ecosystems showed that significant amounts of
219 mangrove leaves are exported to seagrass beds (ML 3.7 ± 0.8; SL 0.6 ± 0.04 mg m⁻²
day⁻¹; Fig. 3). Via leaf export, mangroves
220 transport a substantial amount of POM to seagrass beds compared to the fluxes from
mangrove forest to the ocean and the fluxes
221 of seagrass POM to the mangrove forest and the ocean. Only 8% (0.3 mg m⁻² day⁻¹) of
the mobilized mangrove leaves were
222 transported from the seagrass bed to the ocean (Fig 3). We therefore can estimate that
92 % of the mangrove leaves remained in

223 the seagrass bed, approximately 3.5 mg m⁻² day⁻¹ (Fig. 2). Other studies have shown
that seagrass plants can trap mangrove
224 leaves from mangrove forests located up to 3 km away (Hemminga et al 1994). Exchanges
of mangrove leaves (Rhizophora sp. &
225 Ceriops sp.) to seagrass (Thalassodendron sp.) and then back to mangroves have been
reported previously in Gazi Bay, Kenya
226 (28).
227 Seagrass leaves were exported both to the mangrove forest and the ocean, with 80%
transported to the forest (Fig. 3). The
228 movement of mangrove leaves to seagrass beds and vice versa indicates that the
hydrodynamics between mangrove forests and
229 seagrass beds facilitates a back and forth exchange of POM. Thus, seagrass leaves
transported to the mangrove forest could
230 return to the beds, but we have no data to support this. In our transportation
experiment, leaves trapped in the nets were fresh;
231 degraded leaves were not present. Once leaves are degraded, they may be trapped in
either the mangrove roots or seagrass
232 plants, ending their transport for normal hydrodynamic conditions. Such hypothesis is
supported by other studies showing seagrass
233 leaves trapped within seagrass beds, where they represent a viable source of nutrients
(29).
234 Likely, retention of mangrove and seagrass leaves within tropical coastal systems can
be quite substantial, and constitute a
235 potentially important nutrient source, depending on the degradation timescales and
nitrogen release. In the case of seagrass beds,
236 seagrass canopies have been found to retain half of the nitrogen released from leaf
litter within a 27-175 m² radius (30).
237 Furthermore mangrove forests have been shown to export carbon and nutrients as
particulate organic matter to the coastal ocean

238 and therefore seagrass beds (31). Furthermore they will also import dissolved nitrogen
usually at high tides and high
239 concentrations, although further studies are required to form firm conclusions
regarding nitrogen fluxes (31).

240 5.3 Leaf litter Decomposition

241 *Enhalus* sp. degraded much faster (75% decrease in mass) in the initial six days than
242 *Rhizophora* sp. leaf samples, across all
243 habitat types (MF, TF, and SB) and both environments (sediment and water column). Our
244 observations agree with past degradation
245 experiments with seagrass and mangrove litter (27, 32). Differences in degradation
246 rates are due to the higher structural content of
247 mangrove leaves compared to seagrass leaves. Lignocelluloses have been found in
248 mangrove particulate matter to have greater
249 resilience to microbial degradation than other marine macrophytes such as seagrass
250 leaves (33). Over 30 days our degrading
251 mangrove leaves lost about 50% of their mass, which is comparable to other studies
252 (Fig. 4) (34-37). The breakdown of the
253 physical structure of mangrove leaves indicates a gradual bacterial colonization,
254 which is also verified by the decrease in C:N ratio
255 (Fig. 5).
256 Mangrove leaf C:N ratio showed little difference across both environments and habitat
257 types, but they did show a decrease
258 over the course of a month (Fig. 5). A decrease in C:N ratios could be attributed to
259 carbon being the preferentially respired whilst
260 nitrogen remains in the in the biomass (27, 38). However the rate of bacteria use of
261 carbon is slow over 30 days, possibly due to
262 tannin content in the mangrove leaves as well as the physical structure of the leaves
263 (27). The C:N ratio of seagrass leaves buried
264 in the sediment plateaued in the mangrove forest, seagrass bed and tidal flat
265 sediment, at approximately median value 15. The C:N

254 ratio in the water column increased, indicating a decrease in nitrogen content. This
255 pattern agrees with past rates of the mass loss
256 of the seagrass leaves (28) (Fig. 4&5). Differences in the evolution of the C/N ratios
257 of seagrass and mangrove le aves during
258 decomposition have been previously interpreted by the C:N differences of the starting
259 material: the low C:N material of seagrass
260 leaves have sufficient food quality to decompose rapidly, but microbes must accumulate
261 N in order to degrade the high C:N material
262 of mangrove leaves (39). Likely the increase in C:N ratio observed in seagrass leaves
263 indicates a nitrogen release to the water
264 column that will be available for other organisms.

260

261 6 Exchange between Ecosystems: Facilitation potential?

262 We estimated maximum nitrogen requirements ($. \text{mole m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) for *Enhalus* sp and
263 *Halophila* sp (via equation 3) to be
264 approximately 21300 and 580-920 $. \text{moles m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ respectively. Comparing these values
265 with the mangrove derived total nitrogen
266 exported in POM to seagrass beds ($2.4 . \text{mole}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$; Fig. 3) indicates that
267 mangrove forests could provide a negligible amount
268 (0.01 %) of the N requirements for *Enhalus* sp patches via the export of leaves. For
269 *Halophile* sp mangrove leaves could provide
270 approximately 0.3-0.4 % of nitrogen requirements of this species. It should be noted
271 that in this particular site, these two
272 ecosystems area have a ratio of 2 (mangrove forest 2093775 m² and seagrass bed 960000
273 m²). But in a site with a large mangrove
274 forest and small seagrass bed and thus a larger ratio between areas the potentially
275 for mangrove forests to provide seagrass beds
276 with their nitrogen requirements will be greater. Given that seagrass beds are found
277 in oligotrophic water and consequently have

270 developed effective nutrient retention and recycling, mangrove leaves therefore may
provide a small addition of nitrogen to
271 seagrass beds.

272

273 7 Conclusion

274 In-situ transportation experiments showed that POM in tidal waters was mainly
comprised of mangrove leaves. Seagrass leaves

275 degraded quicker across all habitat types, both in sediment and water column, than
mangrove leaves. Furthermore, incubations

276 indicated that DON released from seagrass leaves was higher than mangrove leaves.

Depending on the specific hydrodynamics of

277 a site (i.e. if leaves are transported quickly) seagrass leaves may be an important
source of TN for some coastal ecosystems. Their

278 quicker degradation will allow palatable nitrogen to become immediately available.

These findings are useful for quantifying nitrogen

279 processes and pathways in the tropical coastal seascape.

280 To improve insight into nitrogen interactions via particulate organic matter exchange
between mangrove forests and

281 seagrasses beds, further information should be obtained regarding the changes of DIN
and DON release from degraded leaves

282 over longer timescales (>1 month). Data are also required on the productivity of the
mangrove forest and seagrass ecosystems,

283 potentially providing information on nitrogen dynamics, especially nutrient
requirements within the ecosystem. Furthermore, the

284 trapping capacity of mangrove roots and seagrass plants would support approximations
of how much POM is outwelled from each

285 system.

286 Importantly the major findings of this study indicate that mangroves forests and
seagrass beds are primarily found to withhold

287 nutrients within their own ecosystems. These mechanisms of trapping particulate
organic material (and associated nutrients) may

288 be related to the oligotrophic conditions which seagrass beds and mangroves forests
can be found in. Coral reefs, which can be an

289 adjacent ecosystem to mangrove forests and seagrass beds, are thought to be nutrient
sensitive. In fact they can easily alter due to

290 nutrient enrichment from a coral, dominated system to macro algae dominated. In this
view we suggest that mangrove forests and

291 seagrass beds through retaining nutrients may buffer coral reefs from excess nitrogen.

292

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296

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372 seagrasses and mangrove leaves along a nutrient availability gradient in Florida Bay,
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378 Figures Legends

379

380 Figure 1. Study site location for shallow water environments on the island of Koh Yao
Yai, Phang Nga bay, southwest coast of
381 Thailand (inset). The black area shows the extent of the mangrove forest (grey lines
are channels); and the white area indica tes the
382 seagrass bed. Solid circles indicate the location of the POM flux nets and mid point
of transects. The dotted lines refer to the widths
383 of the mangrove forest (900 m) and the seagrass beds (landward 560 m and seaward 680
m) used in Equation 1.
384

385 Figure 2. Incubations of fresh mangrove leaves (circles) and seagrass leaves
(squares). Indicated here are dissolved inorganic
386 nitrogen (DIN) release (clear markers) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) release
(filled markers) over 24 hours. Three -way
387 ANOVA indicated seagrass DON concentrations varied over time ($p = 0.05$). The seagrass
leaf DON response was significantly
388 different from that for mangrove leaves (Kruskal-wallis test: $p = 0.04$). Values are
means of 3 replicates.
389

390 Figure 3. Transportation of total organic matter and nitrogen contained in *Rhizophora*
sp and *Enhalus sp* leaves, between mangrove
391 forests, seagrass beds, and the coastal ocean. X-axis labels represent the movement of
leaf material between ecosystems.
392 ML=>SB shows mangrove leaf (ML: grey) transportation from the mangrove forest (MF) to
the seagrass bed (SB); SL=>MF,
393 seagrass leaf (SL: white) from the seagrass bed (SB) to the mangrove forest (MF). The
last two columns indicate leaf movement to

394 the ocean (O). The top panel indicates the total dry mass transported from each
ecosystem p er day (POMtransport; $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$),
395 which was calculated using equation (1). Letters denote significant differences
between total leaf mass transported ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$),
396 with different letters indicating a difference (K-W test; LSD test). The lower panel
shows total nitrogen transportation in leaf content
397 of *Rhizophora* and *Enhalus*. Letters denote significant differences between total
nitrogen transported ($\text{. mole m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) where
398 different letters indicate a difference (K-W test; LSD test). Values are means (\pm SE,
 $n=5$).
399

400 Figure 4. Remaining dry mass (%) of *Rhizophora* (A & C) and *Enhalus* (B & D) leaves
during 2, 4, 6, 20 and 30-days degradation
401 experiments conducted in different ecosystems: mangrove forest (MF: black diamonds),

mud -flat (MD: dark grey squares) and
402 seagrass bed (SG: light grey triangles). Top graphs represent incubations in the water
column (A and B); bottom graphs, withi n the
403 sediment (C and D). The change in mangrove ($p = 0.01$) and seagrass leaf ($p = 0.1$) mass
over time was highly significant ($p =$
404 0.01 ; Tab. 1), an interaction was also seen between the environment and time for
mangrove ($p = 0.01$) and seagrass ($p = 0.1$)
405 leaves (Tab.1). Values are means (\pm SE, $n=3$).
406
407 Figure 5. C:N ratios of Rhizophora (A & C) and Enhalus (B & D) leaves during 30 days of
degradation in different ecosystems:
408 mangrove forest (MF: black diamonds), tidal-flat (TF: dark grey squares) and seagrass
bed (SB: light grey triangles). Top graphs
409 represent incubations in the water column (A and B); bottom graphs in the sediment (C
and D). The change in mangrove ($p = 0.01$)

410 and seagrass leaf ($p = 0.1$) mass over time was highly significant ($p = 0.01$; Tab. 1),
an interaction was also seen between the
411 environment and time for mangrove ($p = 0.01$) and seagrass ($p = 0.1$) leaves (Tab.1).
Values are means (\pm SE, $n = 3$). A change in
412 C:N ratios of seagrass leaves was found to be highly significant ($p = 0.01$) between
the environments (Tab.1). Different C:N ratios in
413 the water column also changed over time shown by the time interaction (Tab.1).
Mangrove leaves showed a highly significant
414 relationship ($p = 0.01$) between C:N ratios for time and these were affected by the
site (Tab.1; LSD test).

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and seagrass leaf ($p = 0.1$) mass over time was highly significant ($p = 0.01$; Tab. 1), an
interaction was also seen between the
411 environment and time for mangrove ($p = 0.01$) and seagrass ($p = 0.1$) leaves (Tab.1).
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412 C:N ratios of seagrass leaves was found to be highly significant ($p = 0.01$) between
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414 relationship ($p = 0.01$) between C:N ratios for time and these were affected by the
site (Tab.1; LSD test).

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426 Table 1. Statistical summary of the 3-way ANOVA analysis of mangrove leaf (ML) and
 seagrass leaf (SL) degradation experiments,
 427 for leaf mass and C:N ratios variables. The data reflect statistically significant
 interactions between environment (water column
 428 versus buried in the sediment), site (seagrass bed versus mangrove forest), and time
 (0, 2, 4, 6, 30, 30 days) variables.

Leaf type
 SL
 Experiment
 mass
 D'Agostino-Pearson
 p>0.05
 Environment
 -
 Site
 -
 Time
 *
 Environment*Site
 -
 Environment*Time
 *
 Site*Time
 -
 Environment*Site*Time
 -
 C:N ratios p>0.05 ** ---** --
 ML mass p>0.05 --** -** --
 C:N ratios p>0.05 --** --** -

429 * P-value < 0.10
 430 **P-value<0.01
 431 -Not significant

432

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Figure 1

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Figure 2

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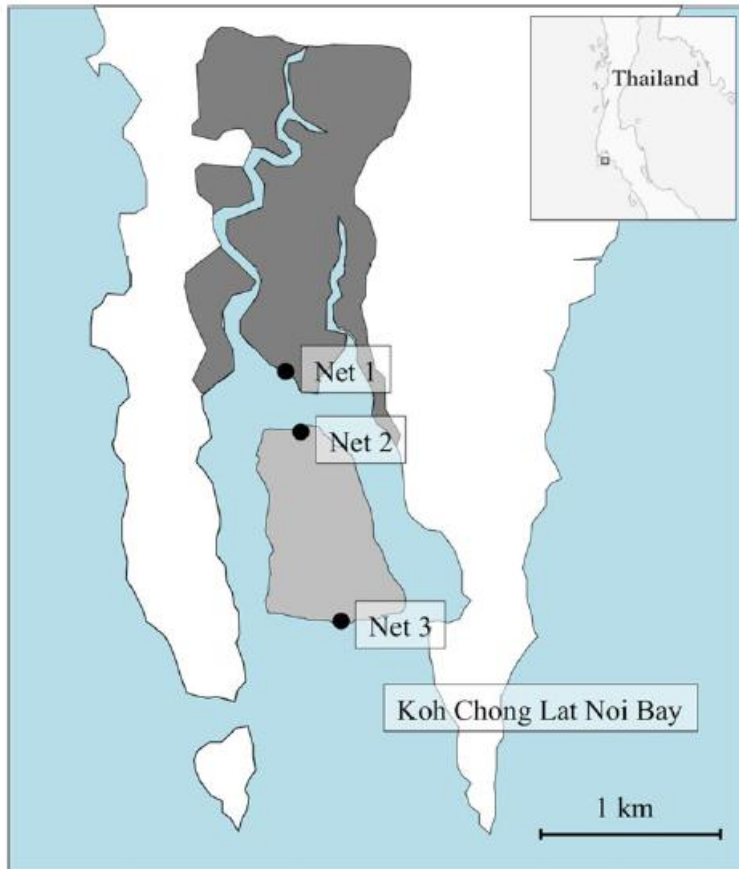


FIGURE 1. Study site for shallow water environments on the island of Koh Yao Yai, Phang Nga bay, southwest coast of Thailand (inset). The dark gray area shows the extent of the mangrove forest; and the light gray area indicates the seagrass bed. Black filled circles indicate the location of the POM flux nets.

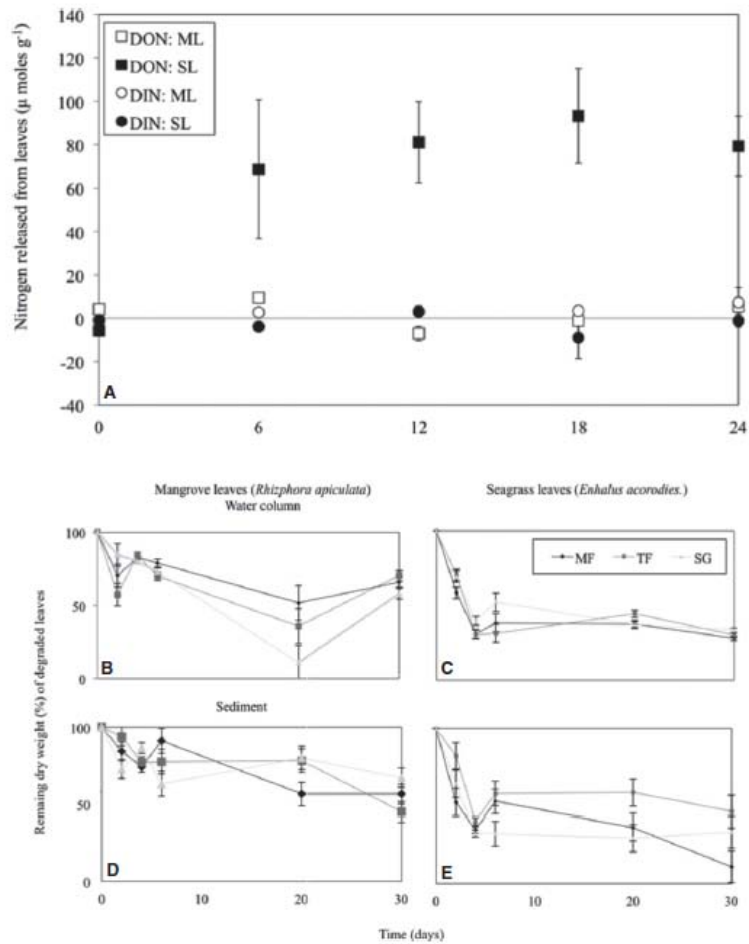


FIGURE 2. Panel (A) Nitrogen release every 6 h (24-h incubation experiments) from fresh mangrove leaves (clear symbols) and seagrass leaves (black symbols) for the following variables: dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN, circles) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON, squares). Values are means \pm one standard error. DON release rates in the seagrass leaf incubation varied significantly over time (*t*-ANOVA; $P = 0.05$). The seagrass leaf DON response was significantly higher than that for mangrove leaves (Kruskal-Wallis test; $P = 0.04$). Panels (B–E) show the remaining dry mass (%) of degraded leaves of *Rhizophora apiculata* (A & C) and *Enhalus acoroides* (B & D) leaves during 2, 4, 6, 20 and 30-d in the field-based degradation experiments conducted in different ecosystems: mangrove forest (MF: black diamonds), tidal-flat (TF: dark gray squares) and seagrass bed (SG: light gray triangles). Panels (B) and (C) represent degradation in the water column; while D and E figure are indicative of degradation within the sediment. The change in mangrove leaf mass over time was significant ($P = 0.01$; Table S1). A significant interaction was also seen between the environment and time for mangrove leaves at 20 d (Table S2).

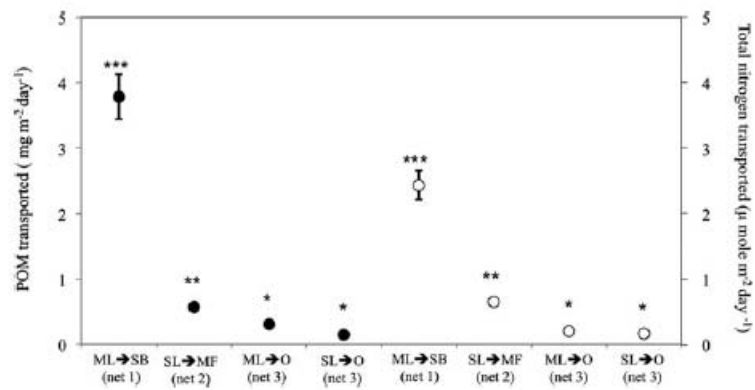


FIGURE 3. Transportation of total organic matter and nitrogen, contained in *Rhizophora apiculata* mangrove leaves (ML) and *Enhalus acorodies* seagrass leaves (SL), between mangrove forests (MF), seagrass beds (SB), and the ocean (O). Nets refer to the location of nets between the ecosystems (Fig. 1). Means of POM transported from each ecosystem per day ($POM_{transport}$; $mg/m^2/d$) are shown in panel A. Means of total nitrogen transportation in leaf content of *Rhizophora apiculata* and *Enhalus acorodies* are shown in panel B. Stars denote significant differences between total leaf mass transported ($mg/m^2/d$), with 1, 2 and 3 stars indicating a difference ($K-W$ test; LSD test).