

Supplementary Methods

Detailed Site Description. Chain Valley Bay is located on the southern shores of Lake Macquarie on the central coast of NSW, Australia ($33^{\circ}5.5'S$, $151^{\circ}35'E$). Lake Macquarie lies within the Sydney Basin and is situated upon extensive Permian coal measures that extend throughout the Sydney Basin from Newcastle to the Illawarra. The history of coal mining in the central coast extends to the late 1800s, and since this time coal mining activity has increased. Chain Valley Colliery became operational within the Chain Valley Bay sub-catchment in 1962. Following partial pillar extraction from the underground long wall mine, Chain Valley Bay encountered lateral and vertical subsidence¹. Rapid inundation occurred as elevation decreased. Low-lying areas of the foreshore, including private residences, became prone to flooding and inundation. Initial measurements of the subsidence in 1986 were approximately 500 mm, increasing to 607 mm in June 1987, 750 mm by June 1988 and 782 mm by December 1988¹. By 1989 subsidence had reached 818 mm, and 850 mm by 1991. During a visit to the Chain Valley Bay site in 2014 a nearby resident (pers. comm., 8th September) verified subsidence was still occurring.

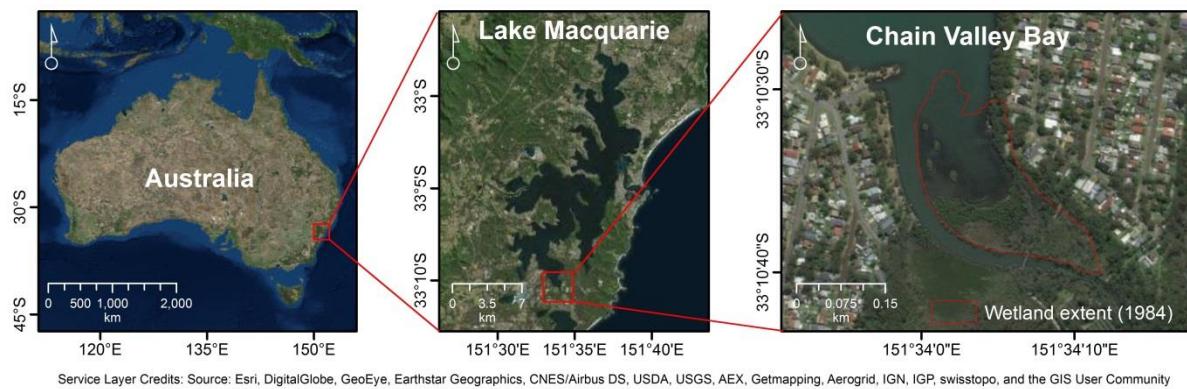


Figure 1: Location of study site within a) Australia, b) Lake Macquarie, and c) Chain Valley Bay. Wetland extent indicate pre-subsidence extent, derived from aerial photography before the subsidence event.

The Chain Valley Bay wetland is situated on a fluvial delta that formed as sediments transported by the Karignan Creek tributary entered Lake Macquarie. Lake Macquarie is a large, immature barrier estuary that has not undergone complete infill. It drains a catchment of approximately 605 km^2 and has an estuary area of approximately 115 km^2 . The Chain Valley Bay wetland has a variable extent, estimated at $< 2 \text{ km}^2$ at the time of the study. Lake Macquarie has a semi-diurnal tide regime and a tidal range of 1.18 m based on a tide gauge located 500 m upstream of the entrance². However, as tides are attenuated as they enter the large immature barrier estuaries³, the tidal range of the study site is markedly less than that recorded at the nearest tide gauge. Tidal inundation is an important control on the distribution of coastal wetland vegetation³ and the landward limit of coastal wetland vegetation and upper tidal limits typically coincide.

As Lake Macquarie is youthful, substrates suitable for coastal wetland vegetation establishment are not extensive and limited to fluvial deltas where a continuous supply of sediment facilitates delta progradation and expansion of wetland vegetation over time. Fluvial delta development at Chain Valley Bay is not extensive, but substrates support a mosaic of vegetation including subtidal seagrass beds dominated by *Zostera capricornia*, *Posidonia australis*, *Halophila ovalis* and *Ruppia megacarpa*. The mangrove zone support two mangrove species that extend to temperate regions in southeastern Australia, *Avicennia marina* and *Aegicras corniculatum*, but is dominated by the former, which exhibits broad

tolerance of a range of salinity and inundation regimes. Coastal saltmarsh species situated within the upper intertidal zone are typical of the region and include *Juncus krausii*, *Sarcocornia quinqueflora*, *Sporobolous virginicus* and *Suaeda australis*. Where overland flows deliver freshwater to the wetland, the saltmarsh also supports brackish species such as *Bauma juncea*, *Ficinea nodosa*, *Selliera radicans* and *Phragmites australis*. The saltmarsh transitions to terrestrial forests dominated by *Casuarina glauca* and *Melaleuca quinquenervia*.

Influence of global climate and salinity variation on C concentration. Global variation in tidal wetland carbon storage has previously been related to climate⁴, with higher rainfall proposed to increase C inputs via enhanced primary production⁵ and lower temperature proposed to slow rates of organic matter decomposition⁶. At a local scale, salinity may influence wetland carbon storage by influencing rates and pathways (e.g. sulfate reduction) of carbon decomposition⁷. Data sets were identified that could be used to explore the global-scale effect of these factors on variation in tidal wetland carbon storage. Carbon storage data were assigned to broad Köppen climate zones (four levels: Tropical, Arid, Warm Temperate, Cool Temperate) based on their geographic location with respect to these zones. Global scale variation in sea surface salinity values extracted from gridded data of global variation in mean annual sea surface salinity in 2015, derived from the Aquarius Satellite Mission, were also assigned to tidal carbon storage data based on their geographic location. Linear regression analysis was initially undertaken to identify a relationship between salinity and %C. Linear mixed models were used to analyse the influence of climate or salinity on the relationship between RSLR and %C. Linear regression analysis. However, as small scale variation in salinity is likely high within a tidal wetland due to climatic and hydrologic variability, the effect of salinity is more likely to be detected at local scales, as reported previously^{8,9}. Furthermore, the temporal scales of %C data and sea surface salinity data do not correspond, as sea surface salinity data has been time averaged over a 12 month period and %C has accumulated over millennia. For these reasons, relationships between %C and salinity should be interpreted cautiously.

Influence of RSLR variability on C density. We further validated the role of Holocene RSLR variation on C storage by analysing the relationship between C density (g C cm^{-3}) and RSLR zones. Where C density values were available for a study site, these were directly incorporated into our analysis. In the absence of C density values, the models of Holmquist et al.¹⁰ (i.e. equation 1 and 2) were used to estimate bulk density.

$$OC = (0.074 \pm 0.014)OM^2 + (0.421 \pm 0.012)OM - (0.0080 \pm 0.0021) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

Where:

OC = fraction organic carbon

OM = fraction organic matter

$$BD = 1 / ((OM/k1) + ((1-OM)/k2)) \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

Where:

BD = bulk density

OM = fraction organic matter

$k1$ = self-packing density of pure organic matter, estimated to be $0.098 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \pm 0.001$ (s.e.)¹⁰

$k2$ = self-packing density of pure mineral matter, estimated to be $1.67 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \pm 0.025$ (s.e.)¹⁰

C density was then estimated from bulk density based on reported C concentration (%C). We endeavoured to minimise the number of model-derived bulk density values by using equation 2 when the organic matter fraction was reported. In the absence of organic matter fraction values, we used equation 1 to generate model-derived organic matter fraction values, and equation 2 to generate model-derived bulk density values. Following the statistical approach applied to C concentration, we applied a linear mixed model to assess the relationship between the dependent variable of C density and the fixed factors of soil depth (three repeated measure levels: 0-20cm, 20-50cm, 50-100cm) and RSLR zones (eight levels: Zones I through V and I-II, II-III and IV-V transitional regions). To further assess variations in C density with soil depth, a separate repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA)³⁶ was completed for each data-rich RSLR zone.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Compilation of tidal marsh soil carbon concentration (%C) data by relative sea-level zones identified by modelling by Clark et al. (1978)¹¹. Records include locations for which carbon or organic matter concentrations were reported over the 0-100cm depth range or beyond. Mean values are reported where multiple cores were collected from a location, though separate records are presented where differences in geomorphic setting or vegetation composition were reported from the same site.

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