



The Significant Surface-Water Connectivity of “Geographically Isolated Wetlands”

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Abstract We evaluated the current literature, coupled with our collective research expertise, on surface-water connectivity of wetlands considered to be “geographically isolated” (*sensu* Tiner Wetlands 23:494–516, 2003a) to critically assess the scientific foundation of grouping wetlands based on the singular condition of being surrounded by uplands. The most recent research on wetlands considered to be “geographically isolated” shows the difficulties in grouping an ecological resource that does not reliably indicate lack of surface water connectivity in order to meet legal, regulatory, or scientific needs. Additionally, the practice of identifying “geographically isolated wetlands” based on distance from a stream can result in gross overestimates of the number of wetlands lacking ecologically important surface-water connections. Our findings do not support use of the overly simplistic label of “geographically isolated wetlands”. Wetlands surrounded by uplands vary in function and surface-water connections based on wetland landscape setting, context, climate, and geographic region and should be evaluated as such. We found that the “geographically isolated” grouping does not reflect our understanding of the hydrologic variability of

these wetlands and hence does not benefit conservation of the Nation’s diverse wetland resources. Therefore, we strongly discourage use of categorizations that provide overly simplistic views of surface-water connectivity of wetlands fully embedded in upland landscapes.

Keywords Clean Water Act · Connectivity · Geographic isolation · Hydrology · Streams · Upland embedded wetlands · Waters of the U.S.

Introduction

Throughout the world, small wetlands with seasonal hydrology are at great risk of loss or degradation and effective approaches to conserving their functions lag behind the increase in threats (Calhoun et al. 2017). For this reason, researchers and managers need to improve the understanding of vulnerable wetland functions and this includes both continuing research and clarifying regulations that do exist while considering alternative

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approaches. In this paper, we give one example of addressing this issue that has relevance to wetland managers globally. In a recent issue of *WETLANDS*, we published an essay entitled “Geographically Isolated Wetlands: Rethinking a Misnomer” (Mushet et al. 2015). In our paper, we described the declining relevance and confusing nature of the “geographically isolated wetlands” (GIWs) categorization as currently used in wetland science and policy in the United States. Leibowitz (2015) published a thoughtful response to our review in which he defended the use of the categorization and argued that there are important scientific, legal, and regulatory needs for identifying wetlands that are completely surrounded by uplands (i.e., GIWs, sensu Tiner 2003a). We have found that scientific responses to the legacies of the last decade’s court actions and policy needs for wetland regulation under the Clean Water Act (CWA; 33 U.S.C. Chapter 26) have improved our understandings of the complexity of wetland hydrology, functions, and nexuses that transcend simple assessments of degree of upland embeddedness. Grouping wetlands by whether they are surrounded by uplands does not indicate a lack of a “significant nexus,” and therefore does not provide a useful separation for meeting legal and regulatory information needs (Cohen et al. 2016).

We provide a brief review of key scientific findings to instantiate our thesis that having a static category based on upland embeddedness is no longer beneficial and, in fact, may be detrimental to conservation of these wetland resources and their influence on downgradient systems. The GIW term, or any term that implies that wetlands surrounded by uplands are in fact functionally isolated, is difficult to justify scientifically, difficult to apply pragmatically, subject to misuse and misinterpretation, and maps poorly onto the regulatory landscape. In this paper, we use the term upland-embedded wetland to describe a geospatial setting with no assumptions about connectivity or lack thereof and with no intent to replace the GIW term with “upland-embedded wetland”. We focus on surface-water connections, as the GIW categorization has not been promoted as providing meaningful insights into other forms of connectivity (e.g., groundwater, biogeochemical, biotic) that clearly transcend degrees of upland embeddedness. We define surface water connectivity as flow of surface water (episodic, seasonal, or semi-permanent) between two unique landscape elements that may or may not be linked by an aquatic feature with a bed and bank (i.e., channel or other indicators of flow permanence).

Dynamic Surface-Water Connections

Upland-embedded wetlands occur along continuous spatial and temporal gradients, from highly connected to highly disconnected (Cohen et al. 2016). Research on upland-embedded wetlands demonstrates that many have surface-water connections to other aquatic landscape components (e.g., rivers,

streams, lakes, other wetlands; Vanderhoof et al. 2016). A brief synthesis of key findings in the literature follows.

A conceptual model for thinking about how upland-embedded wetlands function at broader ecosystem scales is provided by Rains et al. (2016). They describe upland embedded wetlands as nodes in hydrological networks and state that these wetlands are “...integrally connected to uplands, other wetlands, and downgradient waters.” The authors further describe complex lag, sink, and source functions of these wetlands and their resultant influences on surface-water and shallow-groundwater flows to downgradient waters (also see Golden et al. 2016). Rains et al. (2016) describe a wide range of surface-water connectivity displayed by wetlands, with wetlands identified as GIWs ranging from “infrequent/absent surface connectivity” (i.e., isolated) to “intermittent surface connectivity” (i.e., clearly not isolated). Likewise, Leibowitz (2015) describes GIWs that range from a wetland connected to a river by surface flow through a non-channelized swale to a geographically isolated wetland that is hydrologically isolated from a river. The key feature of the continuous range of surface-water connectivity described by both Leibowitz (2015) and Rains et al. (2016) is magnitude and timing, not the degree to which a wetland is surrounded by upland. While the “isolated” term has been used to describe the surface connections of all upland-embedded wetlands, the term describes only a subset of GIWs.

Consider work in the Prairie Pothole Region (PPR) of the Midwestern USA. Wetlands in this region have long been iconic examples of “geographically isolated” wetlands (Tiner 2003a) yet current research has documented high levels of hydrologic, biologic, and biogeochemical connectivity (Marton et al. 2015; Mushet et al. 2015; Cohen et al. 2016; Leibowitz et al. 2016; McLean et al. 2016). For example, Leibowitz et al. (2016) described the complex spill-and-fill and spill-and-merge surface-water connectivity of eight prairie pothole wetlands over a 26-year period (1979–2015). Their findings suggest that research exploring the effects of surface-water connections needs to address the specific types of connections and not broader categories. Further, in a detailed analysis of wetland hydrology, Hayashi et al. (2016) demonstrated how Midwestern USA prairie pothole wetlands and their upland catchments function as integrated units whose existence depends on the lateral movement of both subsurface and surface runoff water. Furthermore, they found that differences in surface-water connectivity among individual wetlands controlled ponded-water permanence, leading to a diversity of wetland functional types within wetland complexes.

The importance of surface-water connections to many wetlands considered to be “geographically isolated” is also supported by research that has documented high levels of hydrologic, biologic, and biogeochemical connectivity among vernal pools in California, USA (Golden et al. 2016; Rains et al. 2016). Western vernal pools are small depressional wetlands commonly connected by swales to one another and downgradient waters.

152 The climate of this landscape is Mediterranean with pronounced
 153 wet and dry seasons. In the dry season, the variable source area
 154 from which streamflow is derived contracts and vernal pools
 155 may present as upland or upland- embedded wetlands.
 156 However, in the wet season, these vernal pools and swales be-
 157 come part of the river network system. These surface-water con-
 158 nections are not speculative or insubstantial, with measured
 159 surface-water connections for as many as 150–200 days being
 160 reported (Rains et al. 2006; Rains et al. 2008).

161 The condition of being wholly embedded within an upland
 162 matrix does not reliably indicate lack of surface water connec-
 163 tivity to other aquatic ecosystems. In short, there is a contin-
 164 uum of connectivity that applies to an individual wetland,
 165 complexes of wetlands, and wetlands within an ecoregion.
 166 Furthermore, abiotic factors including soil type, precipitation
 167 patterns and geomorphology are often significant factors
 168 influencing degrees and nature of surface water connections,
 169 but these factors are not accounted for by the label “geograph-
 170 ically isolated” (Fig. 1).

171 Distance as a Surrogate for Isolation

172 A reexamination of the commonly used practice of identifying
 173 upland-embedded wetlands based on distance from a stream or
 174 large water body reveals that this methodology may result in a
 175 gross overestimate of the number of wetlands lacking significant
 176 surface flows to downstream waters (i.e., the condition that the
 177 GIW designation is assumed to identify). Vanderhoof et al.
 178 (2016) found notable variation among ecoregions in empirically

179 measured distances at which wetlands connected via surface wa-
 180 ter to mapped streams, making it problematic to identify
 181 surface-water connected wetlands based on distance alone. For
 182 example, in the Des Moines Lobe ecoregion of the PPR, the
 183 authors found that 78% of surface-water connected wetlands
 184 were located within 400 m of a mapped stream. However, in
 185 the Drift Plains ecoregion of the PPR, only 52% of the connected
 186 wetlands were located within that same stream-buffer distance.
 187 Relative to these findings, most buffer distances previously used
 188 to identify upland-embedded wetlands (e.g., 76 m, Levin et al.
 189 2002; 20–40 m, Tiner et al. 2002 and Tiner 2003b; 10 m, Frohn
 190 et al. 2009; 10 m, Reif et al. 2009; 20 or 40 m buffer for small
 191 streams and 300 m for large streams, Vance 2009; 10 m, Lane
 192 et al. 2012; 10 m, Lane and D’Amico 2016) are likely insufficient
 193 to judge surface water connectivity within some landscapes. As a
 194 result, numerous surface-water connected wetlands located be-
 195 yond the threshold buffer distance are being grouped with wet-
 196 lands lacking such connections. Not surprisingly, Lane and
 197 D’Amico (2016) found that increasing their 10-m buffer distance
 198 to 300 m resulted in a significant decrease in the number of
 199 putative GIWs in multiple ecoregions across the US. Further,
 200 Golden et al. (2016) found in their modeling assessment of the
 201 influence of GIWs on downgradient streamflow in the lower
 202 Neuse River Basin, North Carolina, USA, that the farther
 203 upland-embedded wetlands were located from downgradient
 204 streams, the greater their potential contributions to streamflow
 205 across long time scales (i.e., seasonally and annually). With the
 206 inclusion of all wetlands in the analyses, this effect disappeared.
 207 Therefore, many quantifications of upland-embedded wetlands
 208 likely have overestimated occurrence of non-connected wetlands

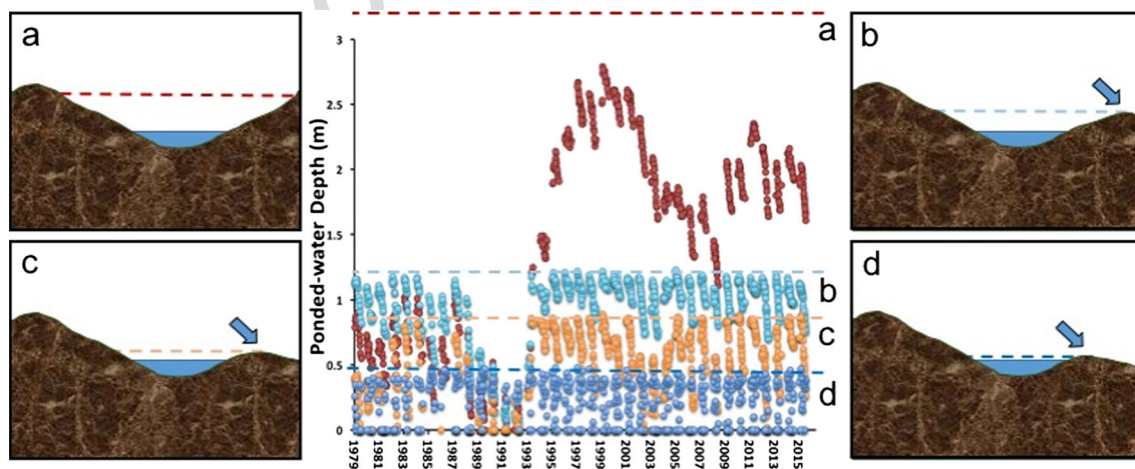


Fig. 1 Little knowledge about magnitude and timing of surface-water connectivity is gained by knowing that a wetland is surrounded by upland, i.e., is “geographically isolated.” The above hydrograph displays water levels of four “geographically isolated” prairie-pothole wetlands (labeled a–d) at the Cottonwood Lake Study Area in Stutsman County, North Dakota, over a 36-year period (1979–2015). The drawings on the left and right of the hydrograph characterize the upland-embedded basins of the wetlands. External spill points (arrows), as defined by Leibowitz et al. (2016), set limits (color-coded dashed lines) to water

storage and thus the magnitude of water losses from these wetland basins. Wetland P1 (a) is situated within a deep basin that does not have a realized external spill-point and thus does not contribute (i.e., spill) to down-gradient surface-water flows. By contrast, wetlands P8 (b), P3 (c), and T6 (d) each, to varying degrees, contribute to down-gradient flows when water levels reach an external spill point. The magnitude and timing of these surface-water flows vary greatly with similarly variable hydrological, geochemical and ecological effects

209 since the multitude of connected wetlands outside the buffer
 210 distance are identified as isolated. Furthermore, Lang et al.
 211 (2012) found that commonly available stream vector datasets
 212 (e.g., the US Geological Survey National Hydrography Dataset
 213 [NHD]) used to quantify wetland–stream connections underesti-
 214 mate stream length, at least in relatively wet regions like the
 215 eastern US. This is partially explained by the fact that the NHD
 216 dataset was not designed to map ephemeral streams or
 217 streams < 1.6 km in length. Lang et al. (2012) concluded that
 218 these factors would lead many wetlands to be incorrectly consid-
 219 ered to be disconnected from the stream network. This is counter
 220 to arguments that quantifications derived using buffers are con-
 221 servative estimates of the numbers of upland-embedded wetlands
 222 (Leibowitz 2015).

223 Direct pre-identification of upland-embedded wetlands will
 224 continue to lessen the guesswork currently employed in estab-
 225 lishing regulatory connectivity. For example, Wu and Lane
 226 (2016) developed a new approach to identifying wetland depres-
 227 sions in the PPR that accounts for dynamic filling, spilling and
 228 merging hydrological processes not considered in previous algo-
 229 rithms designed to identify such depressions (Leibowitz et al.
 230 2016). Even low-tech methods involving using local knowledge
 231 and ground-truthing involving citizen-scientists can produce im-
 232 portant information on current pools and past occurrences of
 233 connectivity. Levesque et al. (2016) describe a vernal pool con-
 234 servation initiative in New England, USA, that recognizes the
 235 landscape-scale functions of vernal pools and encourages con-
 236 servation of “poolscales” in partnership with land trusts and
 237 other conservation groups who recognize the value of conserving
 238 ecosystem connections—work all driven by community based
 239 collaboration.

240 Proximity to mapped streams and other drainage features have
 241 been used as proxies for surface water connectivity (see above)
 242 because of the difficulty inherent in quantifying surface-water
 243 connectivity (Lane and D’Amico 2016). More advanced tech-
 244 nologies and approaches provide promising solutions to better
 245 characterize connectivity. For example, other methods that could
 246 be examined include direct monitoring of inundation patterns
 247 using lidar intensity, multispectral and synthetic aperture radar
 248 data, predicting flow based on slope derived from lidar-based
 249 digital elevation models, and using process-based hydrologic
 250 models parameterized using geospatial data. Methodologies that
 251 move away from a categorical definition of geographically iso-
 252 lated wetlands and more closely approximate the adjacent versus
 253 non-adjacent definition will be better aligned with current legal/
 254 regulatory needs.

255 Legal/Regulatory Considerations

256 In the years immediately following the U.S. Supreme Court’s
 257 2001 decision in *SWANCC (Solid Waste Agency of Northern*
 258 *Cook County [SWANCC] vs. US Army Corps of Engineers, 531*

US 159), there was a great deal of confusion regarding the 259
 concept of an “isolated” wetland. In scientific literature, this 260
 term was commonly used to describe various types of 261
 depressional wetlands (e.g., Damman and French 1987; 262
 Semlitsch and Bodie 1998; Bailey 1999). Following scientific 263
 usage, the Corps of Engineers promulgated a regulatory defini- 264
 tion of “isolated wetland” for administration of their 265
 Nationwide Permit Program (NWP) 26 (33 CFR 330.2(e)). 266
 Prior to *SWANCC*, neither usage was relevant to Clean Water 267
 Act (CWA) jurisdiction (Downing et al. 2003). Following the 268
SWANCC and later *Rapanos (Rapanos vs. United States, 547* 269
U.S. 715, 2006 decisions), existing definitions were muddled by 270
 case law that misinterpreted scientific and regulatory concepts 271
 of “isolation” and “adjacency” as end-members of waterbody 272
 functional connectivity. At its inception, the term “geographi- 273
 cally isolated wetland” was meant to correct this misinterpreta- 274
 tion and avoid further error (e.g., Tiner et al. 2002; Leibowitz 275
 2003; Tiner 2003a). Unfortunately, the clarification presented in 276
 those seminal publications warning that geographic isolation 277
 should not be used to infer functional isolation did not commu- 278
 nicate well to other communities of practice. For example, in 279
 genetics, “geographic isolation” has a long-used and 280
 well-defined functional definition (Mushet et al. 2015). The 281
 science now shows that the degree of wetland surface-water 282
 connectivity cannot be assessed in a meaningful way by a sim- 283
 ple determination of upland embeddedness (USEPA 2015; 284
 Rains et al. 2016; Cohen et al. 2016). 285

286 The recent Clean Water Rule (CWR, 80 FR 37054), which is 287
 currently stayed, does not use the GIW term, suggesting that 288
 federal agencies have moved beyond consideration of “geo- 289
 graphic isolation” as a factor for determining CWA jurisdiction. 290
 Instead, the rule recognizes the best-available science by estab- 291
 lishing five subcategories of wetlands (prairie potholes, Carolina 292
 and Delmarva bays, pocosins, western vernal pools in California, 293
 and Texas coastal prairie wetlands) that must be considered as 294
 “similarly situated” (that is, functioning as systems at the water- 295
 shed scale) rather than as individual wetland basins, when deter- 296
 mining their influence on navigable waters (CWR, 80 FR 297
 37054). This consideration of the watershed-scale cumulative 298
 effects of wetlands and wetland complexes rather than individual 299
 basins is a large step forward from the localized, basin-scale 300
 assessments inherent in GIW categorization (Tiner 2003a; and 301
 Leibowitz 2015).

302 Conclusions

303 Recent research findings show that wetlands surrounded by 304
 uplands vary greatly in occurrence, type, as well as frequency, 305
 timing, and importance of surface-water connections to other 306
 aquatic systems (Rains et al. 2016; Cohen et al. 2016). 307
 Ambiguous generalizations about degrees of connectivity 308
 and isolation between upland-embedded wetlands and other 309

309 wetlands and downstream waters are illogical (Mushet et al.
310 2015). The single condition of being surrounded by uplands
311 currently used by wetland scientists to define “geographic
312 isolation” does not provide a useful separation between wet-
313 lands that have a significant surface-water connection and
314 those that do not. Upland embeddedness does not necessarily
315 provide any indication that these wetlands are functionally
316 “isolated.”

317 Current research on connectivity of wetlands to downstream
318 waters clearly shows that scientific needs are best met when
319 gradients of surface-water connectivity are considered rather than
320 through the use of a grouping defined by a threshold that does not
321 reliably separate surface water connected/isolated wetlands,
322 yet alone functionally connected/isolate wetlands. Embracing
323 this knowledge requires a rethinking of our use of the “geograph-
324 ically isolated wetlands” misnomer and opens up advanced ave-
325 nues to conserving wetland landscapes. Fully embracing the sci-
326 entific knowledge gained since inception of the GIW grouping,
327 knowledge that has identified the inherent connectedness of these
328 “isolated” wetlands individually and as complexes, is needed to
329 facilitate the long-term conservation of these important, and in-
330 creasingly threatened, wetland resources. Conservation decisions
331 cannot be made based on a broad category that, while created to
332 help alleviate confusion over the term “isolated,” has instead
333 further muddied the waters. Recognizing the diverse functions
334 supported by gradients of wetland connectivity will lead to better
335 conservation of all wetland resources.

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