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Effects of sediment and salinity on the growth and competitive abilities of three submersed macrophytes

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4 Effects of sediment and salinity on the growth and competitive abilities of three
5 submersed macrophytes

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22 Abstract

23 Submersed macrophytes are generally found in multispecies beds, with the
24 dominance of individual species varying in both space and time. In estuarine
25 environments, these plants can grow across a range of environmental conditions which
26 may alter species interactions. Three species common to the Chesapeake Bay region,
27 *Vallisneria americana* (wild celery), *Heteranthera dubia* (water stargrass), and *Stuckenia*
28 *pectinata* (sago pondweed), were planted in a microcosm designed to test their growth
29 and interactions (relative yielding) under a range of conditions of salinity (0, 5, or 10),
30 sediment type (mud or sand), and species combinations. *H. dubia* was most sensitive to
31 elevated salinity, while sediment type impacted only *V. americana*, performing better in
32 mud compared with sand. *V. americana* and *H. dubia* were strong competitors,
33 overyielding in many treatments when grown in mixture, while *S. pectinata* never
34 overyielded and frequently underyielded. Interspecific competition was only strong
35 between *H. dubia* and *S. pectinata* under 0 salinity, regardless of sediment type. *V.*
36 *americana* on the other hand, showed strong interspecific competition with *S. pectinata*
37 across multiple salinity and sediment types, indicating that this species is able to compete
38 well across a wider range of environmental conditions. Our results suggest that *H. dubia*
39 and *V. americana* are strong candidates for multi-species restoration, as positive
40 interactions were observed when grown together. This measure of complementarity
41 provides evidence for increased mixed bed plant performance under environmental
42 conditions that would typically be more stressful to each growing alone.

43 Key words: submersed aquatic vegetation; complementarity; competition; restoration;
44 Chesapeake Bay

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Submersed aquatic vegetation (SAV) growing in low-salinity and freshwater
48 systems are typically not found in monotypic communities, but in multispecies beds, with
49 the dominance of individual species varying in both space and time (Moore et al., 2000;
50 Chambers et al., 2008; Orth et al., 2009; Arthaud et al., 2013). This suggests that there is
51 a range of suitable environmental conditions among the diversity of species in these beds.
52 This may allow for greater natural survival or restoration under a wider range of
53 environmental conditions when compared to monotypic communities.

54 Changing environmental conditions may alter the competitive advantage of one
55 species over another, because each species may have different requirements for their
56 growth or tolerate a different range of conditions. Within an estuarine system such as the
57 Chesapeake Bay, parameters related to light, temperature, nutrients, salinity, and
58 sediment may all play roles in the SAV community dynamics (Kemp et al., 2004).
59 Historically, light availability has been a primary focus when studying SAV habitat
60 requirements (Carter and Rybicki, 1990; Korschgen et al., 1997; Moore et al., 1997;
61 Moore and Wetzel, 2000). Salinity and sediment requirements have not received as
62 much attention, but are likely to be very important in estuarine environments due to their
63 variability in both space and time and their differing effects on individual SAV species.

64 SAV communities in the Chesapeake Bay are typically distributed by salinity,
65 with *Zostera marina* and *Ruppia maritima* occurring in meso and polyhaline regions, and
66 a variety of freshwater mixed species occurring in oligohaline and tidal fresh regions.
67 Within the oligohaline and tidal fresh regions, over 15 species of SAV have been
68 identified (Moore et al., 2000). Many of these species have been shown to have differing

69 salinity tolerances (Teeter, 1965; Haller et al., 1974; Kantrud, 1990; Twilley and Barko,
70 1990; French and Moore, 2003; Bergstrom et al., 2006; Frazer et al., 2006) as well as a
71 range of suitable sediment conditions for their growth (Barko and Smart, 1983; Hoover,
72 1984; Barko and Smart, 1986; Chambers and Prepas, 1990; Batiuk et al., 2000; Jarvis and
73 Moore, 2008).

74 It is not well understood how different local sediment composition and salinity
75 levels might affect SAV bed growth or how these conditions might affect SAV
76 restoration success when species are planted both singly and in competition with other
77 species. Typically, restoration of SAV has been conducted using a single species
78 approach, while the potential positive interactions of planting multiple species together
79 has generally been overlooked (Halpern et al., 2007). Previous work has determined that
80 there is considerable potential for SAV restoration in the major Chesapeake Bay
81 tributaries including the James River using both whole plants and seeds (Moore and
82 Jarvis, 2007; Moore et al., 2010). It is still poorly known if mixed plantings would be
83 more successful by providing a broader range of bed tolerance when subject to varying
84 environmental conditions. It has been reported that in many regions experiencing re-
85 growth of SAV that *Vallisneria americana* can be found growing in combination with
86 other SAV, including *Hydrilla verticillata*, *Myriophyllum spicatum*, *Heteranthera dubia*,
87 and *Ceratophyllum demersum* (Moore et al., 2000; Rybicki and Landwehr, 2007). This
88 suggests that mixed plantings may improve restoration success through complementarity
89 among species in resource utilization.

90 Plants exhibit positive complementarity when their combined performance is
91 greater than what would be expected from them individually (Loreau et al., 2001). This

92 is due to resource partitioning and facilitative interactions, and has been observed in SAV
93 communities (Salo et al., 2009; Gustafsson and Boström, 2011; Hao et al., 2013). On the
94 other hand, multi-species assemblages may not increase overall productivity, bed
95 resilience or restoration success due to interspecific competition, which has been shown
96 to be strong in both temperate and tropical SAV communities (Titus and Stephens, 1983;
97 Moen and Cohen, 1989; Van et al., 1999; Spencer and Ksander, 2000; Barrat-Segretain
98 and Elger, 2004).

99 Here we present results from a microcosm that was designed to test the growth
100 and competitive abilities of low-salinity and freshwater SAV under varying conditions of
101 salinity and sediment type. We address the following research questions: a) What effect
102 will different salinity and sediment types have on plants growing separately in
103 monoculture? b) How will the different treatments alter species interactions when plants
104 are grown in combination? Our goals were to examine the degrees of competition and
105 complementarity among three different species exposed to variable environmental
106 conditions, and to improve the site selection criteria and success of restoration efforts of
107 freshwater and low-salinity tolerant SAV.

108 **2. Methods**

109 An outdoor microcosm was used for the experiment which was conducted in the
110 summer and located at the Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Gloucester Point,
111 Virginia (37°14.8'N, 76°30.3'W). 20-liter white translucent containers with a height of
112 37 cm and diameter of 30 cm were used for each individual experimental unit, and all the
113 containers were housed in a shallow nursery tank approximately 8.5 m x 3 x 0.5 m filled
114 with freshwater to allow for consistent temperatures among the experimental units. Three

115 main treatments were established. Sediment type consisted of two levels (mud and sand),
116 salinity consisted of three levels (0, 5, 10) and species combinations included all
117 combinations of three species (three monocultures, three bicultures, one triculture) for a
118 total of 42 treatments. Each treatment was replicated three times for a total of 126
119 experimental units. *Heteranthera dubia* (water stargrass) and *Vallisneria americana* (wild
120 celery) plants were taken from adjacent outdoor nursery tanks grown from local
121 Chesapeake Bay stock, and *Stuckenia pectinata* (sago pondweed) was harvested from two
122 outdoor ponds located on the Chesapeake Bay at the University of Maryland Center for
123 Environmental Science Horn Point Laboratory, Cambridge, Maryland (38°35.5'N,
124 76°08.8'W). These were brought back to Virginia and planted in an outdoor SAV
125 restoration nursery pond next to other ponds containing the other species. Prior to the
126 start of the experiment, oligohaline estuarine sediment was collected from the
127 Chickahominy River, Virginia. Sediments were obtained from two sites where SAV
128 occur, with target organic content of > 8 % for the muddy site (37°17.5'N, 76°51.8'W)
129 and < 2 % for the sandy site (37°15.5'N, 76°52.4'W). At the time of collection, percent
130 organic content was determined through loss on ignition (Erftemeijer and Koch, 2001).
131 NH_4^+ concentrations were determined using a Lachat auto analyzer (Liao, 2001, revised
132 2002) and PO_4^{3-} concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically at 880nm
133 (VIMS, 1991).

134 Sediment was homogenized, and each container was filled approximately 10 cm
135 deep with sediment, and then filled with filtered freshwater. Plants were sorted within
136 species to a similar length (*V. americana* 16.8 cm \pm 1.2; *H. dubia* 17.6 cm \pm 1.4; *S.*
137 *pectinata* 44.3 cm \pm 2.2). A subset of 30 plants from each species was sampled for dry

138 weight measurements of above and belowground biomass (*V. americana* 0.068 gDW; *H.*
139 *dubia* 0.042 gDW; *S. pectinata* 0.074 gDW per plant). A total of 12 plants were planted
140 in each container in a replacement series design. With this design, the total number of
141 plants in each container was kept constant, but the number of plants per species was
142 altered according to their species combination treatment. For example, in biculture, six
143 plants of each species were used, and in triculture four plants of each species were used.
144 This planting density was chosen based on a literature review of densities of natural plant
145 populations of these species (Moen and Cohen, 1989; Van et al., 1999; Jarvis and Moore,
146 2008).

147 After planting, each container was placed in the tank in a randomized design. The
148 tank was filled with freshwater, and a drain pipe ensured the water level in the tank never
149 rose above the rim of the containers. This served as a water bath to help keep temperature
150 constant in the containers. The containers were allowed to sit for two days to allow
151 sediment settlement, and then individual air bubblers and aquarium foam/floss, carbon,
152 and zeolite filters were connected to each container. These filters were routinely rinsed
153 and were replaced halfway through the experiment. Clear plexiglass sheets were placed
154 over each container to minimize evaporation and to protect the containers from rain. A
155 neutral density (50% light reduction) shade cloth was placed over the top of the tank to
156 minimize algal growth and to better mimic natural field light availability.

157 The experiment started on 17-June and ran for 11 weeks. Plants were kept in
158 freshwater until 10-July, when salinity treatments began, in order to allow the plants to
159 recover from any transplant stress. Salinity was elevated in increments over the course of
160 the next 19 days using Forty Fathoms© Crystal Sea® salt. This was done to parallel rates

161 of salinity change which have been observed under natural field conditions in the region
162 (Shields et al., 2012). The 5 salinity treatments were increased by 1 and the 10 salinity
163 treatments were increased by 2 every 3-4 days during the 19 days until the final
164 concentrations were reached. Salinity was monitored every 3-4 days during this period
165 using a handheld YSI 6000 (Yellow Springs Instrument, Inc.). Additionally, temperature,
166 dissolved oxygen, and pH were also monitored biweekly throughout the experiment.

167 At the end of the experiment prior to harvesting, sediment was sampled for
168 percent organic content and NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} . All plant material was harvested and
169 brought to the lab for measurements of maximum shoot length, shoot density, and above
170 and belowground biomass. Biomass was determined by drying the plants at 60°C until a
171 constant weight was obtained.

172 *2.1. Data Analyses*

173 Relative growth rate (RGR) was determined based on natural logarithm
174 transformed dry weights of total biomass (above and below ground). Initial dry weights
175 were subtracted from final dry weights and divided by the length in days of the
176 experiment ($\text{gdw gdw}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$). Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were run
177 for all species separately in monoculture for RGR, density, and length, with salinity and
178 sediment as fixed factors. Where appropriate, univariate ANOVAs were then used to
179 analyze treatment effects on individual response variables. Tukey's HSD tests were run
180 when significant differences were found. Before testing, residual plots and QQ plots
181 were observed to ensure normality and homoscedasticity.

182 Relative yield (RY) and relative yield totals (RYT) were calculated for RGR
183 based on Hooper (1998) and Engelhardt and Ritchie (2002) in order to analyze the degree

184 of competition and complementarity among species in the different treatments. To
185 calculate an individual RY, the mean RGR of a species in monoculture was calculated
186 individually for all treatments, and this number was used as the expected mean. Next, the
187 RGR of that species in mixture was calculated by accounting for differences in initial
188 planting densities; i.e. biomass in biculture was multiplied by 2, and by 3 in triculture.
189 This number was then divided by the expected mean of the species in monoculture to
190 calculate the RY. Interspecific competition was strong when one species significantly
191 overyielded while another underyielded in mixture. Relative yield totals (RYT) were used
192 to define species complementarity, and were calculated by averaging the RYs of all the
193 species in each treatment. When $RYT > 1$, species were considered complementary as
194 long as each had an individual $RY > 1$. One-sided 95% confidence intervals were
195 performed for all RYs and RYTs to test if the value was significantly different from 1.
196 All data analyses were performed in RStudio (R Core Team, 2012).

197 **3. Results**

198 *3.1. Environmental Conditions*

199 Temperature, pH and dissolved oxygen remained consistent throughout the experiment
200 with no differences among treatments or planting combinations observed. Mean
201 temperature during the dates measured ranged from 26.3 °C to 28.6 °C, mean pH ranged
202 from 8.40 to 8.75, and mean dissolved oxygen ranged from 7.37 mg l⁻¹ to 8.46 mg l⁻¹.
203 Mean salinity concentrations in the containers prior to their increase were constant for all
204 three salinity treatments at 0.23. After the increases were performed, the target
205 concentrations were met, with mean salinity values always within 0.5 of targets. The
206 mud treatments had higher mean organic content, higher NH₄⁺ concentrations, and lower

207 PO_4^{3-} concentrations compared with the sand treatments, both at the beginning and at the
208 end of the experiment (Table 1).

209 3.2. Individual species response in monocultures

210 Salinity had significant effects on the performance of *H. dubia*, but not sediment
211 (Fig. 1, Table 2). Salinity impacted both RGR and density, with 0 and 5 treatments
212 greater than 10 for both parameters. Length showed no significant response. *S. pectinata*
213 was not significantly impacted by sediment or salinity (Fig. 1, Table 2). For *V.*
214 *americana*, sediment showed significant effects (Table 2), with plants growing taller in
215 mud compared with sand, while RGR and density were unaffected (Fig. 1).

216 3.3. Relative Yield

217 *V. americana* and *H. dubia* were the most competitive species, significantly
218 overyielding in 6 and 7, respectively, of the possible 18 treatments, and never
219 underyielding (Fig. 2). *S. pectinata* was a weak competitor, never overyielding and
220 significantly underyielding in 8 of the treatments (Fig. 2).

221 Interspecific competition was strong in five of the treatments (Fig. 2). With *H.*
222 *dubia*, significant overyielding paired with significant *S. pectinata* underyielding only
223 occurred in 0 salinity treatments, regardless of sediment type. On the other hand,
224 significant *V. americana* overyielding paired with significant *S. pectinata* underyielding
225 occurred across a variety of salinity and sediment types (Fig. 2). Complementarity
226 occurred in both the *V. americana*/*H. dubia* biculture and triculture grown in sand in 10
227 salinity. Here, $\text{RYT} > 1$, and the individual RYs for *V. americana* and *H. dubia* were > 1
228 in both the biculture and triculture. *S. pectinata* remained unchanged in the triculture
229 with a $\text{RY} = 1$.

230 Salinity appeared to play a different role in the competitive ability of *H. dubia*
231 compared with *V. americana*. *H. dubia* significantly overyielded in mixture primarily in 0
232 salinity treatments. On the other hand, the majority of cases in which *V. americana*
233 significantly overyielded were in the 10 salinity treatments (Fig. 2).

234 **4. Discussion**

235 The three species studied here demonstrated the wide range of tolerances and
236 competitive abilities which have been found among low-salinity SAV. All survived and
237 grew throughout the summer-long experiment. When each was grown in monoculture,
238 without competition from the other species, there were no interactions observed in the
239 species growth responses to the levels of salinity and sediment tested here. This suggests
240 that the factors of sediment type and salinity may be affecting the plants through different
241 ways. For example, sediment type may be influencing the rates of nutrient uptake (Barko
242 et al., 1991), while salinity levels may be influencing plant respiration or photosynthesis
243 (French and Moore, 2003).

244 Both *S. pectinata* and *H. dubia* performed equally as well in muddy and sandy
245 sediment types, and *V. americana* and *S. pectinata* grew well across a range of salinities.
246 However, *H. dubia* growth was reduced in the 10 salinity treatment compared to lower
247 salinity levels, and *V. americana* growth was reduced in the sand treatment in comparison
248 to its growth in mud. Morphologically, each species responded differently to these
249 stressful conditions. *H. dubia*'s low overall growth rate under high salinity was driven by
250 a decrease in clonal reproduction, with shoot lengths remaining unchanged among
251 treatments. On the other hand, *V. americana*'s reduced overall growth in sand was driven
252 by a decline in shoot elongation, while clonal reproduction did not change across

253 sediment type. These changes in growth morphology may have important implications
254 for their competitive abilities or responses to other environmental stressors, such as
255 reduced light availability where an elongated shoot length could be important, or physical
256 disruption where rapid clonal spread may be necessary.

257 While single species responses to environmental conditions are important,
258 evidence exists for both competition and environmental conditions as drivers for species
259 interactions and distributions in aquatic macrophyte communities (Anderson and Kalff,
260 1986; Chambers and Prepas, 1990; McCreary, 1991; Gopal and Goel, 1993). Our study
261 showed examples of both, with interspecific competition being the driving force in some
262 cases, and salinity stress in others. Both *V. americana* and *H. dubia* were stronger
263 competitors than *S. pectinata*, though the degree of competition varied with
264 environmental condition. *V. americana* was able to outcompete *S. pectinata* across all
265 sediment and salinity treatments, while *H. dubia* typically only outcompeted in 0 salinity.
266 *S. pectinata* proved to be the least competitive species, as it significantly underyielded in
267 mixtures in many of the multi-species treatments, and never overyielded. Engelhardt and
268 Ritchie (2002) found opposite results in their experiment, where *S. pectinata* was the
269 dominant species, overyielding in all mixed plantings. Their experiment differed from
270 ours in that they did not include *V. americana* or *H. dubia*, which appear to be much
271 stronger competitors than the other species they used (*Potamogeton nodosus*,
272 *Potamogeton crispus*, *Zannichellia palustris*). This illustrates the broad range of
273 competitive abilities that may exist among low-salinity SAV communities.

274 Competitive abilities of plants have been shown to vary along environmental
275 gradients, but how the intensity of competition changes with increasing abiotic stress has

276 proven inconsistent (Gaudet and Keddy, 1995; Greiner La Peyre et al., 2001; Hooper and
277 Dukes, 2004; Elmendorf and Moore, 2007). For *H. dubia*, our results provide evidence
278 that interspecific competition is stronger when abiotic stress is less. This species was
279 typically a strong competitor at 0 salinity, which was the least stressful for this species.
280 As salinity increased, the degree of competition decreased, as the stress of salinity
281 became the driving factor affecting its performance. *V. americana* on the other hand, was
282 able to outcompete *S. pectinata* under a variety of sediment and salinity conditions,
283 indicating that it is able to outcompete weaker competitors under a wider range of
284 conditions than *H. dubia*.

285 When grown separately in monoculture, *H. dubia* did not perform well in the 10
286 salinity treatment, and *V. americana* did not perform well in the sand treatment, however
287 when grown together both in biculture and in triculture, these species exhibited positive
288 interactions. They performed relatively better in mixture than they did by themselves,
289 allowing them to perform well in what would otherwise be stressful conditions. This
290 suggests that these two species are complementary in their resource use and under
291 stressful abiotic conditions this allows them to individually access resources, such as light
292 or nutrients, which would be more limiting to each when growing monotypically
293 (Hooper, 1998; Spehn et al., 2000). Morphologically, each species responded differently
294 to these stressful conditions when grown in monoculture, as *H. dubia* decreased clonal
295 reproduction while *V. americana* decreased shoot elongation. When grown in mixture in
296 sand and 10 salinity, *H. dubia*'s low shoot density and *V. americana*'s stunted shoot
297 height may have worked in complementary ways, allowing maximum resource

298 allocation, though the exact mechanism behind this is beyond the scope of this
299 experiment.

300 This work was done in an experimental setting in relatively small containers
301 rather than a field setting, in order to control and be able to more precisely manipulate the
302 different treatment combinations and to more accurately measure the species interactions.
303 In these types of confined spaces, interspecific competition may be stronger and positive
304 plant interactions weaker than what would be observed in a natural field setting.
305 Previous studies have indeed demonstrated the importance of spatial scale in aquatic
306 plant communities, with competition dominating at smaller “patch” scales, and positive
307 facilitative interactions dominating at “bed” scales (van de Koppel et al., 2006; Hengst et
308 al., 2010). The fact that positive plant interactions were measured between *H. dubia* and
309 *V. americana* even in a microcosm setting, provides evidence for these interactions
310 perhaps becoming even stronger at the larger bed scale in a natural field setting, and
311 provides a framework for future larger scale studies.

312 Results from this study can be used to improve restoration techniques for these
313 species and other similar low-salinity SAV in estuarine environments. Here we show that
314 species typically found growing together in multispecies beds respond differently to
315 changing environmental conditions, so using generalized SAV habitat requirements for
316 restoration targets may have limited success in diverse communities. Individual salinity
317 tolerances should especially be considered, and in estuarine areas where higher salinities
318 (5-10) can be expected occasionally, of the species studied here, *V. americana* should be
319 considered as a primary restoration species. All three species tolerated a broad range of
320 sediment conditions, so organic content, for example, may not be as limiting a factor for

321 restoration targets as previously indicated. For example, previous SAV habitat
322 requirement studies (Batiuk et al., 2000; Koch, 2001; Kemp et al., 2004) suggested that
323 sediments for freshwater SAV restoration in the Chesapeake Bay should consist of less
324 than 5% organic matter. While high organic sediments may be deleterious for seagrasses
325 growing under high salinity conditions due to potentially high sediment sulfide
326 concentrations (Borum et al., 2005), this would not be expected to be as great an issue
327 under oligohaline or freshwater conditions. Therefore the sediment habitat requirements
328 for freshwater SAV restoration in some areas may need to be re-evaluated.

329 Typically, restoration of SAV has been conducted using a single-species
330 approach. This study provides strong support for using *H. dubia* and *V. americana*
331 together in co-plantings when habitat conditions may occur in the ranges of those studied
332 here. When planted together, both species either performed equally as well, or better,
333 than they did when grown by themselves, especially when stressed. This capacity for
334 complementarity is important as restoration efforts are costly, and improvements to the
335 resiliency of restored beds are critical for success, especially in physically variable
336 estuarine habitats.

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492 Table 1

493 Mean \pm SE for sediment nutrients and organic content for the mud and sand treatments.

494 Initial values were taken in the field at the time of sediment collection, and final values

495 were taken at the time of harvest at the end of the experiment.

496

	Mud	Sand
Initial		
NH ₄ ⁺ (μ M)	178.2 \pm 18.3	20.5 \pm 6.2
PO ₄ ³⁻ (μ M)	0.17 \pm 0.0	0.45 \pm 0.2
Organic (%)	9.8 \pm 0.2	0.52 \pm 0.1
Final		
NH ₄ ⁺ (μ M)	74.6 \pm 12.6	24.0 \pm 2.6
PO ₄ ³⁻ (μ M)	0.46 \pm 0.0	1.1 \pm 0.3
Organic (%)	9.2 \pm 0.4	1.0 \pm 0.8

497 Table 2

498 MANOVA results for all response variables (RGR, density, and length) for three species

499 under different sediment and salinity conditions. Significant results are highlighted in

500 bold.

	df	Wilks	F	p value
<i>H. dubia</i>				
Sediment	1	0.77	0.91	0.47
Salinity	2	0.17	4.25	< 0.01
Sediment x Salinity	2	0.52	1.15	0.37
<i>S. pectinata</i>				
Sediment	1	0.85	0.57	0.65
Salinity	2	0.38	2.08	0.10
Sediment x Salinity	2	0.53	1.25	0.32
<i>V. americana</i>				
Sediment	1	0.34	6.57	< 0.01
Salinity	2	0.40	1.92	0.13
Sediment x Salinity	2	0.35	2.29	0.08

501

502 **Fig. 1.** Relative growth rate (RGR), density, and length of all species in monoculture
503 (*Heteranthera dubia* left; *Stuckenia pectinata* middle; *Vallisneria americana* right) across
504 all salinity and sediment treatments. Values are mean \pm 1 SE, n = 3. Different letters
505 indicate significant differences among salinity treatments, and the star indicates that the
506 results were significantly different between sediment types. NS = not significant.

507

508 **Fig. 2.** Relative yield calculated based on relative growth rate for each species in all
509 salinity (x-axis) and sediment (left and right panel) treatments. Species combination
510 treatments are in order from top to bottom: *H. dubia*/*S. pectinata* biculture; *H. dubia*/*V.*
511 *americana* biculture; *S. pectinata*/*V. americana* biculture; all species in triculture. White
512 is *H. dubia*, black is *S. pectinata*, gray is *V. americana*. Values are mean \pm 1 SE, n = 3.
513 A line is drawn across a relative yield of 1 which represents a species performing equally
514 well in mixture compared with monoculture. Stars indicate significant overyielding or
515 underyielding with a 95% confidence interval.

516

Figure 1

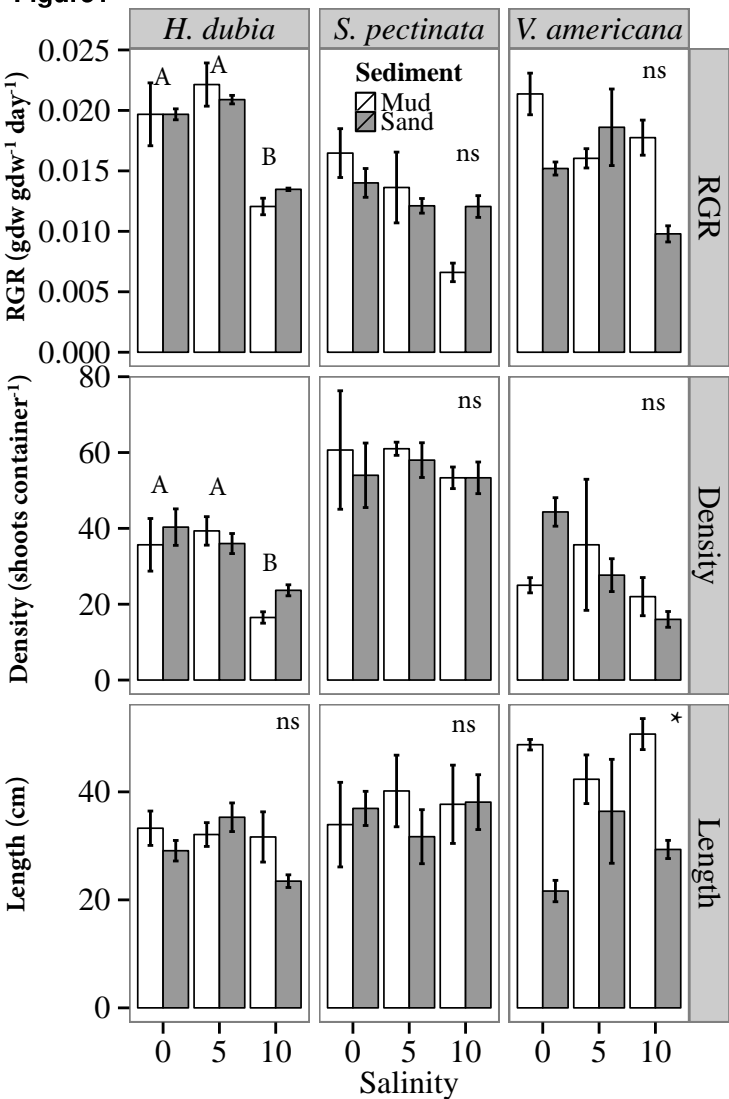


Figure 2

