

Post-mortem ecosystem engineering by oysters creates habitat for a rare marsh plant

Hongyu Guo · Steven C. Pennings

Received: 5 May 2011 / Accepted: 30 April 2012 / Published online: 29 May 2012
© Springer-Verlag 2012

Abstract Oysters are ecosystem engineers in marine ecosystems, but the functions of oyster shell deposits in intertidal salt marshes are not well understood. The annual plant *Suaeda linearis* is associated with oyster shell deposits in Georgia salt marshes. We hypothesized that oyster shell deposits promoted the distribution of *Suaeda linearis* by engineering soil conditions unfavorable to dominant salt marsh plants of the region (the shrub *Borrichia frutescens*, the rush *Juncus roemerianus*, and the grass *Spartina alterniflora*). We tested this hypothesis using common garden pot experiments and field transplant experiments. *Suaeda linearis* thrived in *Borrichia frutescens* stands in the absence of neighbors, but was suppressed by *Borrichia frutescens* in the with-neighbor treatment, suggesting that *Suaeda linearis* was excluded from *Borrichia frutescens* stands by interspecific competition. *Suaeda linearis* plants all died in *Juncus roemerianus* and *Spartina alterniflora* stands, regardless of neighbor treatments, indicating that *Suaeda linearis* is excluded from these habitats by physical stress (likely water-logging). In contrast, *Borrichia frutescens*, *Juncus roemerianus*, and *Spartina alterniflora* all performed poorly in *Suaeda linearis* stands regardless of neighbor treatments, probably due to physical stresses such as low soil water content and low organic matter content. Thus, oyster shell deposits play an important ecosystem engineering role in influencing salt marsh plant communities by providing a unique niche for *Suaeda linearis*, which otherwise would be rare or absent in salt marshes in the southeastern US. Since the success of

Suaeda linearis is linked to the success of oysters, efforts to protect and restore oyster reefs may also benefit salt marsh plant communities.

Keywords Oyster shell · *Suaeda linearis* · Microhabitat · Competition · Salt marsh

Introduction

Ecosystem engineers are organisms that directly or indirectly modify environmental conditions, and thereby affect other species without direct trophic interactions (Jones et al. 1994, 1997, 2010). These modifications may occur while the engineers are living, or be mediated by their remains (e.g., effects of a fallen tree trunk on stream or soil processes; Jones et al. 1994, 1997). Ecosystem engineers play important roles in mediating biodiversity and ecological functioning in many ecosystems (Gutiérrez and Iribarne 1999; Bruno 2000; Crooks 2002; Cuddington and Hastings 2004; Wright and Jones 2006; Hastings et al. 2007).

Oysters are well-known ecosystem engineers (Grabowski and Peterson 2007) that create essential habitats for fish and invertebrates (Gutiérrez et al. 2003; Coen and Grizzle 2007). By providing three-dimensional biogenic structure with multiple microhabitats, oyster reefs promote species diversity and abundance (Larsen 1985; Coen et al. 1999; Lenihan 1999; Harding and Mann 2001; Lehnert and Allen 2002). Oyster reefs not only provide sources of food (Meyer 1994; Szedlmayer and Howe 1997), but also function as nursery areas and refuges for many species, thereby enhancing recruitment and survival of these species (McDonald 1982; Auster et al. 1991; Dittel et al. 1996). In addition, oyster reefs may reduce wave energy and protect estuarine marshes from erosion (Meyer et al. 1997).

Communicated by John Silander.

H. Guo (✉) · S. C. Pennings
Department of Biology and Biochemistry,
University of Houston, Houston, TX 77204, USA
e-mail: hguo4@uh.edu

Although considerable attention has been paid to the services provided by oyster reefs in marine ecosystems and at marsh fringes, ecologists have largely ignored the potential importance of the dead oyster shells that have washed away from reefs and into the intertidal salt marshes, or that are part of relict middens deposited by Native Americans (Saunders 2002; Thompson and Worth 2011).

Salt marsh plant communities are typically comprised of a few halophytic species, most of which are perennial (Chapman 1974; Adam 1990). Annual plants tend to be rare and distributed in patches with low occupancy of perennials (Watkinson and Davy 1985; Ellison 1987; Bertness et al. 1992; Tessier et al. 2000). Populations of many annual plants in salt marshes are maintained by disturbances which create gaps in the stands of dominant perennials (Brewer et al. 1998; Tessier et al. 2000; Varty and Zedler 2008) or by the tolerance of annual plants to microhabitats that are prohibitively stressful for the dominant perennials (Ingold and Havill 1984; Thibodeau et al. 1998).

In Georgia salt marshes, on the South Atlantic Coast of the United States, we observed that the annual plant *Suaeda linearis* is usually found in association with oyster shell deposits. Accumulations of oyster shells occur as patches in the intertidal zones of many estuaries on the southeastern coast of the United States, particularly along waterways impacted by wind and waves (Anderson et al. 1979; Bahr and Lanier 1981; Coen and Grizzle 2007). These patches occur at the marsh edge where shells wash up from oyster reefs, but can extend a considerable distance into the marsh platform depending on wave action (Coen and Grizzle 2007; Guo and Pennings, personal observations). Patches of oyster shell also occur in the high marsh where the marsh contacts middens deposited by Native Americans. Oyster shell deposits support low densities of dominant salt marsh plants, but are the locations where we commonly find *Suaeda linearis*, which is otherwise rare in the salt marshes. We hypothesized that oyster shell deposits promoted the distribution of *Suaeda linearis* by engineering soil conditions that were unfavorable to the dominant salt marsh plants. We tested this hypothesis using a combination of common garden pot experiment and field transplant experiment comparing the performance of *Suaeda linearis* and three dominant salt marsh perennials, with and without competition, on soils typical for stands of each species.

Materials and methods

Study sites and field survey

Fieldwork was conducted at salt marshes near Sapelo Island, Georgia, USA (31°27'N, 81°16'W). In these salt marshes, *Borrchia frutescens* and *Juncus roemerianus*

occur in monospecific or mixed stands at higher marsh elevations, and *Spartina alterniflora* at lower marsh elevations (Wiegert and Freeman 1990; Pennings and Moore 2001). *Suaeda linearis* occurs in discrete stands at high marsh elevations adjacent to *Borrchia frutescens* or *Juncus roemerianus*, and at low marsh elevations adjacent to *Spartina alterniflora* along large tidal creeks and channels (all plants will be referred to generically hereafter). To document the association between *Suaeda* and oyster shell deposits, we took soil samples from stands of *Suaeda* at 20 separate locations. For comparison, we also took soil samples respectively from stands of *Borrchia* ($n = 10$ locations), *Juncus* ($n = 10$ locations) and *Spartina* ($n = 10$ locations) that were adjacent to *Suaeda* stands. Discrete stands of *Suaeda* were identified from a distance of ~ 50 m (at this distance, we could not see whether soils had a high shell content or not). At each location, we collected soil samples (0–10 cm depth) at 3–5 spots from within a stand, and combined them into a mixed soil sample of ~ 4 L in volume. We measured the wet weight of a subsample (50 ml volume) of each soil sample, and dried the subsamples for 3 days at 60 °C, then weighed them again to determine water volume, assuming 1 g/ml as the water density. We calculated the volumetric soil water content using the formula: volumetric soil water content = water volume (ml)/total soil volume (ml). We separated the rest of each soil sample into oyster shell versus sand and clay using a sieve (mesh size 5.6 mm). The very few gravel and rock pieces found were included with the sand/clay fraction. We calculated oyster shell content in the soil using the formula: oyster shell content = oyster shell dry mass (g)/soil total dry mass (g).

Common garden pot experiments

In order to determine the importance of abiotic stress associated with oyster shell deposits and biotic interactions on the performance of *Suaeda*, *Borrchia*, *Juncus*, and *Spartina*, we conducted two common garden pot experiments. In experiment I, which was carried out in 2008, we grew *Suaeda*, *Borrchia*, and *Juncus* alone (without-neighbor treatments, 1 plant per pot) and in the combinations of *Suaeda* + *Borrchia* and *Suaeda* + *Juncus* (with-neighbor treatments, 1 plant of each species per pot) in 20-L (~ 29 cm wide, ~ 35 cm high) pots. Pots were filled with three media treatments: (1) high marsh soil collected from a single high marsh, (2) oyster shell collected from a single tidal channel bank, and (3) a mixture of 50 % (volume) soil (from the high marsh) and 50 % (volume) shell ($n = 10$ replicates per species combination per media treatment). For each species, healthy individual plants (seedlings for *Suaeda*, because it is an annual species) within a narrow range of size were collected from a single site in June 2008.

The roots of each plant were separated from the soil and rinsed before potting. Pots assigned to without-neighbor treatments were placed apart from each other by ~ 0.5 m to ensure minimal shading from plants in adjacent pots, whereas pots with same combination of plants in with-neighbor treatments were placed close to each other to simulate an extensive mixed stand as best as possible given a pot experiment.

Common garden pot experiment II was conducted in 2009 with a similar design as described above. In this experiment, we grew *Suaeda* and *Spartina* alone (without-neighbor treatments) and together (with-neighbor treatment) with three media treatments: (1) low marsh soil, (2) shell, and (3) a mixture of 50 % (volume) soil (from the low marsh) and 50 % (volume) shell ($n = 10$ replicates per species combination per media treatment).

Both experiments ran from June to October. Plants were maintained outside (exposed to rain) and watered evenly with fresh water (1 L per pot) on non-rainy days. The pots received full sun during the middle of the day and partial shade from trees and a building in the early morning and late afternoon. At the end of growing season (October), aboveground biomass of all plants was harvested and dried for 3 days at 60 °C and weighed. We measured the volumetric water content of media at the end of growing season by drying soils (~ 8 h after watering) as described above.

Field transplant experiments

To further test the hypothesis that oyster shell deposits promote the distribution of *Suaeda linearis* by engineering soil conditions unfavorable to the dominant salt marsh plants, we conducted field transplant experiments. We located three representative sites where *Suaeda* occurred associated with oyster shell deposits adjacent to stands of *Borrichia*, *Juncus*, and *Spartina*. Henceforth, we refer to these sites as the *Borrichia*–*Suaeda* site, *Juncus*–*Suaeda* site, and *Spartina*–*Suaeda* site. The *Borrichia*–*Suaeda* site was at the terrestrial border of a high marsh and only experienced occasional tidal flooding during spring tides that was relatively short in duration; the *Juncus*–*Suaeda* site was in the high marsh, and experienced irregular tidal flooding that was most prolonged during spring-tides; the *Spartina*–*Suaeda* site was in the low marsh, and experienced daily tidal flooding.

In each vegetation zone (the monospecific stands of vegetation into which we transplanted experimental plants) of each site, we established eight removal plots (1.5×1.5 m) with background vegetation removed (without-neighbor treatment), and eight control plots with background vegetation left intact (with-neighbor treatment) that were interspersed with the removal plots, for a total of 32 plots per site (2 vegetation zones \times 2 neighbor

treatments \times 8 replicates). The removal plots were created by clipping background vegetation at the soil surface in March 2009, and maintained by monthly weeding. At each site, healthy *Suaeda* seedlings and individuals of the paired species (*Borrichia*, *Juncus*, or *Spartina*), with associated soil blocks ($10 \times 10 \times 10$ cm), were collected and transplanted into each plot in each vegetation zone. Because some soil was transplanted along with the perennial plants, this experiment was conservative with respect to the effect of habitat on the performance of the perennials. For each species, individuals collected were within a narrow size range. The two individuals (of *Suaeda* and the other paired species) in each plot were placed ~ 1 m apart from each other within the plot to minimize any interactions between them (their canopies never overlapped). We monitored the performance of the transplants and maintained the plots monthly during the course of the experiment. At the end of the growing season (October 2009), all aboveground live plant material was harvested, dried for 3 days at 60 °C, and weighed. For each experimental plot, soil water content (volumetric), porewater salinity, and pH were measured monthly throughout the course of the experiment. Soil porewater salinity was measured by rehydrating dried soils in a known volume of distilled water, measuring the salinity of the supernatant, and back-calculating to the original porewater volume (Pennings and Richards 1998). Soil pH was measured by rehydrating dried soils (another set of samples) with distilled water in a 1:1 soil:water mixture, and measuring the pH of the supernatant (USDA 2004). Soil organic content was determined in July 2009 by combustion (USDA 2004).

Data analysis

All data analyses were performed with R statistical software (R Development Core Team 2010). Biomass data of *Suaeda* from common garden pot experiment II and all biomass data from field transplant experiments were analyzed using Nonparametric Multiple Comparisons (Behrens–Fisher procedure, ‘nrmc’ package in R, with significance level of 0.05), because many plants died by the end of these experiments in some treatments, resulting in heterogeneous variance and non-normality of the data. Biomass data from common garden pot experiment I and biomass data of *Borrichia* and *Juncus* from common garden pot experiment II were \log_{10} -transformed to improve normality and analyzed using two-way ANOVAs; post hoc multiple comparisons were performed using Tukey HSD tests with significance level of 0.05. Dead plants were included in these analyses with biomass set at zero.

To quantitatively evaluate biotic interactions in the field transplant experiments, we calculated relative

neighbor interaction intensity (RII) using the formula $RII = (B_{+N} - B_{-N}) / (B_{+N} + B_{-N})$, where B_{+N} and B_{-N} are plant biomass in the presence (+) and absence (–) of neighbors, respectively (Armas et al. 2004). Negative RII values indicate competition; positive RII values indicate facilitation. To calculate RII, adjacent control and removal plots were paired within each site. For each plant species at each site, RII values between vegetation zones were compared using t tests, with significance level of 0.05.

Results

Field survey

The distribution of *Suaeda* in the field was strongly associated with oyster shell deposits. Soil from stands of *Suaeda* had a high content of oyster shell. Soil from adjacent stands of *Borrichia* had much lower levels of oyster shell, and soil from adjacent stands of *Juncus* or *Spartina* had almost no oyster shell (Fig. 1a). Volumetric soil water content was generally higher when oyster shell content was lower. Soil water content was highest in *Spartina* stands, intermediate in *Juncus* and *Borrichia* stands, and lowest in stands of *Suaeda* (Fig. 1b).

Common garden pot experiments

Water content varied significantly across media in both of the common garden pot experiments, with water content being the highest in soil, intermediate in the soil:shell mixture and lowest in shell (~53, ~38 and ~21%, respectively in experiment I, and ~74, ~40 and ~23%, respectively in experiment II).

In common garden pot experiment I, *Borrichia* performed best in the soil media, and its performance was progressively worse in the soil:shell mixture and the shell media. The presence of *Suaeda* neighbors had no significant effect on *Borrichia* growth (Fig. 2a; Table 1). *Juncus* also achieved the highest biomass in the soil media, and was unaffected by the presence of *Suaeda* (Fig. 2b; Table 1). *Suaeda* performed best in the soil media when grown without neighbors; however, the growth of *Suaeda* was strongly suppressed when grown with *Borrichia* or *Juncus* neighbors (Fig. 2c). Competitive effects on *Suaeda* were greatest in soil or the soil:shell mixture, leading to a significant media \times neighbor interaction (Fig. 2c; Table 1).

In common garden pot experiment II, *Spartina*, like *Borrichia* and *Juncus*, performed best in the soil media, and was not significantly affected by the presence of *Suaeda* neighbors (Fig. 3a; Table 1). All *Suaeda* plants died in the low marsh soil media within several weeks, whereas they survived in the soil:shell mixture and in the shell media (Fig. 3b).

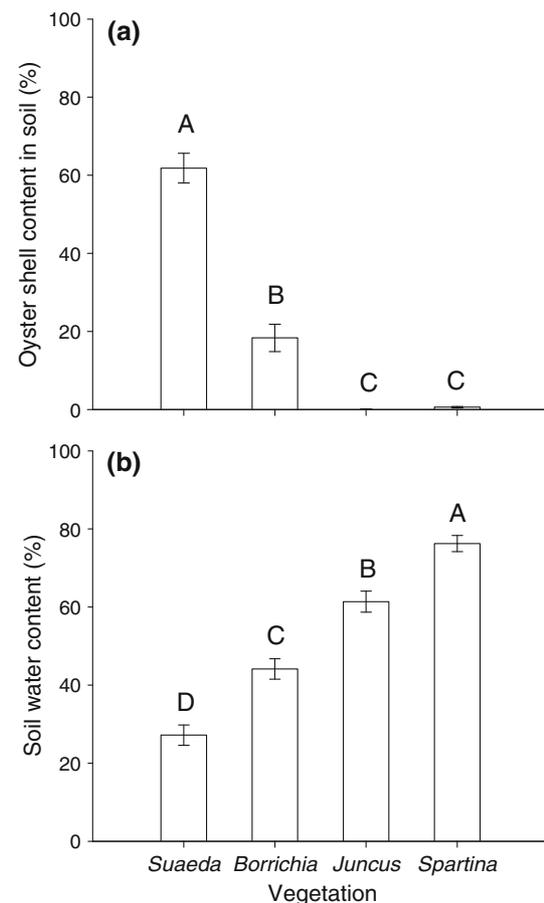


Fig. 1 Composition of soil collected from stands of the four plant species: **a** oyster shell content (% of soil total dry mass) and **b** volumetric water content (% of soil total volume). Data are means \pm SE; $n_{Suaeda} = 20$, $n_{Borrichia} = 10$, $n_{Juncus} = 10$, $n_{Spartina} = 10$ (**a** and **b**). Bars with shared letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD tests, $P = 0.05$)

Field transplant experiments

At the *Borrichia*–*Suaeda* site, soil water content and organic matter content were significantly higher in the stands of *Borrichia* versus in the stands of *Suaeda*, whereas soil pH and salinity did not differ among vegetation zones (Fig. 4a). Transplanted *Suaeda* plants grew well in either microhabitat without neighbors, but experienced strong competition from both *Borrichia* and *Suaeda*. Competitive effects of neighbors were stronger (RII more negative) for *Suaeda* plants transplanted into the stands of *Borrichia* than for plants transplanted into the stands of *Suaeda* (Fig. 5a, d). *Borrichia* performed poorly in the stands of *Suaeda* regardless of neighbor treatments (Fig. 5a).

At the *Juncus*–*Suaeda* site, soil from *Juncus* stands had higher water content, lower pH, and lower salinity than soil from *Suaeda* stands, whereas soil organic content did not differ between vegetation zones (Fig. 4b). All *Suaeda* plants

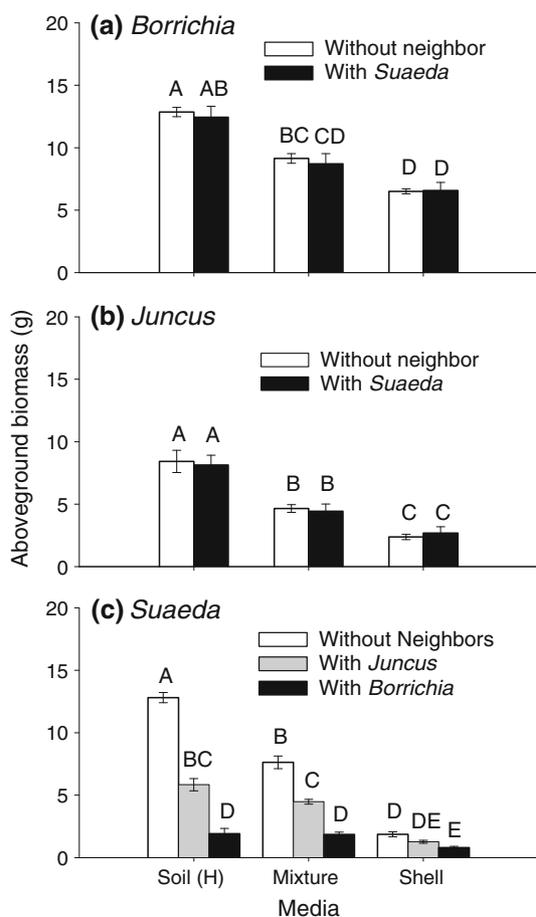


Fig. 2 Aboveground biomass of target species in common garden pot experiment I: grown in different media and neighbor treatments; **a** *Borrichia*, **b** *Juncus*, **c** *Suaeda*. Soil (H) is soil from high marsh. Data are means ± SE; n = 10 per treatment per media. Within each species, bars with shared letters are not significantly different (Tukey HSD tests, P = 0.05)

transplanted into *Juncus* stands died by the end of the experiment (Fig. 5b). *Juncus* performed poorly in *Suaeda* stands regardless of neighbor treatments (Fig. 5b).

At the *Spartina*–*Suaeda* site, soil from *Spartina* stands had higher water content and organic matter content, but lower pH than soil from *Suaeda* stands (Fig. 4c). Soil salinity did not differ significantly between habitats (Fig. 4c). All *Suaeda* plants transplanted into *Spartina* stands died within several weeks (Fig. 5c). *Spartina* also performed poorly in *Suaeda* stands, regardless of neighbor treatments (Fig. 5c).

Discussion

The results of this study demonstrated that oyster shell deposits play an important role in influencing salt marsh plant community structure by providing a unique niche for an annual plant *Suaeda linearis* in salt marshes in the south-

Table 1 Summary of ANOVA results for the effects of media, neighbor treatments and the interaction between media and neighbor treatments on the aboveground biomass (log₁₀-transformed) of plants in the common garden pot experiments

Species and source of variance	df	F	P
Common garden pot experiment I			
<i>Borrichia</i>			
Media	2, 54	44.29	<0.01
Neighbor	1, 54	0.96	0.33
Media × neighbor	2, 54	0.04	0.96
<i>Juncus</i>			
Media	2, 54	47.08	<0.01
Neighbor	1, 54	0.23	0.63
Media × neighbor	2, 54	0.14	0.87
<i>Suaeda</i>			
Media	2, 81	158.18	<0.01
Neighbor	2, 81	141.54	<0.01
Media × neighbor	4, 81	8.82	<0.01
Common garden pot experiment II			
<i>Spartina</i>			
Media	2, 54	94.31	<0.01
Neighbor	1, 54	0.04	0.84
Media × neighbor	2, 54	0.27	0.76

Biomass data of *Suaeda* in common garden pot experiment II were analyzed separately using Nonparametric Multiple Comparisons (see “Materials and methods”), and therefore are not included

Significant P values (P < 0.05) are in bold

eastern US. Although individual oysters live for only a limited number of years, their shells can continue to play an ecosystem engineering role in marsh habitats long after the oysters die.

Exactly how oyster shells mediate interactions among marsh plants appears to differ between microhabitats. At the *Borrichia*–*Suaeda* site, which was close to the terrestrial border of the marsh, *Suaeda* thrived in the *Borrichia* stands in the absence of neighbors. When grown with neighbors, *Suaeda* was suppressed by neighboring vegetation both in *Borrichia* and *Suaeda* stands, but *Suaeda* experienced stronger competition from *Borrichia* than from conspecifics, suggesting that *Suaeda* was excluded from the *Borrichia* stands by interspecific competition rather than physical stress. In contrast, *Borrichia* grew poorly in the *Suaeda* stands in both with- and without-neighbor treatments, indicating that the physical condition of oyster shell deposits in the *Suaeda* stands was stressful to *Borrichia* and precluded *Borrichia* from occupying this habitat. In the common garden pot experiments, oyster shell media had a low volumetric soil water content, probably due to better drainage, and thus it is possible that *Borrichia* was drought-stressed when grown in the oyster shell and the soil:shell

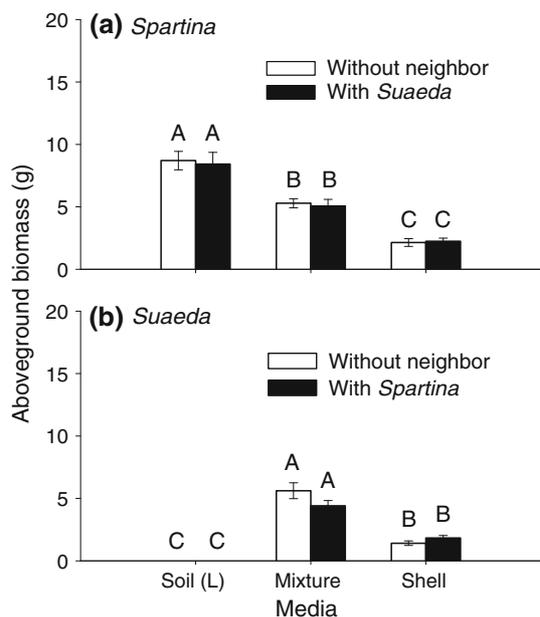


Fig. 3 Aboveground biomass of target species in common garden pot experiment II: grown in different media and neighbor treatments; **a** *Spartina*, **b** *Suaeda*. Soil (L) is soil from the low marsh. Data are means \pm SE; $n = 10$ per treatment per media. Within each species, bars with shared letters are not significantly different (Tukey HSD tests for **a** *Spartina*; and Non-parametric Multiple Comparisons for **b** *Suaeda*; $P = 0.05$)

mixture media. In the field, soil from *Suaeda* stands had lower water content and organic matter content than soil from *Borrichia* stands (Figs. 1b, 4a), which might contribute to the poor performance of *Borrichia* on oyster shell deposits. Thus, oyster shell deposits appear to function as a barrier limiting the distribution of *Borrichia*, likely by presenting physical stresses such as low soil water content and nutrient availability, thereby creating open space where *Suaeda*, which is competitively subordinate but can tolerate the physical stresses present on oyster shell deposits, can survive. In New England salt marshes, it has been found that hypersaline bare patches resulting from disturbance functioned as refugia for plants that have high salt tolerance but subordinate competitive ability (Bertness et al. 1992). Several other studies have also identified an association between the development of annual plants and small gaps in the matrix of dominant perennials in tidal marshes, revealing the importance of creating open space in maintaining annual plant populations (Watkinson and Davy 1985; Brewer and Grace 1990; Bakker and de Vries 1992; Tessier et al. 2000; van de Koppel et al. 2006; Varty and Zedler 2008).

The mechanisms affecting the performance of *Juncus* and *Spartina* were similar to those affecting the performance of *Borrichia*. *Juncus* and *Spartina* grew poorly in *Suaeda* stands in the field regardless of neighbor treatments, indicating that oyster shell habitat was also stressful

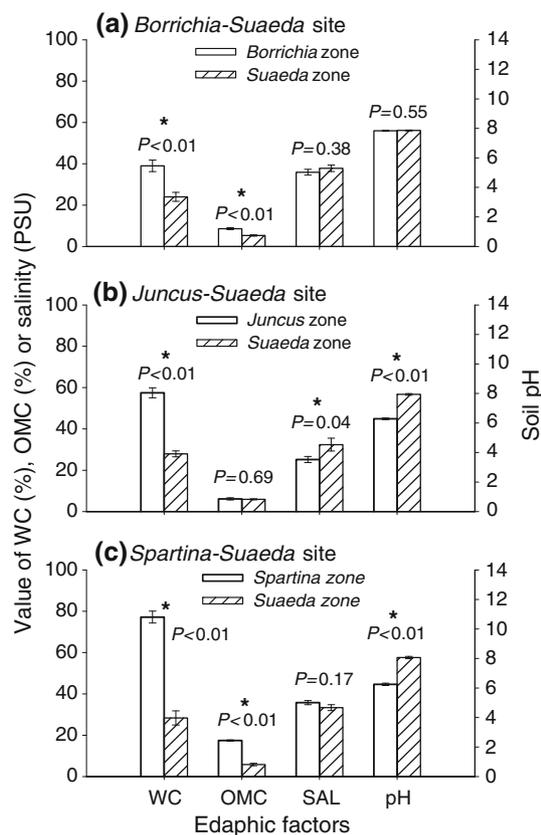


Fig. 4 Edaphic factors in the field transplant experiments; **a** *Borrichia*–*Suaeda* site, **b** *Juncus*–*Suaeda* site, **c** *Spartina*–*Suaeda* site. Data are means \pm SE, $n = 24$ per vegetation zone for volumetric soil water content (WC), soil porewater salinity (SAL) and pH respectively, $n = 8$ per vegetation zone for soil organic matter content (OMC). Asterisks indicate means that are significantly different (t tests, $P < 0.05$)

to these two salt marsh dominant plant species. Similarly, both *Juncus* and *Spartina* performed poorly in the common garden pot experiments when grown in the oyster shell and the mixture media (high marsh soil:shell for *Juncus*, low marsh soil:shell for *Spartina*, respectively), both of which had relatively low water content compared with marsh soils. In the field, soil from *Suaeda* stands had lower water content than soil from *Juncus* or *Spartina* stands, and it is likely that *Juncus* and *Spartina* are excluded from shell deposits by drought stress (Drake 1989; Hessini et al. 2008). Also, the higher soil salinity in the *Suaeda* stands might further stunt the growth of *Juncus*, which is not tolerant of high salinities, in this microhabitat (Wiegert and Freeman 1990; Pennings et al. 2005). Finally, the lower soil organic matter content in the *Suaeda* stands might also constrain the growth of *Spartina* in this microhabitat (Linhurst and Seneca 1981; Drake 1989).

Although *Suaeda* performed well in *Borrichia* stands in the absence of competition, it performed poorly in *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands, regardless of the presence of neigh-

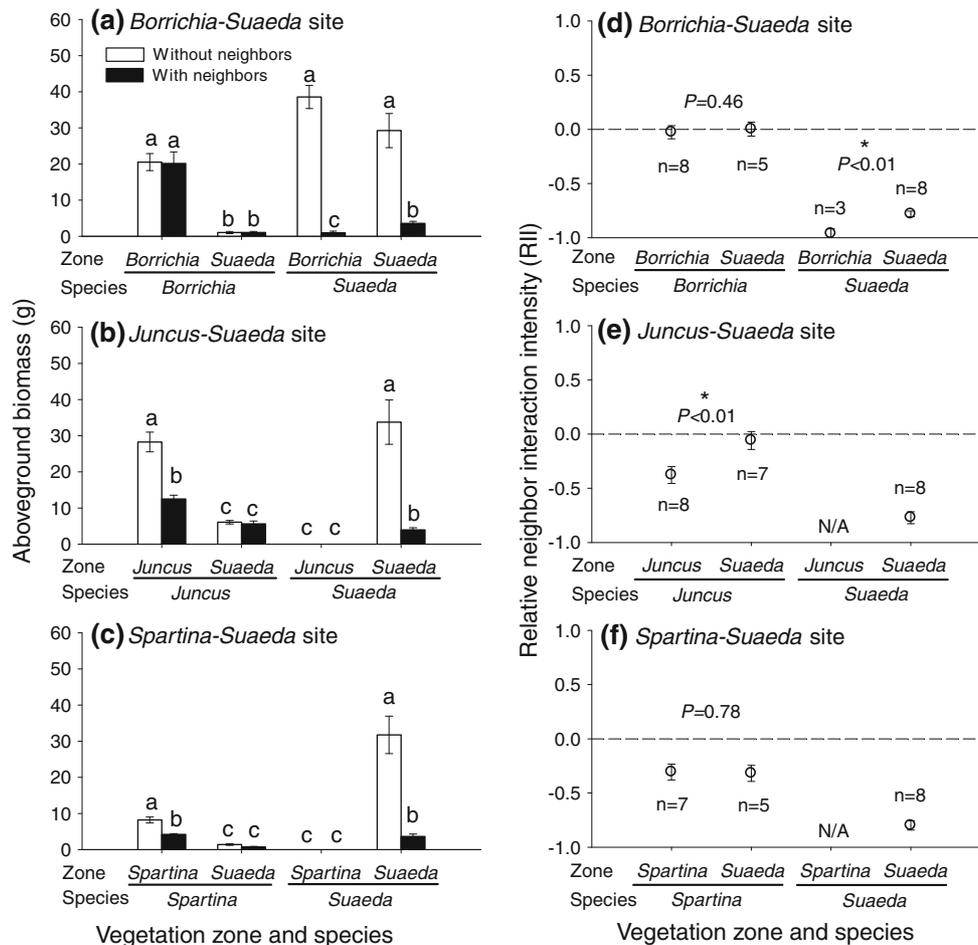


Fig. 5 Aboveground biomass of target species **a–c** and relative neighbor interaction intensity (**d–f**) in the field transplant experiments; **a, d** *Borrighia–Suaeda* site; **b, e** *Juncus–Suaeda* site; **c, f** *Spartina–Suaeda* site. For plant aboveground biomass, data are means \pm SE, $n = 8$ per neighbor treatment in each vegetation zone; for relative neighbor interaction intensity (RII), data are means with 95 % CI, sample sizes

(n) are shown. Within each species, bars with shared letters (in **a–c**) are not significantly different (non-parametric multiple comparisons, $P = 0.05$). Asterisks indicate that means are significantly different (t tests, $P < 0.05$). Species is the target plant species studied in these experiments, zone is the background vegetation stands into which the experimental plants were transplanted

bors. *Suaeda* plants all died in the *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands, regardless of neighbor treatment, indicating that the physical conditions in the *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands were extremely stressful to *Suaeda*. One possible physical stressor limiting the distribution of *Suaeda* in the *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands might be tidal flooding, which causes frequent water-logging in the low marsh and occasionally prolonged water-logging in the high marsh. Water-logging of salt marsh soils leads to anoxia and the production of toxic sulfides (Adam 1990; Pezeshki 1997; Pennings and Bertness 2001). Studies with other species of *Suaeda* have found that frequent tidal flooding resulted in high mortality of *Suaeda*, probably due to soil anoxia or up-rooting of seedlings (Tessier et al. 2000; He et al. 2009). In common garden pot experiment II, *Suaeda* survived in the oyster shell and low marsh soil:shell mixture media, but experienced 100 % mortality in the low marsh soil media

(Fig. 3b). Moreover, soil pH was significantly lower in *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands versus *Suaeda* stands, which raises the possibility that variation in soil chemistry driven by pH might also play a role in eliminating *Suaeda* from *Juncus* and *Spartina* stands. Oyster shell deposits may reduce water-logging by improving drainage and physically increasing surface elevation. Also, the larger grain size of oyster shell versus marsh soil results in higher porosity and aeration, which can decrease anoxia. In addition, oyster shell can buffer low soil pH (Whitaker et al. 2004; Carlsson et al. 2008; Lee et al. 2008), and may thereby alter chemical conditions in the soil. The exact nature of these alterations was not investigated in this study; however, calcium-rich soils occur in several regions of the world and host unique floras (Etherington 1981; Walker et al. 2001; Bigelow and Canham 2002; de Souza et al. 2007). In these cases, since the physical structure such as the one provided

by oyster shells is lacking, differences in vegetation composition between calcium-rich and normal soils are thought to be driven primarily by soil chemistry.

In New England, *Suaeda* (*S. linearis*) is a major component of the plant community growing on cobble beaches behind beds of *Spartina alterniflora* which reduces water velocity and thus stabilizes the cobble substrate (Bruno 2000, 2002). In these communities, *Suaeda* is competitively excluded from the *Spartina alterniflora* zone (van de Koppel et al. 2006). Another species, *Spartina patens*, which is strong competitor in salt marshes, cannot tolerate the stress on cobble beaches, regardless of whether *Spartina alterniflora* buffers water movement in the low zone (van Wesenbeeck et al. 2007). Thus, *Suaeda* and other less-competitive cobble beach plants enjoy a refuge from competition on cobble beaches in microhabitats where hydrodynamic stress is sufficiently buffered by *Spartina alterniflora* beds. Cobble beaches do not occur in the sediment-rich estuaries of the South Atlantic Bight, which are formed by sediments that are eroded and transported to the coast by major river systems (Milliman et al. 1972; Meade 1982); however, oyster shell deposits are common in the intertidal zone of many southern estuaries (Bahr and Lanier 1981; Coen and Grizzle 2007). We argue that, in the case of *Suaeda*, oyster shell deposits in the Southeast function similarly to cobble beaches in New England, providing an essential habitat that allows the persistence of *Suaeda*, which otherwise would be extremely rare or even absent in southeastern US marshes.

The occurrence of oyster shell deposits in salt marshes also promotes environmental heterogeneity, which in general is critical in influencing community structure and diversity (MacArthur and MacArthur 1961; Connell 1978; Tilman 1982; Huston 1994). In wetland communities, studies have shown that microtopographic variability produces high diversity of plant community structure (Vivian-Smith 1997; Tessier et al. 2002). Similarly, ice and wrack-burial disturbances in salt marshes increase plant community structure diversity by creating a dynamic mosaic of patches which allow the emergence of competitively subordinate plants (Bertness and Ellison 1987; Adam 1990; Brewer et al. 1998; Pennings and Bertness 2001). Finally, disturbances caused by consumer foraging can also result in more diverse marsh plant communities (Hik et al. 1992; Pennings and Callaway 1996; Gough and Grace 1998). In a similar way, oyster shell deposits create microhabitat allowing *Suaeda* to grow in multiple vegetation contexts, and thus enhance plant community diversity in salt marshes by increasing habitat heterogeneity.

Although oyster shell deposits play an important role in promoting the distribution of *Suaeda* and plant community diversity in southeastern US salt marshes, the sustainability of oyster shell is facing serious challenges (Powell and

Klinck 2007). Oysters have been heavily harvested for food (Hargis and Haven 1999; Banks et al. 2007), and oyster populations have also declined due to disease (Andrews and Frierman 1974; Krantz and Jordan 1996; Cook et al. 1998). The decline of oyster populations and consequent loss of oyster shell resources has been observed in many estuaries in the southeastern US (Rothschild et al. 1994; NCDENR 2001; Woods et al. 2005; Coen and Grizzle 2007; Powell et al. 2008). The dependence of *Suaeda* distribution upon oyster shell habitat suggests that the declines over the past decades in oyster populations due to overfishing and disease may have negative impacts on *Suaeda* populations as existing stocks of shells are slowly buried and lost. This adds another reason for making more efforts to protect and restore oyster reefs, which play important ecosystem engineering roles not only when they live, but also after they die (Gutiérrez et al. 2003).

Acknowledgments We thank Jane Buck, Christine Ewers, Daniel Saucedo, Jacob Shalack, Kazimierz Więski, and Yihui Zhang for field assistance, and John Silander and two anonymous reviewers for constructive comments. The experiments described in this paper complied with the current laws of the United States. This is a contribution of the Georgia Coastal Ecosystems Long-Term Ecological Research program, which is funded by NSF (OCE06-20959). This is contribution number 1014 from the University of Georgia Marine Institute.

References

- Adam P (1990) Saltmarsh ecology. Cambridge University Press, New York
- Anderson WD, Keith WJ, Tuten WR, Mills FH (1979) A survey of South Carolina's washed shell recourse. South Carolina Wildlife and Marine Resources Department, Technical Report No. 36. Charleston, SC, USA
- Andrews JD, Frierman M (1974) Epizootiology of *Minchinia nelsoni* in susceptible wild oysters in Virginia, 1959 to 1971. J Invertebr Pathol 24:127–140
- Armas C, Ordiales R, Pugnaire FI (2004) Measuring plant interactions: a new comparative index. Ecology 85:2682–2686
- Auster PJ, Malatesta RJ, LaRosa SC, Cooper RA, Stewart LL (1991) Microhabitat utilization by the megafaunal assemblage at a low relief outer continental shelf site-Middle Atlantic Bight, USA. J Northwest Atl Fish Sci 11:59–69
- Bahr LM, Lanier WP (1981) The ecology of intertidal oyster reefs of the South Atlantic Coast: a community profile. FWS/OBS-81/15. United States Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington, DC, USA
- Bakker JP, de Vries Y (1992) Germination and early establishment of lower salt-marsh species in grazed and mown salt marsh. J Veg Sci 3:247–252
- Banks P et al (2007) Status review of the eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*). Report to the National Marine Fisheries Service, Northeast Regional Office, Gloucester, MA, USA
- Bertness MD, Ellison AM (1987) Determinants of pattern in a New England salt marsh plant community. Ecol Monogr 57:129–147
- Bertness MD, Gough L, Shumway SW (1992) Salt tolerances and the distribution of fugitive salt marsh plants. Ecology 73:1842–1851
- Bigelow SW, Canham CD (2002) Community organization of tree species along soil gradients in a north-eastern USA forest. J Ecol 90:188–200

- Brewer JS, Grace JB (1990) Plant community structure in an oligohaline tidal marsh. *Vegetatio* 90:93–107
- Brewer JS, Levine JM, Bertness MD (1998) Interactive effects of elevation and burial with wrack on plant community structure in some Rhode Island salt marshes. *J Ecol* 86:125–136
- Bruno JF (2000) Facilitation of cobble beach plant communities through habitat modification by *Spartina alterniflora*. *Ecology* 81:1179–1192
- Bruno JF (2002) Causes of landscape-scale rarity in cobble beach plant communities. *Ecology* 83:2304–2314
- Carlsson R, Haeggstrom CA, Kraufvelin P (2008) The vascular plant flora of shell gravel deposits on the Åland Islands, SW Finland—community structure in relation to calcium. *Boreal Environ Res* 13:45–65
- Chapman VJ (1974) Salt marshes and salt deserts of the world. In: Reimold RJ, Queen WH (eds) *Ecology of halophytes*. Academic, New York, pp 3–19
- Coen L, Grizzle R (2007) The importance of habitat created by molluscan shellfish to managed species along the Atlantic Coast of the United States. In: Thomas J, Nygard J (eds) *Atlantic states marine fisheries commission habitat management series No. 8*. Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Washington, DC, USA, pp 1–108
- Coen LD, Luckenbach MW, Breitburg DL (1999) The role of oyster reefs as essential fish habitat: a review of current knowledge and some new perspectives. *Am Fish Soc Symp* 22:438–454
- Connell JH (1978) Diversity in tropical rain forests and coral reefs. *Science* 199:1302–1310
- Cook T, Folli M, Klinck J, Ford S, Miller J (1998) The relationship between increasing sea-surface temperature and the northward spread of *Perkinsus marinus* (Dermo) disease epizootics in oysters. *Estuar Coast Shelf Sci* 46:587–597
- Crooks JA (2002) Characterizing ecosystem-level consequences of biological invasions: the role of ecosystem engineers. *Oikos* 97:153–166
- Cuddington K, Hastings A (2004) Invasive engineers. *Ecol Model* 178:335–347
- de Souza JP, Araujo GM, Haridasan M (2007) Influence of soil fertility on the distribution of tree species in a deciduous forest in the Triângulo Mineiro region of Brazil. *Plant Ecol* 191:253–263
- Dittel A, Epifanio CE, Natunewicz C (1996) Predation on mud crab megalopae, *Panopeus herbstii* H. Milne Edwards: effect of habitat complexity, predator species and postlarval densities. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol* 198:191–202
- Drake BG (1989) Photosynthesis of salt marsh species. *Aquat Bot* 34:167–180
- Ellison AM (1987) Effects of competition, disturbance, and herbivory on *Salicornia europaea*. *Ecology* 68:576–586
- Etherington JR (1981) Limestone heaths in south-west Britain: their soils and the maintenance of their calcicole–calcifuge mixtures. *J Ecol* 69:277–294
- Gough L, Grace JB (1998) Herbivore effects on plant species density at varying productivity levels. *Ecology* 79:1586–1594
- Grabowski JH, Peterson CH (2007) Restoring oyster reefs to recover ecosystem services. In: Cuddington K, Byers JE, Wilson WG, Hastings A (eds) *Theoretical ecology series, vol 4*. Academic, Waltham, pp 281–298
- Gutiérrez J, Iribarne O (1999) Role of Holocene beds of the stout razor clam *Tagelus plebeius* in structuring present benthic communities. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 185:213–228
- Gutiérrez JL, Jones CG, Strayer DL, Iribarne OO (2003) Mollusks as ecosystem engineers: the role of shell production in aquatic habitats. *Oikos* 101:79–90
- Harding JM, Mann R (2001) Oyster reefs as fish habitat: opportunistic use of restored reefs by transient fishes. *J Shellfish Res* 20:951–959
- Hargis WJ Jr, Haven DS (1999) Chesapeake oyster reefs, their importance, destruction, and guidelines for restoring them. In: Luckenbach MW, Mann R, Wesson JA (eds) *Oyster reef habitat restoration: a synopsis, and a synthesis of approaches*. Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Gloucester Point, pp 329–358
- Hastings A et al (2007) Ecosystem engineering in space and time. *Ecol Lett* 10:153–164
- He Q, Cui BS, Cai YZ, Deng JF, Sun T, Yang ZF (2009) What confines an annual plant to two separate zones along coastal topographic gradients? *Hydrobiologia* 630:327–340
- Hessini K, Ghandour M, Albouchi A, Soltani A, Werner K, Abdelly C (2008) Biomass production, photosynthesis, and leaf water relations of *Spartina alterniflora* under moderate water stress. *J Plant Res* 121:311–318
- Hik DS, Jefferies RL, Sinclair ARE (1992) Foraging by geese, isostatic uplift and asymmetry in the development of salt marsh plant communities. *J Ecol* 80:395–406
- Huston MA (1994) *Biological diversity. The coexistence of species on changing landscapes*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Ingold A, Havill DC (1984) The influence of sulphide on the distribution of higher plants in salt marshes. *J Ecol* 72:1043–1054
- Jones CG, Lawton JH, Shachak M (1994) Organisms as ecosystem engineers. *Oikos* 69:373–386
- Jones CG, Lawton JH, Shachak M (1997) Positive and negative effects of organisms as physical ecosystem engineers. *Ecology* 78:1946–1957
- Jones CG, Gutierrez JL, Byers JE, Crooks JA, Lambrinos JG, Talley TS (2010) A framework for understanding physical ecosystem engineering by organisms. *Oikos* 119:1862–1869
- Krantz GE, Jordan SJ (1996) Management alternatives for protecting *Crassostrea virginica* fisheries in *Perkinsus marinus* enzootic and epizootic areas. *J Shellfish Res* 15:167–176
- Larsen PF (1985) The benthic macrofauna associated with the oyster reefs of the James River Estuary, Virginia, USA. *Int Rev Gesamten Hydrobiol Hydrogr* 70:797–814
- Lee CH, Lee DK, Ali MA, Kim PJ (2008) Effects of oyster shell on soil chemical and biological properties and cabbage productivity as a liming materials. *Waste Manag* 28:2702–2708
- Lehnert R, Allen D (2002) Nekton use of subtidal oyster shell habitat in a southeastern US estuary. *Estuaries* 25:1015–1024
- Lenihan HS (1999) Physical–biological coupling on oyster reefs: how habitat structure influences individual performance. *Ecol Monogr* 69:251–275
- Linhurst RA, Seneca ED (1981) Aeration, nitrogen and salinity as determinants of *Spartina alterniflora* Loisel. growth response. *Estuaries* 4:53–63
- MacArthur RH, MacArthur JW (1961) On bird species diversity. *Ecology* 42:594–598
- McDonald J (1982) Divergent life history patterns in the co-occurring intertidal crabs *Panopeus herbstii* and *Eurypanopeus depressus* (Crustacea: Brachyura: Xanthidae). *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 8:173–180
- Meade RH (1982) Sources, sinks, and storage of river sediment in the Atlantic drainage of the United States. *J Geol* 90:235–252
- Meyer DL (1994) Habitat partitioning between the xanthid crabs *Panopeus herbstii* and *Eurypanopeus depressus* on intertidal oyster reefs (*Crassostrea virginica*) in Southeastern North Carolina. *Estuaries* 17:674–679
- Meyer DL, Townsend EC, Thayer GW (1997) Stabilization and erosion control value of oyster cultch for intertidal marsh. *Restor Ecol* 5:93–99
- Milliman J, Pilkey O, Ross D (1972) Sediments of the continental margin off the eastern United States. *Geol Soc Am Bull* 83:1315–1334
- NCDENR (2001) North Carolina oyster fishery management plan. North Carolina Department of Environment and Natural Resources

- es, North Carolina Division of Marine Fisheries, Morehead City, NC, USA
- Pennings SC, Bertness MD (2001) Salt marsh communities. In: Bertness MD, Gaines SD, Hay ME (eds) Marine community ecology. Sinauer, Sunderland, pp 289–316
- Pennings SC, Callaway RM (1996) Impact of a parasitic plant on the structure and dynamics of salt marsh vegetation. *Ecology* 77:1410–1419
- Pennings SC, Moore DJ (2001) Zonation of shrubs in western Atlantic salt marshes. *Oecologia* 126:587–594
- Pennings SC, Richards CL (1998) Effects of wrack burial in salt-stressed habitats: *Batis maritima* in a southwest Atlantic salt marsh. *Ecography* 21:630–638
- Pennings SC, Grant MB, Bertness MD (2005) Plant zonation in low-latitude salt marshes: disentangling the roles of flooding, salinity and competition. *J Ecol* 93:159–167
- Pezeszki SR (1997) Photosynthesis and root growth in *Spartina alterniflora* in relation to root zone aeration. *Photosynthetica* 34:107–114
- Powell EN, Klinck JM (2007) Is oyster shell a sustainable estuarine resource? *J Shellfish Res* 26:181–194
- Powell EN, Ashton-Alcox KA, Kraeuter JN, Ford SE, Bushek D (2008) Long-term trends in oyster population dynamics in Delaware Bay: Regime shifts and response to disease. *J Shellfish Res* 27:729–755
- R Development Core Team (2010) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Version 2.12.0. Vienna, Austria
- Rothschild BJ, Ault JS, Goulletquer P, Heral M (1994) Decline of the Chesapeake Bay oyster populations: a century of habitat destruction and overfishing. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 111:29–39
- Saunders R (2002) The Fig Island Ring Complex (38CH42): coastal adaptation and the question of ring function in the Late Archaic. Report prepared for the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC, USA
- Szedlmayer ST, Howe JC (1997) Substrate preference in age-0 red snapper, *Lutjanus campechanus*. *Environ Biol Fishes* 50:203–207
- Tessier M, Gloaguen JC, Lefeuvre JC (2000) Factors affecting the population dynamics of *Suaeda maritima* at initial stages of development. *Plant Ecol* 147:193–203
- Tessier M, Gloaguen JC, Bouchard V (2002) The role of spatio-temporal heterogeneity in the establishment and maintenance of *Suaeda maritima* in salt marshes. *J Veg Sci* 13:115–122
- Thibodeau PM, Gardner LR, Reeves HW (1998) The role of groundwater flow in controlling the spatial distribution of soil salinity and rooted macrophytes in a southeastern salt marsh, USA. *Mangroves Salt Marshes* 2:1–13
- Thompson V, Worth J (2011) Dwellers by the sea: native American adaptations along the southern coasts of eastern North America. *J Archaeol Res* 19(1):51–101
- Tilman D (1982) Resource competition and community structure. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, USA
- USDA (2004) Soil survey laboratory methods manual. Version 4. United States Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service. Washington, DC, USA
- van de Koppel J, Altieri AH, Silliman BR, Bruno JF, Bertness MD (2006) Scale-dependent interactions and community structure on cobble beaches. *Ecol Lett* 9:45–50
- van Wesenbeeck BK, Crain CM, Altieri AH, Bertness MD (2007) Distinct habitat types arise along a continuous hydrodynamic stress gradient due to interplay of competition and facilitation. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 349:63–71
- Varty AK, Zedler JB (2008) How waterlogged microsites help an annual plant persist among salt marsh perennials. *Estuaries Coasts* 31:300–312
- Vivian-Smith G (1997) Microtopographic heterogeneity and floristic diversity in experimental wetland communities. *J Ecol* 85:71–82
- Walker DA, Bockheim JG, Chapin FS, Eugster W, Nelson FE, Ping CL (2001) Calcium-rich tundra, wildlife, and the “Mammoth Steppe”. *Quat Sci Rev* 20:149–163
- Watkinson AR, Davy AJ (1985) Population biology of salt marsh and sand dune annuals. *Plant Ecol* 62:487–497
- Whitaker JD et al (2004) An ecological characterization of coastal hammock islands in South Carolina. Ocean and Coastal Resources Management, South Carolina Department of Health and Environmental Control. Charleston, SC, USA
- Wiegert RG, Freeman BJ (1990) Tidal salt marshes of the southeast Atlantic coast: A community profile. US Fish and Wildlife Service Biological Report 85:1–80
- Woods H, Hargis WJ, Hershner CH, Mason P (2005) Disappearance of the natural emergent 3-dimensional oyster reef system of the James River, Virginia, 1871–1948. *J Shellfish Res* 24:139–142
- Wright JP, Jones CG (2006) The concept of organisms as ecosystem engineers ten years on: progress, limitations, and challenges. *Bio-science* 56:203–209