THE EFFECTS OF GRAZING BY LITTORINID
GASTROPODS ON THE STRUCTURE OF ALGAL
COMMUNITIES IN NEWFOUNDLAND TIDEPOOLS

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MARK D. HAWRYLUK







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A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

> Department of Biology Memorial University of Newfoundland September 1992

> > Revised September 1995

St. John's Newfoundland



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ISBN 0-612-13902-6



ABSTRACT

Grazing by the littorinid gastropods, Littorina littorea and L. saxaillis, significantly affected the structure of algal communities in 10 intertidal pools on the Avalon Peninsula of insular Newfoundland. Pools were sampled approximately monthly between February and November of 1987. Diversity of the algal communities was highest at intermediate levels of grazing and lowest when a given species of algae formed a monoculture in the absence of grazing. Diversity was also low in pools with very large grazer populations which overgrazed the macrophytes. The diversity was relatively stable in moderately and heavily grazed pools but fluctuated widely in lightly grazed pools.

The greatest effect that the grazers had on the algae was to increase the amount of bare substrate and calcareous algae by removing the filamentous and blade-forming algae. Littorina littorea and Littorina saxatilis prevented blade-forming algae from establishing by grazing settling propagates but only L. littorea was abie to significantly reduce the abundance of the adult thallus of filamentous algae which settled before the grazers became active in the spring.

The population of *L. saxatilis* increased to a peak in mid summer as individuals moved from nearby upper intertidal emergent substrata and offspring were produced in the pools. Large populations of *I. littorea* in two of the pools declined during the course of the study. The cause of this decline is not known.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Don Steele, and my supervisory committee, Dr. A. Whittick and Mr. R. Hooper for their support and encouragement throughout this study. Assistance with the field work was generously given by Jill Bugden, Jill Hambrook, and Suzanne Nurse. The Williams family of Bay Bulls and Mr. D. LeGrow graciously provided me access to my study sites across their land. I would also like to thank Dr. P. Schwinghamer whose comments greatly improved this thesis.

Financial support for this study came from NSERC grants awarded to Dr. Don Steele and from a Memorial University Graduate Student Fellowship.

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INTRODUCTION

Although little work has been published on community structure in the Newfoundland intertidal zone (Pittman 1974, Hooper 1981, Bolton 1983, Steele 1983, Hooper and Whittick 1984), a great deal of information has been accumulated concerning factors affecting the community structure of other temperate rocky shores. Invertebrate grazers have been shown to be of primary importance in determining the structure of benthic algal communities. The most important grazers in the western North Atlantic are sea urchins in the lower intertidal and subtidal (Lubchenco and Menge 1978, Chapman 1981) and gastropods, including limpets and littorinids, in the middle and upper intertidal zone (Menge 1975, Lubchenco 1978, Branch 1981).

Thorough reviews of marine plant-herbivore interactions have been done by Lubchenco and Gaines (1981) and Hawkins and Hartnoll (1983).

The focus of the present study is to determine the effects of littorinid gastropods on the algal community in tidepools on the east coast of Newfoundland. Although similar in many respects to benthic communities in New England tidepools, the tidepool communities in the present study experience lower water temperatures in higher energy environments which may cause some interesting differences. Lubchenco (1978) showed that grazing by Littorina littoree influenced algal diversity in New England tidepools. In the absence of grazers, a few species of fast growing ephemeral algae became very abundant at the expense of competitively inferior species, resulting

in a low diversity. On the other hand, overgrazing by large numbers of *L. littorea* removed most species and also resulted in a low diversity. In pools with intermediate numbers of grazers, competitive exclusion was prevented and diversity was high. Sze (1980) found similar results in high tidepools at the Isles of Shoals.

To a large extent, the effect that a grazer has on algal community structure is dependent on the food preferences of the herbivore. Food preference can be divided into two components: edibility and attractiveness (Watson and Norton 1985). Studies which measure feeding rates of herbivores on different species of algae examine the edibility aspect of feeding preference (for example, Barker and Chapman 1990, Imrie et al. 1989). Edibility is influenced by nutritional value and chemical and structural antiherbivore defenses such as polyphenols (in fucoids) and tough cell walls (in calcarcous algae). Lubchenco (1978) did the classic attractiveness experiment where two algal species were added to a tank of L. littorea and the number of periwinkles observed on each species was counted after a given time had elapsed. This type of experiment incorporates attractiveness of a given species of algae as a habitat as well as a potential food source. Attractiveness is influenced by algal morphology as well as the factors influencing edibility. It therefore makes sense to combine algae with similar morphological characteristics into groups to investigate the effects of grazing on them.

In the present study, the macroalgae were divided into 4 morphological groups: blade-forming, filamentous, encrusting and calcareous algae based on their gross morphology as it relates to resistance to grazing by littorinid gastropods. The bladeforming and filamentous algae were similar in that both groups were mostly comprised
of short lived (ephemeral) species. The high ratio of photosynthetic tissue to structural
tissue, high nutritive value and lack of chemical or structural defenses against
herbivory have been shown to make these species attractive to grazers (Littler and
Littler 1980, Hawkins and Hartnoll 1983) as demonstrated by Lubchenco (1978),
Steneck and Watling (1982), Watson and Norton (1985), and Imrie et al. (1989). The
filamentous algae were simply defined as those species with a non-corticated upright
filamentous thallus. Steneck and Watling (1982) demonstrated that the tacnioglossan
radula of Littorina is particularly well adapted to grazing filamentous algae. Many
species of algae pass through a grazer sensitive filamentous stage during early
development before taking on a more grazer resistant form (Steneck and Watling
1982).

The blade-forming algae are a more heterogeneous group comprised of ephemeral thin sheetlike or tubular forms (eg Monostroma grevillei and Scytosiphon lomentaria), corticated ephemerals (eg Chondaria flagellifonnis), and one upright perennial (Fucus distichus distichus). Most of the species in this group with the exception of Fucus are also highly or moderately preferred species of L. littorea (Lubchenco 1978).

In contrast, the calcareous and encrusting species have structural and/or chemical defenses which make them less susceptible to damage by grazing. In fact, many of these grazer resistant forms have been shown to benefit directly or indirectly from grazing. Clathromorphum circumscriptum requires moderate levels of grazing to prevent epiphytic fouling of the thallus (Steneck 1982). Encrusting algae dominate in protected beaches in New England where grazing by L. littorea removes all of the upright algae (Bertness et al. 1983). Both species of calcareous algae in the present study (Clathromorphum circumscriptum and Corallina officinalis) are tough red algae with calcium carbonate in the cell walls. C. circumscriptum was considered "calcareous" rather than "encrusting" due to the increased grazer resistance provided by the calcification of its cell walls. Steneck and Watling (1982) have shown that the radula of L. littorea is poorly designed for excavating calcareous algae since the teeth have not been chemically hardened as have the radular teeth of Notoacmaea testudinalis which preferentially grazes calcareous algae.

The encrusting algae in the present study were represented mostly by Hildenbrandia rubra and a brown crust. Since it was difficult to determine in the field if the latter was a valid species of Ralfsia or an encrusting phase of Scytosiphon lomentaria or Petalonia fascia, it will hereafter be referred to as "Ralfsia" (sensu Lubchenco and Cubit 1980). Small tightly packed cells throughout the thallus and antiherbivore chemical compounds make both encrusting species resistant to grazing (Bertness et al. 1983).

Scouring by pack ice in the late winter and early spring of 1987 removed almost all of the upright macrophytes from the tidepools surveyed in this study. Then, a lens of freshwater trapped under the pack ice killed most of the invertebrates in the intertidal zone except the littorinids which survived by tightly scaling their aperture with the operculum. These events provided me with an opportunity to study the effects of grazing by L. littorea and L. saxatilis on the recolonization of tidepools by macroalgae.

Tidepools of intermediate size in the middle to upper intertidal were chosen at 3 sites, to keep the physical differences between pools as small as possible. Low intertidal pools were impossible to sample frequently due to the small tidal amplitude (0.9 m (Anonymous 1987)) and relatively exposed locations of the study sites. To avoid the theoretical and practical problems of caged manipulations (see Hawkins and Hartnoll 1983), pools were selected which varied in the numbers of Littorina littorea, the major grazer on rocky shores of the Northwest Atlantic (Menge 1975).

Based on the observations of grazer algal interactions in a functional form framework, the following hypotheses were tested:

- The abundance of blade-forming and filamentous algae will be inversely related to grazing pressure.
- The abundance of encrusting and calcareous algae will be directly related to grazing pressure.
- Diversity will be highest in moderately grazed pools and lower in heavily and lightly grazed pools.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Site Descriptions

The study sites are all located on the coast of the Avalon Peninsula, Newfoundland, Canada in the Western North Atlantie. They are in areas of sloping bedrock which drops off into 10 to 20 m of water just past the low water mark. This type of habitat provided a sufficient number of suitable tidepools. The three study sites were at Bauline (47° 44' N 52° 50'W) and Portugal Cove (47° 38' N 52° 52' W) in Conception Bay and Bay Bulls (47° 18' N 52° 47' W) on the east coast (Figure 1.).

Pools were selected on the basis of accessibility, relative position in the littoral zone, size, and floral and faunal community (Table 1). Accessibility was of obvious importance since the pools would be sampled monthly from spring until fall. The pools were located in the mid to upper intertidal zone; extreme upper and lower intertidal pools were not studied. Pools of intermediate size were selected since these were the most common and had the best developed algal communities. Small pools (< 0.75 m in length) were susceptible to large salinity changes due to evaporation and rainfall, and to large temperature fluctuations. Large pools (> 5 m in length) were too rare to be included. All tidepools at the three study sites within this size and littoral range were included in the study.

Bauline

Bauline is the most exposed site, with a northwest aspect. The shore is open, backed by high, steep cliffs with a more gently sloping area extending to Mean Low

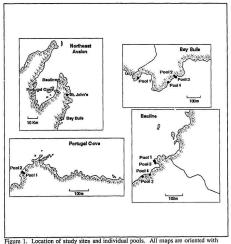


Figure 1. Location of study sites and individual pools. All maps are oriented with true North at the top of the page.

Table 1. Physical characteristics of individual tidepools.1

						Tidep	looo			
	Light				Moderate				Heavy	
	BB3	BB4	PC1	BB2	PC2	BA2	BA4	BA3	BB1	BA1
Max. length (m)	2.0	1.5	3.1	1.4	1.3	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.7	4.9
Max. width (m)	0.7	0.9	1.6	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.6	1.2	3.3
Max. depth (cm)	18	27	20	15	17	11	36	24	23	24
Height (m) above M.L.W.	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.4	0.9	0.9	1.6	1.3	1.2
Max. temperature (°C)	15	15	20	24	25	25	22	20	19	27

Pools in order of increasing grazing intensity.

Water (MLW) and then dropping rapidly to ~20 m depth. Four pools varying in exposure to wave action were sampled at this site; Pool 1 (BA1) and Pool 2 (BA2) are more exposed, Pool 3 (BA3) and Pool 4 (BA4) are less exposed.

Bauline Pool 1 is the largest pool. A 2 m high wall on its southeast side shades about half of the pool for most of the morning. Pool 3 is smaller, located in a 1 m depression in the bedrock. Its recessed position provides more protection than it would otherwise have. Pool 4 is located in a small cove in the coastline, and is protected by a few large boulders. Bauline Pool 5 is located in a very exposed position on the sloping bedrock and is exposed to insolation for most of the day. All of these pools were regularly inundated by swells during sampling at low tide.

Bay Bulls

The Bay Bulls site has more varied topography than the Bauline site. Overall, it is a slightly less exposed site, having a south aspect, but the range of exposure among the four pools is much greater than at Bauline. The least exposed pool in Bay Bulls, Pool 1 (BB1) is situated in a cove within the bay and is protected by a small spit of bedrock directly seaward of the pool. The other 3 pools are located on a more exposed shore made up of alternating surge channels and spits of bedrock outside of the cove. There are also many large boulders on this gently sloping shore. Pool 2 (BB2) is the least exposed of the outer pools being located at the head of one of the surge channels and protected by a large boulder. Pool 4 (BB4) is the next most exposed located near the mouth of a protected surse channel. The most exposed pool.

Pool 3 (BB3), is located at the end of one of the spits between the surge channels. It was regularly inundated by swells at low tide and therefore often difficult to sample. Pools I and 2 were the only pools that were not often suddenly and unpredictably inundated by waves at low tide.

Portugal Cove

The west facing Portugal Cove shoreline is the least exposed of all the sites.

The two pools were rarely inundated by swells during sampling visits at low tide.

Steep cliffs drop down to an irregular bedrock shoreline providing variable degrees of protection to tidepools in the area. Both Pool 1 (PC1) and Pool 2 (PC2) are located in protected areas of the shoreline. The cliffs behind these pools also shade them from direct insolation for most of the morning. Pool 1 periodically experienced some terrestrial runoff resulting in a thin low salinity layer on the pool surface.

Sampling Techniques

A flexible sheet of clear plastic, 0.25 x 0.25 m, similar to the one used by Menge (1976), was used as a quadrat to sample the algal and grazer communities in the tidepools. The quadrat was weighted with lead sinkers to prevent it from floating and to minimize its movement during sampling. 100 white dots were placed on the quadrat in a stratified random manner to prevent potential excessive clumping which could occur with a completely random scheme. To determine the placement of the dots, a piece of graph paper cut to 0.25 x 0.25 m was divided into 4 even squares. 25

pairs of coordinates were selected from a table of random numbers to represent the coordinates of the dots in each of the four squares. After all 100 points were selected, the quadrat was placed over the graph paper and a white dot was marked on the quadrat at each point.

The quadrat was randomly placed in the pool and the species of algae under each dot was recorded. Identification and classification of the macrophytes follows

South and Hooper (1980). Algae were then placed in one of the morphological groups: blade-forming, filamentous, calcareous, and encrusting (Table 2). Individuals of each species of mobile grazer or sessile invertebrate within the quadrat were then counted and recorded. This process was repeated for a total of 5 quadrats in each pool on each sampling date. Pools were sampled at low tide as close to monthly as possible considering time of tides and weather. A swell of 1.5 to 2.0 m in this area with a mean tidal range of 0.9 m (Anonymous, 1987) was not uncommon, and often impeded sampling. Water and air temperature were recorded using a mercury thermometer each time the pools were sampled. Salinity was measured in the field on some sample dates using a Y.S.I. salinity meter. Tidal height was measured relative to a point of known height on the shore using an inclinometer on a tripod.

The current taxonomic status of Littorina saxatilis is in question. On the shores of north western Europe, four species are currently recognized in the L. saxatilis species complex (Hill and Grahame 1990). Gilkinson and Methven (1991) have described the biology of a subtidal population of L. saxatilis form saxatilis in Trinity

Table 2. Species of macrophytic algae in each morphological group.

Blade Forming Algae	Filamentous Algae	Calcareous Algae	Encrusting Algae
Alaria esculenta	Acrosiphonia arcta	Clathromorphum circumscriptum	Green crust
Ascophyllum nodosum	Ceramium rubrum	Corallina officinalis	Hildenbrandia rubra
Chondrus crispus	Chaetomorpha linum		Ralfsia fungiformis
Chordaria flagelliformis	Cladophora sericea		"Ralfsia"
Devalaria ramentaceum	Fragellaria		
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus	Pilayella littoralis		
Enteromorpha intestinalis	Polysiphonia urceolata		
Fucus distichus distichus	Sphacelaria plumosa		
Fucus spiralis Fucus vesiculosus	Tute dwelling diatom		
Leathesia difformis			
Monostroma grevillei			
Monostroma undulatum			
Palmaria palmata			
Petalonia fascia			
Petalonia zosterfolia			
Porhyra umbilicalis			
Sacchoriza dermatodea			
Scytosiphon lomentaria			

Bay, Newfoundland. Throughout the rest of this thesis, Littorina saxatilis will be used to describe the rough periwinkle found in the intertidal zone, with the complete understanding that the taxonomic status may be changed in the future.

Similarly, the taxonomic status of *Notocernaea testudinalis* is also in question.

This designation has been chosen for the present study to be consistent with other works from the east coast of North America (ex. Petraitis 1989).

Statistical Analysis

A grazing index was devised as a measure of grazing intensity. Yamada and Mansour (1987) have shown that L. littorea and L. saxatilis of the same size have the same ability to reduce algal standing crop. In the present study, the ratio of L. saxatilis wet weight to L. littorea wet weight was 0.083 (171 L. littorea and 172 L. saxatilis sampled at BB1 and BA1 representing the full size range for each species). Therefore, the grazing index was calculated as.

$$GI_P = n_{L1} + (0.083 n_{Ls})$$

where Gl_p is the grazing index for pool P, n_{tl} is the mean number of L. littorea, and n_{ts} is the mean number of L. saxatilis in pool P.

The pools were divided into three grazing intensity levels based on the mean value of the grazing index over all quadrats sampted in each pool: light, moderate, and heavy grazing. Table 3 clearly shows the differences in grazer abundance between intensity levels. In the lightly grazed pools, few if any L. littorea were present and numbers of L. saxailis were low. In the moderately grazed pools, numbers of L.

Table 3. Mean grazing index and number of grazers per $m^2 \pm 1$ SD grouped by grazing intensity.

Pool	Grazing Index	Number of Littorina littorea (per m²)	Number of Littorina saxatilis (per m²)		
Light					
BB3	0.020	0.0 ± 0.0	3.8 ± 10.6		
BB4	0.266	0.0 ± 0.0	51.2 ± 41.4		
PC1	0.415	0.0 ± 0.0	80.0 ± 93.2		
BB2	0.914	2.1 ± 5.5	158.9 ± 104.6		
Moder	ate				
PC2	1.668	0.0 ± 0.0	321.6 ± 231.3		
BA2	2.015	0.6 ± 3.2	410.2 ± 279.5		
BA4	2.259	20.5 ± 25.9	190.7 ± 157.4		
BA3	4.246	39.5 ± 31.7	342.9 ± 279.7		
Heavy					
BB1	15.259	360.4 ± 466.5	159.2 ± 167.1		
BA1	15,307	330.1 ± 251.8	208.0 ± 210.2		

littorea were low in two of the pools but slightly higher in the other two pools.

However, numbers of L. saxatilis were high. In the heavily grazed pools, numbers of L. littorea were high and number of L. saxatilis were moderate (i.e. lower than in the moderately grazed pools but higher than in the lightly grazed pools).

To determine the significance of differences in the abundance of algae in the 4 morphological groups and of bare rock between grazing intensity levels, one way analysis of variance was used on individual morphological groups. If a significant overall grazing effect was found at the 0.05 probability level, a Scheffe's test was used to determine which levels of grazing were significantly different from each other. Percent cover data were arcsine transformed before statistical analyses were performed (Sokal and Rohlf 1969). All figures show untransformed data.

The Shannon-Wiener index of diversity, H', was calculated using a macro in MINITAB. The formula for the index is,

$$H' = -\sum p_i \log_2 p_i$$

where p_i is the proportion of the community belonging to the ith species (Shannon and Weaver, 1949).

All statistical analyses were performed using MINITAB and SPSS' on the Digital VAX mainframe computer at Memorial University of Newfoundland.

RESULTS

The Grazer Community

The grazer communities in the tidepools were dominated by Littorina littorea and Littorina saxatilis but a number of other grazers were also present at various times during the study. Gammarid amphipods occurred in small numbers in all pools except Bay Bulls Pool 1 and Portugal Cove Pool 2. The amphipods only reached large numbers in Bay Bulls pools 3 and 4 in October among Chordaria flagellifornis. Early in the year, Notoacmaea testudinalis was present in low numbers in Bay Bulls Pools 1 and 2 and Bauline Pools 1 and 4 and Strongylocentrotus direbachiensis was present in low numbers in Bauline Pools 1 and 4. These species were both killed by the freshwater runoff and did not return to the pools during the course of the study.

Locuna vincta was sporadically present in low numbers (< 5 m⁻²) throughout the study period in Bauline ar-4 Bay Bulls pools but was absent from the Portugal Cove pools. However, a fall recruitment resulted in large numbers of tiny L. vincta in Bauline Pool 2 (9818 m⁻²) and Pool 3 (5453 m⁻³). No sampling was done after the settlement of L. vincta, so their effects on the algal community could not be determined and they are therefore excluded from the grazer index, Littorina obtusata was observed on at least 1 occasion in all pools except Portugal Cove Pool 1 but was only abundant in Bay Bulls Pool 2 (49.6 m⁻²) and Bauline Pool 4 (26.2 m⁻²). Both of these pools had a healthy growth of fueoid algae, the preferred habitat of L. obtusata (Steneck and Watline 1982, Hawkins and Hartnoll 1983).

Littorina littorea and Littorina satatilis were the most abundant grazers with mean values over all quadrats of 97 and 193 individuals per m^2 respectively. L. littorea was only abundant in Bay Bulls Pool 1 and Bauline Pool 1 but in these two pools, it had an average abundance of 360 m^{-2} and 330 m^2 respectively. The numbers of L. littorea declined steadily through the study period (Fig. 2). The reason for this decline is unclear since predators of L. littorea were rarely seen in the tidepools. L. littorea did not become active until the water temperature in the pools climbed above 5° C at the end of April. Before this time, they were observed to be clumped together in cracks and crevices in an inactive state.

Littorina saxatilis was observed in all pools and was abundant ($> 150 \text{ m}^{-2}$) in all but 3 pools. It was by far the most abundant grazer in the moderately grazed pools, but was less abundant in the heavily grazed pools where L littorea was abundant (Table 3). During the spring and early summer, L. saxatilis migrated from its overwintering cracks and crevices in the upper intertidal, to the pools. Then in the fall, the rough winkles migrated out of the pools again (Fig. 2).

Patterns of Algal Abundance

Blade-forming Algae

The mean abundance of blade-forming algae was significantly lower in the moderately and heavily grazed pools than in the lightly grazed pools (Table 4, Fig. 3).
There was, however, no significant difference in abundance of blade-forming algae between moderately and heavily grazed pools (p<0.05, Scheffe Test).

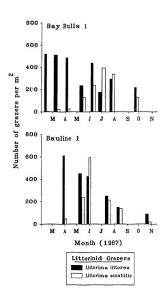


Figure 2. Mean abundance of littorinids on each sampling date at Bay Bulls Pool 1 and Bauline Pool 1.

Table 4. Analysis of variance of % cover of mophological groups and bare rock between levels of grazing intensity.

Blade Forming Alga	ie .					Grazing Intensity			
		Sum of	Mean	F	Prob.	Light	Moderate	Heavy	
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio					
Between Groups	2	9.2978	4.6489	47.496	< 0.0001	47.57	13.42	17.75	
Within Groups	264	25.8401	0.0979						
Total	266	35.1379							
Filamentous Algae						C	razing Inter	sity	
-		Sum of	Mean	F	Prob.	Light	Moderate	Heavy	
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio					
Between Groups	2	2.7338	1.3669	18.099	< 0.0001	31.58	26.115	7.736	
Within Groups	264	19.9378	0.0755						
Total	266	22.6716							
Encrusting Algae						C	razing Inter	sity	
		Sum of	Mean	F	Prob.	Light	Moderate	Heavy	
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio					
Between Groups	2	0.4594	0.2297	15.54.5	< 0.0001	7.195	13.73	17.03	
Within Groups	267	3.9456	0.0148			998			
Total	269	4.4051							
Calcareous Algae						C	razing Inter	sity	
		Sum of	Mean	F	Prob.	Light	Moderate	Heavy	
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio					
Between Groups	2	1.5805	0.7903	33.503	< 0.0001	12.55	24,765	30.2	
Within Groups	267	6.2980	0.0236						
Total	269	7.8785							
Bare Rock						C	razing Inter	sity	
		Sum of	Mean	F	Prob.	Light	Moderate	Heavy	
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio		500			
Between Groups	2	2,6926	1.3463	33.628	< 0.0001	10.25	27.46	31.81	
Within Groups	267	10.6984	0.0400			2000000	100000	7750	
Total	269	13.3821							

Values for morphological groups at the 3 grazing intensity levels are untransformed means. Underlined values are not significantly different at the 0.05 probability level using Scheffe's test.

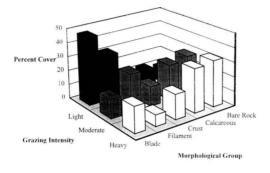


Figure 3. Mean abundance of algae in each morphological group and bare rock at each grazing intensity level over the entire study period.

In the lightly grazed pools, the abundance of blade-forming algae was high in March, then dropped precipitously to May, climbed to October and then dropped again to November (Fig. 4). The spring peak was caused by Fucus distichus distichus in Bay Bulls Pool 2 (the only lightly grazed pool sampled in March) where the protected, inland location of the pool prevented removal of the perennial by ice scouring up to this time. However, a few days after the pool was sampled in March, a large chunk of ice (~2 m in diameter) was observed in the pool. Movement of this ice chunk at high tide resulted in a decrease in abundance of Fucus distichus distichus from 84 % cover in March to 37 % cover in April. The increase in abundance of blade-forming algae to October (Fig. 4) was caused by a slight increase in Fucus distichus distichus in Bay Bulls Pool 2 due to growth of mature plants and regeneration from holdfasts, and a dramatic rise in Chordaria flagelliformis to 85 % cover in Bay Bulls Pools 3 and 4. The decrease in abundance of blade-forming algae from October to November in the lightly grazed pools was a sampling artifact. Only Portugal Cove Pool 1 and Bay Bulls Pool 2 were sampled in December. These pools both had low abundances of Chordaria flagelliformis throughout the study.

In the moderately grazed pools, the blade-forming algae climbed gradually to a peak in July and then declined slightly (Fig. 4). Monostroma grevillei declined after L. littorea became active and L. saxatilis became abundant. F. distichus distichus increased slightly through the study period. The peak abundance of blade-forming algae, in July, was due to Scytosiphon lomentaria in Bauline Pool 2 (41 % cover).

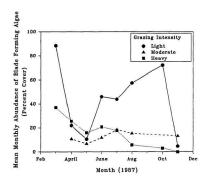


Figure 4. Mean abundance of blade forming algae at each grazing intensity level per month.

C. flagelliformis was not observed in any of the moderately grazed pools in spite of ample bare substrate on which to settle and a healthy parent population in the adjacent middle intertidal zone.

In the heavily grazed pools, blade-forming algae decreased from March to November (Fig. 4). Monostroma grevillei was responsible for the high abundance of blade-forming algae in the spring. The high abundance of Monostroma grevillei was unexpected since it is a preferred food of L. littorea (Lubchenco 1978). However, M. grevillei grew early in the year reaching peak abundance in March while L. littorea was still dormant and L. saxatilis numbers were low. M. grevillei declined rapidly once the littorinids began actively grazing and was not seen after May in either pool. C. flagelliformis did not appear in either of the heavily grazed pools despite the presence of ample bare substrate on which to settle and the abundance of parent plants in the adjacent middle intertidal zone.

Filamentous Algae

The abundance of filamentous algae was significantly lower in the heavily grazed pools than in the moderately and lightly grazed pools (p<0.05, Scheffe Test). There was no significant difference between the mean abundance of filamentous algae in the lightly and moderately grazed pools (Table 4, Fig. 3).

In the lightly and moderately grazed pools, the abundance of filamentous algae increased to a peak in summer and then declined in late summer and increased again in November (Fig. 5). The second peak was due entirely to Cladophora serecia in the lightly grazed Portugal Cove Pool 1 (45 % cover) and the moderately grazed Portugal Cove Pool 2 (44 % cover). The peak in May for the lightly grazed pools in Fig. 5 is due to the high abundar '~ (68 % cover) of Acrosiphonia arcta in Portugal Cove Pool 1, the only lightly grazed pool sampled in May.

A. arcta was abundant during the summer (peak abundance > 30 % cover) in all of the lightly and moderately grazed pools with the exception of Bay Bulls Pool 2 (maximum 20 % cover) and Bauline Pool 2 (maximum 6 % cover). In all of these pools, it was present when the pool was first sampled in the spring and persisted at least until August (October in Bay Bulls Pool 3).

In the heavily grazed pools, the filamentous algae peaked earlier and at lower abundance than in the lightly and moderately grazed pools and then declined (Fig. 5).

A. arcta did not become abundant during the summer. In Bay Bulls Pool 1, it increased to a peak of 26% cover in May, dropped after L. littorea became active and numbers of L. saxailis increased but persisted in the pool until August (9% cover). In Bauline Pool 1, A. arcta climbed to a maximum abundance of 6% cover in June and was not : and in the pool after that date.

Encrusting Algae

There was significantly less encrusting algae in the livintly grazed pools than in the moderately and heavily grazed pools (p<0.05, Scheffe Test). There was no

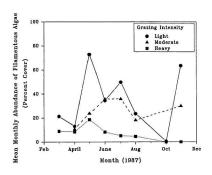


Figure 5. Mean abundance of filamentous algae at each grazing intensity level per month.

significant difference between the mean abundance of encrusting algae in the moderately and heavily grazed pools (Table 4, Fig. 3).

In the lightly grazed pools, the abundance of encrusting algae was lowest during the summer months when the ephemeral blade-forming and filamentous algae were most abundant (Fig. 6). In the moderately grazed pools, the encrusting algae, as a group, increased in abundance during the spring and then maintained a steady level throughout the study period (Fig 6). "Ralfsia" increased throughout the study in the moderately grazed pools. Bauline Pool 2 showed a peak in abundance of 42% cover in June, by far the highest level observed in the study. In the most heavily grazed pool, the encrusting algae decreased from March to April, increased until September and then declined to November (Fig. 6). A green crust in Bay Bulls Pool 1 was responsible for the high abundance of encrusting algae in the spring. In the most heavily grazed pool, Bauline Pool 1, H. rubra gradually increased in abundance from 10% cover in April to 22% cover in November demonstrating that it can survive from spring until late fall and that it is not negatively affected by intense littorinid grazing. In Bay Bulls Pool 1, H. rubra was absent until June. In all of the other pools where it occurred, H. nubra was observed on the first sampling date. This allowed vegetative spreading to increase abundance rather than new planktonic settlement as occurred in Bay Bulls Pool 1. Therefore, it is not surprising that the maximum abundance in Bay Bulls Pool I was only 6% cover in October.

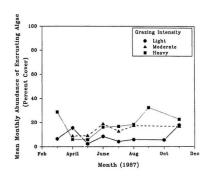


Figure 6. Mean abundance of encrusting algae at each grazing intensity level per month.

The two heavily grazed pools had different abundance patterns for "Ralfsia". It first occurred in Bay Bulls Pool 1 in June at 13% cover and increased to 26% cover in October. The timing of the late occurrence of "Ralfsia" just as Scytosiphon lomentaria was decreasing in abundance supports the hypothesis that these two species are alternate stages in the life cycle of the same plant (Lubchenco and Cubit 1980). "Ralfsia" first occurred in Bauline Pool 1 in May with 2% cover, then increased to 3% cover in June and then disappeared.

Calcareous algae

The abundance of calcareous algae was significantly different at all 3 levels of grazing and increased with increased grazing pressure (p<0.05, Scheffe Test) (Table 4, Fig. 3). In Bauline Pool 1, Condlina officinalis increased from 2% cover in April to 14% cover in November. In contrast, C. officinalis went from 13% cover in April down to a low of 0.1% cover in July when the ephemeral A. arxia and C. flagelliformis were abundant in Bay Bulls Pool 3. Pools with intermediate levels of grazing showed intermediate patterns of abundance for C. officinalis.

Clalimonophum circumscriptum was more abundant than C. officinalis and had different mean abundances between the three grazing intensity levels (Table 4). In Bay Bulls Pool 3 and 4, it was abundant initially and then declined as the ephemerals became more abundant. In Portugal Cove Pool 1 and Bay Bulls Pool 2, the abundance

of C. circumscriptum was low throughout the study. It had a higher abundance in the moderately grazed pools and remained relatively steady throughout the study period.

C. circumscriptum was most abundant in the heavily grazed pools (Fig. 7). In

Bay Bulls Pool 1, its abundance stayed relatively constant at 23% cover throughout the

study. In Bauline Pool 1, its abundance increased from 12% cover in April to a

maximum of 32% cover in July and then declined to 17% cover in November.

Rom Rock

In lightly grazed pools, there was significantly less bare rock than in moderately and heavily grazed pools (p<0.05, Scheffe Test) (Table 4, Fig. 3).

In the absence of grazing (only 6 L. saxatilis and no L. littorea observed during the entire study period) in Bay Bulls pool 3, the large amount of bare rock observed in April (31% cover) was reduced to 0.4% cover in July once Acrosiphonia arcta and Chordaria flagelliformis settled. In the other lightly grazed pools, the amount of bare rock remained low throughout the study with the exception of Bay Bulls Pool 2 where bare rock was 20% cover throughout the study.

The moderately grazed pools had larger amounts of bare rock. These levels remained relatively constant through the study period with a dip in mid summer in all pools. This dip reflected the peaks in abundance of the ephemeral blade-forming and filamentous algae.

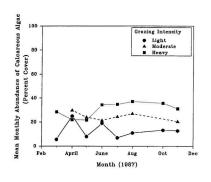


Figure 7. Mean abundance of calcareous algae at each grazing intensity level per month.

A slightly higher mean amount of bare substrate was observed in the heavily grazed pools due to the large amount of bare rock present in Bauline pool 1. The amount of bare rock ranged from 55% cover in May to 39% cover in July in this pool. In Bay Bulls Pool 1, the mean amount of bare rock was lower (21% cover) due mainly to higher levels of A. arcta and Scytosiphon lomentaria. Even so, the amount of bare rock peaked at 33% cover in July.

Effects of Littorinid Grazers on Species Diversity

The Shannon-Wiener diversity index in tidepools was greatly influenced by the grazing activity of L. littorea and L. saxaiilis. In moderately and heavily grazed pools, the diversity remained fairly consistent over the entire study period (1.59 \pm 0.25 sd and 1.36 \pm 0.28 sd respectively). In contrast, pools with low grazer populations had a lower diversity with large seasonal fluctuations (1.22 \pm 0.49 sd). The pools with the greatest fluctuations were Portugal Cove Pool 1, Bay Bulls Pool 4 and Bay Bulls Pool 3 (Figure 8.). In all of these pools, one species or assemblage obtained a maximum abundance of 85% cover or greater (A. arcta/C. linum in Portugal Cove Pool 1 and C. flagellifomiis/D. foeniculaceus in Bay Bulls Pool 3 and 4). In all cases, diversity decreased until the dominant assemblage reached its maximum abundance.

In Bay Bulls Pool 2, Fucus distichus distichus dominated for most of the sample period. However, it only reached a peak abundance of 53% cover except for the period in March before the pool was scoured by ice. This level of dominance by

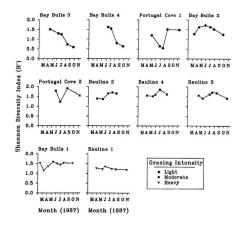


Figure 8. Shannon Diversity Index (H') on each sampling visit for each tidepool.

one species was not high enough to exclude many other species. Also, the ice scouring left patches of bare substrate which were utilized by ephemerals.

In the moderately grazed pools, no single species ever dominated, therefore diversity was higher throughout the season than in lightly grazed pools. In the most heavily grazed pools, diversity was lower than in moderately grazed pools. Species such as Chordaria flagelliformis were prevented from settling and other species such as Acrosiphonia arcta were removed earlier by the grazing littorinids.

As observed by Lubchenco (1978), the greatest diversity occurred at intermediate levels of grazing intensity. In the present study, the lowest diversity was seen in the lightly grazed pools at times when they were dominated by 2 species (Portugal Cove Pool 1, Bay Bulls Pool 3 and Bay Bulls Pool 4). Diversity was highest in pools where dominance by a single species was prevented by grazing but grazing was not so severe as to totally eliminate many species. Most of the algal species present were ephemerals which have been shown by Lubchenco (1978) to be preferred foods of L. littorea.

Physical Characteristics of Tidepools

One might reasonably assume that some of the biotic differences described above might be due to differences in physical characteristics of the tidepools such as distance above MLW or pool size. However, although physical characteristics varied between individual tidepools (Table 1), there were no significant differences between levels of grazing intensity (ANOVA p>0.05).

DISCUSSION

In New England, grazing pressure, defined as the probability that an individual algawill be removed by herbivory during a given time period (Lubchenco and Cubit 1980). exerted by Littorina littorea is maximal during the summer and minimal in the winter. The winter minimum may be caused by a decrease in numbers due to predstion, cold temperature mortality or emigration (Menge 1972, Dethier 1982, Gardner and Thomas 1987), or factors decreasing foraging efficiency. In the present study, L. littorea became active in April when the daytime temperature in the pools reached 5°C. During the winter, the snails congregated in an inactive state in crevices and depressions in the pools. The littorinids continued to actively graze through the summer and fall until November when temperatures declined to 5°C and foraging activity ceased. Menge (1975) described a decrease in grazing activity due to storm generated wave action in the winter. Williams (1964) noted a marked reduction in the growth rate of L. littorea during the winter in Wales. This was due to a reduction in the number of feeding excursions caused by lethargy brought on by cold sea temperatures (~8°C). Newell (1958) described a complete cessation of activity at temperatures below 8°C.

Since the number of common periwinkles decreased throughout the year with no peak in numbers in summer and since very few small *L. littorea* were seen, a failure in recruitment from the plankton in the spring and summer seems likely (Hayes 1929). Recruitment from the plankton is patchy and irregular for many species (Dethier 1984). Since spat settle in the subtidal or low intertidal zone, and later migrate up into the middle intertidal zone (Lambert and Farley 1968, Gardner and Thomas 1987), spring ice scouring may decrease recruitment by killing the snails directly or through starvation by removing the macrophytes. This does not however explain the gradual decrease in numbers during the study. Unexplained changes in population size and growth rate between climatically similar years have been observed by others (Williams 1964) and may be the result of normal yearly fluctuations of populations occupying the harsh and variable intertidal zone.

In the spring, Littorina saxatilis migrated from cracks and crevices in emergent substrata, into the pools to feed and reproduce. The maximum summer population size varied between pools and between sites depending, primarily, on the pool's proximity to a large population of L. saxatilis on emergent substrata in the upper intertidal zone. Recruitment of small L. saxatilis in early and mid summer added to the peak population size. The decline in the L. saxatilis population after midsummer, was likely caused by mortality and/or emigration.

Although few sea stars were observed at the study sites, other predators including sea gulls, cunners (Tautogalabrus adspersus), and sticklebacks (Gasterosteus acuteatus) were observed on occasion in some of the pools. Blue mussels, sea urchins and crabs, not gastropods, made up most of the debris found at gull anvils in the vicinity of the study sites suggesting that littorinids were not a preferred prey item.

Gastropods have been found in the cut of T. adspersus, but they only made us a small

proportion of the total gut contents (Chao 1973, Ollia et al. 1975). Sticklebacks may have eaten some of the smallest littorinids in the 2 pools (PC 1 and BB 1) in which they occurred but is unlikely to be a source of mortality in most pools. In the most heavily grazed pools, starvation may have resulted in the death of some rough periwinkles as described for limpets in Oregon (Cubit 1984). This, migration out of the pools into the cracks and crevices of the surrounding shore where L. savatilis overwinters seems the most probable cause of its fall decline in the pools.

The differences in the distribution of the two littorinids between sites and pools (L. saxatilis in all pools and L. littorea in only two pools) is due in part to differences in larval development. Planktonic development in L. littorea takes about four weeks (Fretter and Graham 1980), and dispersal by currents can result in too few larvae settling in a given area to maintain a breeding population. On the other hand, the larvae of L. saxatilis are broaded internally and hatch as post-metamorphic juveniles (Fretter and Graham 1980). If one or more gravid L. saxatilis are carried to a new area via rafting on floating macroalgae, for example, the likelihood of establishing a breeding population is much greater. Johannesson (1988) showed that the presence of L. saxatilis and the absence of L. littorea in a number of isolated locations from South Africa to Greenland was due to the different modes of larval development. Similar mechanisms likely explain the ubiquitous distribution of Littorina saxatilis and the patchy distribution of L. littorea on the east coast of Newfoundland.

The population size of littorinid grazers exerts a major structuring influence on the algal communities of these tidepools. In heavily grazed pools, encrusting and calcareous species dominate. Lubchenco and Cubit (1980) suggest that the primary adaptive value of crustose algae is their ability to persist through time while upright algae are being removed by grazers. The calcareous species, Clathromorphum circumscriptum and Corallina officinalis dominated in the heavily grazed pools in the current study. Littler and Littler (1980) have demonstrated that low calorific value and toughness due to high levels of CaCO₃ decrease the susceptibility of calcareous macrophytes to grazers. The removal of the upright algae by grazing offsets the lower growth rate of the encrusting and calcareous forms (Littler and Arnold 1982) thereby decreasing competition for primary space.

Upright ephemeral algae dominated in less intensely grazed pools. The filamentous or sheetlike thallus, lack of metabolic burden of producing chemical or structural defenses, and limited attachment points allowed a high ratio of photosynthetic area per unit biomass (Lubchenco and Cubit 1980). Therefore, these species could grow faster and compete for space more efficiently than the encrusting and calcarrous algae.

Chonlaria flagelliform is an ephemeral species which is common in environmentally harsh, physically disturbed areas. It is a major component of the successional community following ice scouring on the north western Atlantic coast (Hooper 1981, Lobban and Hanic 1984, Munda 1992). The ability of C. flagelliform is to take up nitrogen when nutrient concentrations in the water are very low during the summer allows it to prosper and grow (Probyn and Chapman 1983) when the growth of many other species of macrophytes and phytoplankton is severely depressed (Platt 1971, Chapman and Craigie 1977). Despite ample lower emergent intertidal populations at all three sites, C. flagelliformis only became abundant in the two least intensely grazed pools. In both cases, it was first observed in June when grazing pressure in the other pools was reaching its peak. It is likely that in pools with larger grazer populations, some germlings of C. flagelliformis (lower in herbivore defense chemicals than adults (Geiselman 1980)) were eaten by the littorinids. Geiselman (1980), Watson and Norton (1985), and Lubchence (1983) have shown how littorinid grazers have dislodged juvenile macrophytes while they were searching for other types of food.

With one exception (Bay Bulls Pool 2), the perennial Fiscus distichus distichus was rare in the tidepools surveyed. Scouring by pack ice and storm generated waves removed most of the adult plants during the winter. In all cases where the abundance of F. distichus distichus increased during the study, young plants regrew from the remaining holdfasts which survived the winter. No newly settled juveniles were observed. This is most likely explained by the propensity of L. littorea to dislodge juvenile fucoids while crawling across the substratum (Geiselman 1980, Watson and Norton 1985). However, in Bay Bulls Pool 2, protected by the topography of the surrounding shore, the established canopy of F. distichus distichus dominated.

Although adult F. distichus distichus thalli did not suffer any obvious negative effects of grazing, no new sporelings settled in this pool during the study period suggesting physical disturbance by littorinids.

F. distichus distichus was completely absent from the heavity grazed pools. Although adult Fucus sp. have a low grazing preference rating, L. littorea will cat large quantities of germlings in the absence of any other macrophytes (Barker and Chapman 1990). In the most heavily grazed pool (Bauline Pool 1), while upright macrophytes were almost completely absent any germlings which settled were eaten. In Bay Bulls Pool 1, dislodgement probably played a greater role in preventing F. distichus distichus from attaining a foothold since during most of the study, more highly preferred algal species were present. These ephemerals provided enough high quality food that the littorinids did not have to graze the less attractive and nutritionally poorer F. distichus distichus.

The greater average abundance of Monostroma grevillei in heavily grazed pools was an artifact of the sampling not an effect of grazing. Most of the moderately and lightly grazed pools were not sampled until after M. grevillei had reached its peak abundance. The heavily grazed pools were sampled earlier when abundances of the blade-forming Chlorophyte were higher. Monostroma grevillei is similar in morphology to the highly preferred Ulva lactuca (Lubchenco 1978, Watson and Norton 1985) and thus should be easy to graze, providing a high return of nutrients per unit time. It occurred early in the year, persisted until mid summer in the lightly grazed

pools, but disappeared by late spring in the moderately and heavily grazed pools. The decline of M. grevillei was due to senescence and reproduction in the lightly grazed pools. Since the decline in the growth rate of M. grevillei coincided with the increase in grazing activity of L. littorea and the migration of L. saxatilis into the pools, there was a rapid decrease in M. grevillei in the moderately and heavily grazed pools. However, the impact of the much smaller L. saxatilis on the abundance of M. grevillei was less dramatic than that of L. littorea.

Scytosiphon lomentaria was most abundant during the time of peak grazing intensity in Bauline Pool 2 and Bay Bulls Pool 1. Since S. lomentaria is a species preferred by L. littora (Lubchenco 1978), one would expect to see a low abundance of upright forms during the summer when grazers are abundant and active and a higher abundance during the winter (Lubchenco and Cubit 1980). For instance, Lobban and Hanic (1984) found that Scytosiphon lomentaria recolonized an ice scoured rocky shore in Prince Edward Island in the fall after a succession of mostly ephemeral species. It was not seen during the summer when grazing was most intense. However, in the present study and others (Shannon et al. 1988, Villard-Bohnsack and Harlin 1992, Hooper 1981, Bolton 1983) S. lomentaria has been observed during spring and/or summer when grazing pressure is high. Jara and Moreno (1984) observed Scytosiphon in herbivore addition and control plots but not in grazer exclusion plots. Thus grazing alone cannot explain the distribution of S. lomentaria in Newfoundland

tidepools. The role that physical factors and competitive interactions play requires further study.

Littorina littorea decreased the abundance of filamentous algae but the mechanism of algal removal was different. For most of the blade-forming species, low abundance was maintained through prevention of successful recruitment. In contrast, most of the filamentous species were present as adult plants before the grazing intensity increased and thus the littorinids had to eat the adult plants rather than juveniles. The taenioglossan radula of the littorinids is well designed for eating adult filamentous plants as well as juveniles (Steneck and Watling 1982) and many filamentous macrophytes are preferred foods of littorinids. The abundance of A crosiphonia arcta was drastically reduced when L. littorea became active in the heavily grazed pools. No other filamentous algae became abundant once the grazers began actively feeding in the pools. In contrast, A crosiphonia arcta and Chaetomorpha linum reached maximum abundances in mid summer in the lightly and moderately grazed pools. Although L. saxatilis has been reported to eat filamentous algae (Sacchi et al. 1981) it had a more subtle effect than did L. littorea. Instead of removing the filamentous algae altogether, L. saxaritis decreased the maximum abundance and reduced the persistence time. The inability of L. saxatilis to significantly decrease the abundance of adult filamentous algae combined with its negative affect on the establishment of new blade-forming algae further supports its classification by Hawkins and Hartnoll (1983), as a micrograzer.

Hildenbraudia nibra and "Ralfsia" were the most common and abundant encrusting algae present during the course of the study. Both species are relatively grazer resistant due to a thallus constructed of small tightly packed cells. This structure offers considerable resistance to scratching and thus causes a high degree of wear to the radular teeth of littorinids grazing on them (Bertness et al. 1983). The increased wear on the radular teeth makes them less effective for grazing the nutritionally richer upright ephemerals and therefore the cost of grazing the crusts is high. Bertness et al. (1983) found that extracts of Hildenbraudia nibra and Ralfsia verrucosa embedded in agar were eaten at lower rates than agar controls with lower nutritive value suggesting the presence of chemical defenses in the macrophytes as well as structural defenses.

The abundance of the slow growing perennial H. nubru was extremely low in the lightly grazed pools. Ephemerals overgrew the crust and primary space was at a premium. It was more abundant in the moderately grazed pools due to the increase in primary space caused by L. saxatilis removing the ephemeral algae or preventing them from settling. In the most heavily grazed pool, H. nubra increased in abundance by lateral spreading during the study period when all of the competing upright macrophytes were removed by grazing. In Bay Bulls Pool 1, however, H. nubru was not present before the grazers became active and thus had to recruit from the plankton in the face of intense grazing pressure. It recruits very slowly (Bertness et al. 1983) and like many other macrophytes, the juveniles are probably more attractive to grazers

than the adult plants (Barker and Chapman 1990, Lubchenco 1983, Watson and Norton 1985). Once *H. rubra* appeared in this pool in mid summer, and reached a size at which it was no longer as susceptible to grazing, it gradually increased in abundance.

Although there was no significant difference between mean abundances of
"Ralfsia" between pools, there was a consistent grazer-dependent seasonal pattern of
abundance. In the lightly grazed pools, abundance was lowest during the summer
when the ephemerals were present. In the moderately grazed pools and the heavily
grazed Bay Bulls Pool I, removal of the faster growing ephemerals allowed "Ralfsia"
to increase in abundance through the study period. Only in one of the moderately
grazed pools did it peak during the peak in grazing intensity as Lubchenco and Cubit
(1980) observed. In the most intensely grazed pool, however, "Ralfsia" was eliminated
in June. Extreme levels of grazing may prevent encrusting algae from monopolizing
bare rock in tidepools. Bertness et al. (1983) found similar densities of L. littorea to
limit abundance of algal crusts in protected rocky beaches in southern New England.

Calcarcous red algae such as Corallina officinalis and Clathromorphum circumscriptum carry structural and chemical defenses which protect them from littorinid grazers. The only weak point on C. officinalis is the uncalcified articulated joint but since the radula of most grazers is too wide to fit between the calcarcous segments, the thallus is almost impenetrable to grazers (Watson and Norton 1985). C. officinalis was found to have the lowest ranking of all algae tested by Watson and Norton (1985) for both edibility and attractiveness. It was not eaten by L. littorea

even after 50 days of starvation (Watson and Norton 1985). C. officinalis grew little during the present study but removal of epiphytes such as M. grevillei by the littorinds may have aided the limited growth. No recruitment was observed but the structural strength of C. officinalis made it less susceptible to ice damage than most of the other perennial macrophytes. Tidepools on the ice scoured northwest coast of Iceland have Coratlina officinalis as one of their chief components (Munda 1992).

Clathromorphum circumscriptum has a multilayered epithallus which protects the meristematic cells from grazing gastropods (Steneck 1982). However the thallus is prone to epiphytism in the absence of grazing by the limpet, Notoocmaea testudinalis (Steneck 1982). In the present study, limpets were all killed by the freshwater runoff in the spring. Most of the C. circumscriptum in the pools did not grow, was pale in colour and appeared heavily epiphytised. However, in the most heavily grazed pools, C. circumscriptum increased through the study period and eventually took on a healthy pink appearance. The high density of littorinid grazers in these pools may have mimicked the beneficial effects of grazing by N. testudinalis on C. circumscriptum.

Algal species diversity varied between pools depending on the grazing intensity.

With low grazing pressure (low numbers of Littorina saxatilis and no L. littorea),
diversity decreased to a minimum in mid to late summer when one of the ephemeral
species became dominant. In contrast, in pools with intermediate grazing pressure
(large numbers of L. saxatilis but low numbers of L. littorea), diversity remained high
and constant through the year since the grazers removed enough of the dominant

ephermeral algae to decrease competition for space and reduce the frequency of competitive exclusions. Diversity was also low in pools with grazing pressures high enough to remove most of the upright algae (large numbers of L. littorea and moderate numbers of L. saxailis). Lubchenco (1978) first described this type of relationship between grazers and diversity in New England tidepools where L. littorea was the only significant herbivore. In the present study, Littorina saxailis was also found to play a major role in determining algal diversity.

Summary

The structure of algal communities in tidepools on Newfoundland's east coast is determined by a number of interacting biotic and abiotic factors. Frequent ice scouring prevents some perennial species from establishing by removing parent populations in localised areas. Repeated disturbance can prevent some populations from reaching maturity and reproducing. On the other hand, scouring can benefit algal populations by reducing the number of grazers as can freshwater inflows during spring.

Grazing by the herbivorous gastropods, Littorina littorea and L. saxatilis varies seasonally and spatially. The more intensely grazed pools were dominated by encrusting and calcareous species adapted to persist through time while upright algae were removed by grazers. Upright perennials are prevented from dominating by a combination of grazers removing adults and settling propagules and by physical removal through wave action and ice scouring of larger plants which have found a

temporal or spatial escape from grazing. In the less intensely grazed pools, opportunistic species with few structural or chemical defenses and high fecundity, and high growth rates outcompete the slower growing perennials for primary space.

Diversity was highest in pools with intermediate grazing pressure, and was maintained at a stable level through the year since the dominant ephemeral species are the preferred foods of the grazers. Diversity was lower in lightly grazed pools where one algal species dominated and in heavily grazed pools where all upright macrophytes were removed by grazing.

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APPENDIX A

Mean % cover of algae and number per 1/16 m2 of grazers on each sampling date.

Species	Mar 1	Mar 25	Apr 23	May 27.	Jun 24	Jul 14	Aug 6	Oct 5	Mean
Chordaria flagelliformis					0.2	1.0	2.9		0.51
Monostroma grevillei	15.0	57.6	33.0	18.2	0.2	1.0	2.7		15.41
Scytosiphon Iomentaria	10.0	2110	55.0	12.6	41.0	34.4	8.7	3.0	12.46
Acrosiphonia arcta		1.1	3.0	26.0	7.9	0.8	9.2	210	6.00
Chaetomorpha linum						9.7			1.2
Diatom (tube dwelling)	5.5					2.1			0.69
Fragellaria	5.0	5.8	10.1	8.2					3.6
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	23.8	17.4	24.6	13.4	26.0	22.2	28.8	27.4	22.9
Corallina officinalis	11.1	4.7	4.9	1.0	4.8	2.0	3.6	8.2	5.0
Green crust	36.0	20.5	2.0		****	210	510	0.2	7.3
Hildenbrandia rubra					1.3	1.8	0.9	6.0	1.2
"Ralfsia"					12.6	10.2	15.2	26.4	8.05
Bare rock	1.4	0.8	25.8	23.8	29 0	33.0	31.0	25.8	21.33
Littorina littorea	32.6	32.0	30.4	14.8	27.4	11.0	18.4	13.6	22.5
Littorina saxatilis	0.2	1.4	1.6	8.0	14.8	24.6	21.0	8.0	9.9
Notoacmaea testudinalis	0.4	1.8							0.28
Bay Bulls Pool 2									
Species	Mar 26	Apr 27 .	lun 11	Inl 15	Aug 7	Oct 6	Moon		
Species	Mai 20	Apr 27.	VOLET I I	701 17	riug /	OCLU	Produi		
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus				7.3	10.1		2.90		
Fucus distichus distichus	82.6	37.4	30.6	53.4	41.4	46.0	48.57		
Monostroma grevillei	5.6	4.4	1.2				1.87		
Scytosiphon lomentaria			6.2	0.6	1.0		1.30		
Acrosiphonia arcta	1.6	4.6	19.6	10.1	4.7	1.0	6.93		
Спаетотогрпа ппит			5.4	2.2	8.3		2.65		
	19.4	8.2	5.4 5.8	7.0	3.0		7.23		
Pilayella littoralis	19.4	8.2 7.5				11.2			
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum			5.8	7.0	3.0	11.2	7.23		
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis	4.2	7.5	5.8 7.3	7.0 9.3	3.0 5.4		7.23 7.48		
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Green crust	4.2	7.5 2.5	5.8 7.3	7.0 9.3	3.0 5.4		7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92		
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Gteen crust Hildenbrandia rubra	4.2	7.5 2.5 1.2	5.8 7.3 2.8	7.0 9.3 4.0	3.0 5.4 0.2	2.3	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23		
Chaetomorpha linum Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Green crust Hildenbrandia rubra "Ralfsia" Bare rock	4.2	7.5 2.5 1.2 2.6	5.8 7.3 2.8	7.0 9.3 4.0	3.0 5.4 0.2 0.8	0.8 11.1	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92		
Pilayella l ⁱ ttoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Green crust Hildenbrandia rubra "Ralfsia" Bare rock	4.2 1.2 6.2	7.5 2.5 1.2 2.6 10.0	5.8 7.3 2.8 0.1 9.9	7.0 9.3 4.0 1.2 8.8	3.0 5.4 0.2 0.8 11.8	0.8 11.1	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92 8.60		
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Green crust Hildenbrandia rubra "Ralfsia" Bare rock Lacuna vincta	4.2 1.2 6.2	7.5 2.5 1.2 2.6 10.0	5.8 7.3 2.8 0.1 9.9	7.0 9.3 4.0 1.2 8.8	3.0 5.4 0.2 0.8 11.8	0.8 11.1	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92 8.60 20.23		
Pilayella littoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Corallina officinalis Green crust Hildenbrandia rubra "Ralfsia"	4.2 1.2 6.2	7.5 2.5 1.2 2.6 10.0	5.8 7.3 2.8 0.1 9.9 15.8	7.0 9.3 4.0 1.2 8.8 14.8	3.0 5.4 0.2 0.8 11.8 20.6	0.8 11.1 26.4	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92 8.60 20.23		
Pilayella litoralis Clathromorphum circumscriptum Coralibna officinalis Green crust Hildenbramia rubra "Ralfsia" Bare tock Lacuna vineta Littorina litorea	4.2 1.2 6.2 22.4 0.2	7.5 2.5 1.2 2.6 10.0 21.4	5.8 7.3 2.8 0.1 9.9 15.8	7.0 9.3 4.0 1.2 8.8 14.8	3.0 5.4 0.2 0.8 11.8 20.6	0.8 11.1 26.4	7.23 7.48 2.17 1.23 0.92 8.60 20.23 0.03 0.13		

Bay Bulls Pool 3

Species	Apr 27	Jun 24	Jul 14	Aug 25	Oct 6	Mean
Chordaria flagelliformis		44.6	35.4	75.0	85.6	48.12
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus				8.0		1.60
Monostroma grevillei	1.9	7.0	0.4			1.86
Scytosiphon lomentaria			39.8	2.9		8.54
Acrosiphonia arcta	4.7	36.6	20.4	5.3	0.7	13.54
Fragellaria	8.6					1.72
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	26.6	14.6	4.3	5.9	9.1	12.10
Corallina officinalis	13.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.8	2.94
"Ralfsia"	17.2	10.2	3.3	3.9	4.1	7.74
Bare rock	30.6	2.6	0.4	3.2	2.1	7.78
Littorina obtusata				0.2		0.04
Littorina saxatilis		0.2	0.4	0.6		0.24

Bay Bulls Pool 4

Species	Jun 25	Jul 15	Aug 25	Oct 6	Mean
Chordaria flagelliformis	20.8	48.2	69.2	84.8	55.75
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus		10.0	15.0		6.25
Monostroma grevillei	19.2	7.9			6.78
Scytosiphon lomentaria	8.2	6.8	2.9		4.48
Acrosiphonia arcta	35.8	22.4	2.0	0.2	15.10
Sphacelaria plumosa		1.8			0.45
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	31.6	11.2	10.1	8.7	15.40
Corallina officinalis	0.5	0.9	7.6	7.4	4.10
"Ralfsia"	5.4	4.5	0.3	0.5	2.68
Bare rock	1.8	1.5	2.2	0.6	1.53
Littorina obtusata	0.8		0.2	0.2	0.30
Littorina saxatilis	3.0	5.6	2.4	1.8	3.20

Species	May 15	Jul 10	Jul 30	Aug 28	Nov 20	Mean
Chondrus crispus	2.3			1.0	3.4	1.34
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus	0.4	1.4	1.8			0.72
Enteromorpha intestinalis	4.2					0.84
Fucus distichus distichus	0.5	0.1	0.8	1.7	1.4	0.90
Monostroma grevillei	2.1					0.42
Scytosiphon lomentaria		2.5	2.4	1.5		1.28
Acrosiphonia arcta	67.8	74.6	81.0	21.3		48.94
Chaetomorpha linum		13.0	9.0	11.5		6.70
Cladophora sericea	0.1				44.6	8.94
Polysiphonia urceolata			0.1		2.2	0.46
Sphacelaria plumosa	5.0	3.3	3.1	37.2	16.8	13.08
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	7.8	3.5	1.3	14.2	12.6	7.88
Hildenbrandia rubra	2.4	2.1	0.7			1.86
"Ralfsia"			0.3		17.0	3.92
Bare rock	10.6	4.8	3.9			7.50
Littorina saxatilis	12.4	4.0	1.8	5.8	1.0	5.00
Portugal Cove Pool 2						
Species	Jun 10	Jul 10	Aug 28	Nov 20	Mean	
Chondrus crispus	5.0	1.3	4.2	6.8	4.33	
Chordaria flagelliformis		0.7			0.18	
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus		2.0			0.50	
Fucus distichus distichus	3.7	4.9	11.2	11.7	7.88	
Scytosiphon lomentaria	3.3	6.2	0.2		2.43	
Acrosiphonia arcta	28.0	48.6	24.4		25.25	
Chaetmorpha linum	13.8	18.4			8.05	
Cladophora sericea	1.0	1.8	14.4	43.6	15.20	
Sphacelaria plumosa	6.6	3.7	7.6	10.2	7.03	
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	11.8	5.4	12.2	13.2	10.65	
Corallina officinalis	0.1	0.9	1.1	1.9	1.00	
Hildenbrandia rubra	2.1	0.2			1.23	
"Ralfsia"	1.2	1.6			4.53	
	20.0	6.0	15.0	7.6	12.15	
Bare rock	20.0					
Bare rock Littorina obtusata	20.0	0.4	0.2		0.15	

Bauline Pool 1

Species	Apr 14	May 25	Jun 12	Jul 27	Aug 26	Nov 4	Mean
Monostroma grevillei	17.6						2.93
Scytosiphon lomentaria		1.1	0.2				0.22
Acrosiphonia arcta		2.9	5.6				1.42
Chaetomorpha linum	2.2						0.37
Sphacelaria plumosa	1.0	0.2	3.0				0.70
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	12.0	21.4	26.8	32.0	28.8	17.4	23.07
Corallina officinalis	2.3	7.4	11.0	13.2	13.0	13.6	10.08
Hildenbrandia rubra	9.8	9.0	15.0	21.4	20.6	22.4	16.37
"Ralfsia"		2.2	3.2			0.2	0.93
Bare rock	50.6	55.4	40.6	39.0	42.4	46.8	45.80
Littorina littorea	38.2	28.2	26.6	15.8	9.4	5.6	20.63
Littorina saxatilis	2.8	15.0	37.0	13.4	8.6	1.2	13.00

Bauline Pool 2

Species	Apr 16	May 26	Jun 30	Jul 29	Aug 27	Mean
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus					1.0	0.20
Fucus distichus distichus	0.9	0.5	1.5	1.7	2.9	1.50
Monostroma grevillei	11.0	5.6				3.32
Scytosiphon lomentaria			12.8	41.4	25.8	16.00
Acrosiphonia arcta	0.4	1.1	5.8	4.1		2.28
Diatom (tube dwelling)	1.8					0.36
Sphacelaria plumosa	0.4			0.4		0.16
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	13.2	16.0	16.6	12.8	12.0	14.12
Corallina officinalis	6.0	7.1	12.6	12.9	13.8	10.48
Green crust	0.6					0.12
Hildenbrandia rubra	13.8	5.9	3.2	9.0	7.6	7.90
"Ralfsia"		11.8	42.0	11.5	12.8	15.62
Bare rock	47.0	54.2	13.0	16.6	41.0	34.36
Lacuna vincta					613.6	122.72
Littorina littorea				0.2		0.04
Littorina saxatilis	9.2	37.6	43.4	27.6	10.4	25.64

Bauline Pool 3

Species	Apr 28	May 25	Jul 13	Jul 29	Aug 27	Nov 4	Mean
Chondrus crispus	6.8	3.4			3.0	6.6	3.30
Fucus distichus distichus	5.6	3.2	7.0	9.2	5.6	1.5	5.35
Monostroma grevillei	0.6	0.1					0.12
Scytosiphon lomentaria			0.6	1.6			0.37
Acrosiphonia arcta	10.0	22.2	31.8	21.0	8.4		15.57
Sphacelaria plumosa	3.8	1.9	2.1	5.0	5.6	4.9	3.88
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	24.6	18.0	24.0	23.4	22.6	20.6	22.20
Corallina officinalis	6.7	3.9	9.4	5.4	5.5	5.0	5.98
Hildenbrandia rubra	4.6	4.0	9.6	19.2	15.4	8.8	10.27
"Ralfsia"	1.0	0.6	1.4		2.6	17.0	3.77
Bare rock	40.2	39.0	26.2	21.6	35.4	37.4	33.30
Lacuna vincta						340.8	56.80
Littorina littorea	1.2	0.8	2.6	2.6	3.6	4.0	2.47
Littorina obtusata	0.2	0.4		0.2			0.13
Littorina saxatilis	6.2	42.6	35.4	27.2	12.8	4.4	21.43

Bauline Pool 4

Species	Apr 16	May 26	Jun 12	Jul 13	Aug 27	Mean
Ascophyllum nodosum			1.0		0.2	0.24
Chordaria flagelliformis				5.7		1.14
Fucus distichus distichus	5.4	2.6	5.6	8.2	6.7	5.70
Monostroma grevillei	1.9	4.9	0.8			1.52
Scytosiphon Iomentaria		0.1	0.9	1.2		0.44
Acrosiphonia arcta	0.4	38.0	44.2	32.2		22.96
Sphacelaria plumosa	13.4	8.2	7.6	9.4	12.4	10.20
Clathromorphum circumscriptum	29.2	24.4	18.4	19.8	23.0	22.96
Corallina officinalis	9.2	2.5	4.4	7.9	17.8	8.36
Hildenbrandia rubra	6.4				0.8	1.44
'Ralfsia"		4.9	7.8	10.4	18.4	8.30
Bare rock	34.6	28.4	20.8	18.2	27.0	25.80
Littorina littorea		1.0	1.0	2.0	2.4	1.28
Littorina obtusata		3.4	3.8		1.0	1.64
Littorina saxatilis	0.6	19.2	16.8	18.2	4.8	11.92







