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2	FEEDBACK BETWEEN PHYSIOLOGICAL ACTIVITY OF Mytilus			
3	galloprovincialis Lmk AND BIOGEOCHEMISTRY OF THE WATER COLUMN:			
4	MICROBIAL PLANKTON CARBON AS A TRACER FOR FOOD QUALITY			
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12 Abstract

The aim of this work was to study the filter feeding behaviour of individual mussels 13 14 Mytilus galloprovincialis in the Ría de Vigo (Galicia, NW Iberian Peninsula) in order to 15 assess the alteration of the water column biogeochemistry due to mussel culture and the effect of seston organic content on mussel physiological rates. The study was carried 16 17 out during one experimental year under different oceanographic scenarios by comparing 18 data from a station located in a raft area and from a reference sampling site with no 19 direct effects of rafting culture activities. Results showed differences between stations in 20 water column nutrient contents mainly on ammonium levels, with a mean annual excess 21 of 40% at raft station due to mussel feeding activities. Otherwise, it was also observed a pronounced deficit of particulate matter at the raft respect to the reference sampling site 22

both in terms of chlorophyll *a* (- 33%) and microbial plankton carbon (-34%), reflecting
preferential grazing of mussels on living plankton carbon.

25 The study of the seston organic compound during our experimental year also revealed that feeding activity and digestive behavior of mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis is 26 highly dependent on the quality of the organic composition of the available food. 27 28 Mussel organic ingestion rate and absorption efficiency were more strongly correlated 29 with microbial plankton carbon contents than with particulate organic carbon and chlorophyll a, illustrating the importance of considering not only autotrophic but also 30 31 heterotrophic microbial plankton carbon as high quality food for mussels in the Ría de 32 Vigo.

Keywords: carbon; plankton; mussel; ammonium; ingestion rate; absorption efficiency;
 Galician Rías.

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36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 The Galician Rías Baixas are four coastal embayments located (42° to 43°N) along the northern boundary of NW African upwelling system. From March-April to September-38 October, prevailing northerly winds cause the upwelling of nutrient-rich subsurface 39 40 Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW) on the shelf and inside the Rías. The 41 interaction between coastal upwelling and circulation patterns in the Rías promotes a 42 massive response in the productivity of phytoplankton populations supporting a mean annual primary production of 912 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Tilstone et al., 1999; Cermeño et al., 43 2006; Arbones et al., 2008). These primary production rates are in the upper range of 44 45 highly productive systems where bivalve production constitutes an important economic activity, as for example Norwegian fjords (100 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) (Erga, 1989; Aure et al., 46

47 2007), the Oosterschelde estuary in the Netherlands (300 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) (Smaal et al., 48 2001) or Thau lagoon in France (400 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) (Plus et al., 2006), and enable the 49 Rías to support the highest mussel production in Europe, with a total estimated 50 production of 250 x 10^6 kg⁻¹y⁻¹ of edible mussels.

Several studies revealed that feeding activity of suspended bivalve filter feeders may 51 52 alter the trophic network and nutrient cycling existing in marine ecosystems (see 53 reviews by Prins et al., 1998; Newell, 2004). The major pathways in which mussels 54 interact with coastal nutrient cycling are principally due to i) their huge capacity to clear 55 particles (including phytoplankton, zooplankton and detritus) from the surrounding waters to obtain nutrient requirements for growth (Navarro and Iglesias, 1993; Kreeger 56 57 and Newell, 2001) and ii) the excretion of metabolic wastes at the same time that 58 transfer particles to the bottom sea floor as faeces and pseudofaeces. (Dame 1993; Prins 59 et al., 1998; Newell 2004; Cranford et al., 2007; Jansen et al., 2011). These processes 60 show seasonal variability, reflecting environmental fluctuations in temperature, food supply and endogenous metabolic requirements of the mussels such as gametogenesis 61 and somatic growth (Smaal and Vonck, 1997; Cranford and Hill, 1999). 62

63 For the Galician Rías Baixas, Tenore et al. (1982) stated that the introduction of this aquaculture system altered the trophic chain of the ecosystem, diverting primary 64 production and energy flow from planktonic to benthic food web. In later years, in situ 65 66 experiments have studied the culture of Mytilus galloprovincialis in relation to seston 67 variables (quantity and quality) and chlorophyll in the Rías Baixas. Figueiras et al. (2002) suggested that the phytoplankton response to upwelling provides high-quality 68 69 food enhancing absorption efficiency of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (AE \sim 0.6). They estimated that mussel harvest in the Ría de Arousa extracts the equivalent to ~10% of 70 primary production. Otherwise, Petersen et al. (2008) and Maar et al. (2008), 71

72 documenting food depletion in a mussel raft in the Ría de Vigo, emphasized the 73 importance of physical forcing and phytoplankton composition for food availability, and stressed the relevance of including heterotrophic plankton in estimates potential bivalve 74 75 production. Unfortunately, except for Alonso-Pérez et al. (2010), there has not been any study focused on the impact of suspended mussel culture on the biogeochemistry of the 76 77 water column in the Rías Baixas by comparing different sampling sites and none of 78 these studies were primarily concerned with the effect of different hydrographic and 79 biogeochemical scenarios over mussel physiological response.

In this framework, the aim of our work was to assess "for the first time" the interaction between the effect of the seston organic content on mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* feeding activity, and the impact of mussel metabolism on water column biogeochemistry. Our study was based on a one year *in situ* experiment carried out in the Ría de Vigo by conducting seasonal campaigns at two stations, one inside a mussel raft and the other well outside of the mussel raft area

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87 1.1 Study area

The Ría de Vigo is one of the four V-shaped embayments (Rías Baixas, NW Iberian Peninsula) that gradually widens seawards and it is partially enclosed by the Cíes Island (Figure 1). It reaches a maximum depth of 42 m along its central channel. Its main tributary is the river Oitabén-Verdugo which drains into the innermost part of the Ría with an average flow of 15 m³ s⁻¹ (Nogueira et al., 1997).

From March-April to September-October, the Rías Baixas (orientated in a NE-SW
direction) are strongly influenced by prevailing northerly winds that cause the upwelling
of enriched in nutrients Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW). These

upwelling pulses are responsible of the estuary-like circulation of the water inside the 96 Ría, favouring the outflow of freshwater at sea surface and the inflow of water with high 97 nutrient content through the bottom. On the contrary, during winter, the persistence of 98 99 southerly winds primarily favours downwelling conditions that promote a negative 100 estuarine-like circulation with sea surface entrance of nutrient-poor oceanic waters in 101 the Rías and a subsurface outflow. A total of 478 mussel rafts organised in several polygons, differing in size, are located inside the Ría de Vigo, occupying ~5% of its 102 surface (Figure 1). The average area of the rafts is 500 m^2 with an average of 500 103 104 hanging ropes 12 m long each (Labarta, 2000).

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106 **2. METHODS**

During years 2007 and 2008 and in the framework of the RAFTING project. two 107 108 stations located in the Ría de Vigo (Figure 1) were monitored during 4 campaigns in the 109 most representative oceanographic scenarios: 1) autumnal bloom (17 September - 4 October), b) winter mixing (28 January – 14 February), c) spring bloom (14 April – 1 110 111 May) and d) summer upwelling (26 June – 14 July). One station was placed in a raft of a polygon located in the inner part of the Ría (RaS) and the other one was situated in the 112 central channel of the Ría (ReS). This station has been used as a reference site 113 114 representing the hydrographic and biogeochemical conditions of the water column with 115 no effects of feeding mussel activities. During every sampling period hydrographic data 116 (both sites) and physiological experiments with mussels (RaS station) were performed during six and two-three days, respectively. 117

118 **2.1. Physical and biogeochemical data**

Ekman transport ($-Q_x$), an estimate of the volume of water upwelled per kilometre of coast, was calculated according to Bakun's (1973) method:

121
$$-Q_x = -((\rho_a C |V|) / (f \rho_{sw})) V_H$$

where ρ_a is the density of the air (1.22 kg m⁻³) at 15 °C, C is an empirical dimensionless 122 drag coefficient (1.4 10^{-3}), f is the Coriolis parameter (9.946 10^{-5}) at 43°N, ρ_{sw} is the 123 seawater density (1025 kg m⁻³) and |V| and V_H are the average daily module and 124 125 northerly component of the geostrophic winds centred at 43°N, 11°W, respectively. 126 Average daily winds were estimated from atmospheric pressure charts. Positive values show the predominance of northern and easterly winds that induces upwelling processes 127 128 inside the Ría. On the contrary, negative values indicate the existence of downwelling 129 processes.

130 The study of the oceanographic characteristics of the water column in the two sampling 131 sites was carried out during six days every sampling period by conducting vertical 132 profiles of temperature and salinity with a Seabird CTD-SBE911. Discrete water 133 sampling at different depths (5, 10, 15, 20 m depth) for the determination of inorganic 134 nutrients, dissolved oxygen (DO), dissolved organic carbon and nitrogen (DOC and DON, respectively), chlorophyll a (Chl a), particulate organic carbon and nitrogen 135 136 (POC and PON, respectively) and microbial (pico, nano and micro) plankton counting were also collected by using a rosette sampler with 10 L PVC Niskin bottles, attached to 137 the CTD-SBE911. 138

139 Inorganic nutrient samples were determined by segmented flow analysis with Alpkem 140 autoanalysers following Hansen and Grassoff (1983) with some improvements proposed 141 by Mouriño and Fraga (1985). The analytical errors were $\pm 0.02 \mu$ M for nitrite and ± 0.05 142 μ M for nitrate and ammonium. Dissolved oxygen was determined by Winkler 143 potentiometric titration. The estimated analytical error was ±0.35 μ M.

Aliquots of the filtrate were taken for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and nitrogen DON analyses. DOC and DON were measured simultaneously with a nitrogen-specific Antek 7020 nitric oxide chemiluminescence detector, coupled in series with the carbonspecific infra-red gas analyser of a Shimadzu TOC-5000 organic carbon analyser (Álvarez- Salgado and Miller, 1998). The analytical errors were $\pm 1 \mu M$ for DOC and $\pm 0.2 \mu M$ for DON.

150 Chl *a* concentration was determined by filtering seawater samples of 100 to 250 ml 151 through 25 mm Whatman GF/F filters. After filtration, samples were frozen (-20 °C) 152 until pigment extraction in 90% acetone over 24 h in the dark at 4°C. Chl *a* contents 153 were determined by fluorescence of the pigment extracts using a Turner Designs 154 fluorometer calibrated with pure Chl *a* (Sigma). The estimated analytical error was 0.09 155 mg m⁻³.

For POC and PON analysis, 250 ml samples were filtered on pre-weighted, precombusted Whatman GF/F filters (0.7 μ m nominal size pore), dried overnight and frozen (-20 °C) before analysis. Measurements of POC and PON were carried out with a Perkin Elmer 2400 CNH analyser, including daily acetanilide standards. The precision of the method is ±0.9 μ mol C l⁻¹ and ±0.2 μ mol N l⁻¹.

For microplankton (> 20μ m) counting a seawater volume of 100 ml was preserved with Lugol's iodine until microscopic determination. Depending on the Chl *a* concentration, a volume ranging from 10 to 50 ml was sedimented in composite sedimentation chambers and observed through an inverted microscope. Organisms were counted and identified to the species level and dimensions were taken to calculate cell biovolumes

after approximation to the nearest geometrical shape (Hillebrand et al., 1999). Cell 166 167 carbon was calculated from these biovolumes following Strathmann (1967) for diatoms and dinoflagellates, Verity et al. (1992) for other flagellates (> 20 µm) and Putt and 168 169 Stoecker (1989) for ciliates. A correction to estimate cell carbon for Noctiluca 170 scintillans was applied following Tada et al. (2000). Differentiation between 171 autotrophic and heterotrophic microplankton was done following Lessard and Swift (1986), Larsen and Sournia (1991) and our historical records of epifluorescence 172 173 microscopy. Abundances of autotrophic and heterotrophic pico- (< 2µm) and 174 nanoplankton (2-20µm) were determined from epifluorescence microscopy according to 175 Figueiras et al. (2006). Autotrophic organisms were enumerated under blue light 176 excitation while excitation with UV light was used to enumerate heterototrophic pico-177 and nanoflagellates. Prochlorococcus cannot be accurately counted with this technique, 178 but their abundance is not important in this coastal system (Rodríguez et al., 2003). 179 Biovolumes were converted to cell carbon following Verity et al. (1992) for pico- and 180 nanoflagellates and Bratbak and Dundas (1984) for Synechococcus-type cyanobacteria 181 (Syn). Hereafter, the carbon biomass representing pico-, nano- and microplankton cells 182 will be so-called microbial plankton carbon (PC).

183 2.2 Mussel physiological experiments

The study of the metabolic activity and feeding and digestive behavior of mussels was performed *in situ* on the raft station (Figure 1) under ambient conditions of temperature, salinity and food availability. The experiments were conducted three times during autumn and twice for the other three periods. All these experiments were carried out simultaneously to the biogeochemical sampling of the water column. 189 Clearance, ingestion, absorption efficiency, respiration and excretion rates were determined according to Fernández-Reiriz et al. (2012). The experiments were 190 performed on individual mussels, using 90 individuals of Mytilus galloprovinciallis 191 192 randomly collected from three different ropes (30 for each rope). After determination of physiological rates, the individuals were sacrificed for dry tissue (100°C, 24h) and 193 organic weight (450°C, 24h) analyses. Mean values of size shell, dry tissue weight and 194 condition index of the collected individuals for each sampling period are shown in 195 196 Table 1.

197 **2.2.1.** Ammonium excretion rate (VNH₄⁺-N) and oxygen uptake (VO₂)

Ammonium excretion rate (VNH_4^+-N) was determined after the mussels were placed in 198 open cylindrical chambers with 250 ml of filtered seawater (0.2 µm Millipore 199 200 membranes). Temperature was maintained during the determinations by immersing the 201 chambers in an isothermal bath. Two chambers without animals were used as a control. After 90 min, water samples were collected from each chambers and frozen to -20°C 202 203 until be analysed in the laboratory, according to the phenol-hypochlorite method described by Solorzano (1969). VNH_4^+ -N's were calculated from the difference in NH_4^+ 204 concentration between the chambers with and without animals, respectively. 205

Oxygen uptake rates (VO₂) were determined by incubating the mussels in sealed 780 ml cylindrical chambers (height 85 mm, diameter 115 mm). Temperature was maintained during the determinations by immersing the chambers in an isothermal bath. Two chambers without animals were used as a control. The mussels were left undisturbed until most of their valves were opened, or at least for 45-60 minutes. Subsequently, oxygen measurements started using a manual probe (HACH HQ40). The depletion of oxygen in the chamber, due to respiration by the mussels was recorded for 30 to 60 min. The measurements were stopped before the oxygen concentration dropped below 30%relative to control chamber without mussels. VO₂'s were calculated from the difference in oxygen concentration between the chambers with and without animals, respectively.

216 **2.2.2. Organic ingestion rate (OIR) and absorption efficiency (AE)**.

The organic ingestion rate (OIR) was calculated as the product of clearance rate (CR) 217 218 and food concentration. The CR was estimated by using mussels placed in a cylindrical 219 chamber of 1200 ml with a water inflow in the lower part and a water outflow in the 220 upper opposite side. The animals were placed in the chambers in such a way that the input flow was directed to the inhalant aperture and the exhalant aperture towards the 221 222 water outflow, thus preventing re-filtration processes. Two chambers without mussels were used as blanks. The CR was estimated from the reduction in suspended particles 223 concentration, measured as volume of particles $(mm^3 l^{-1})$ between the water surrounding 224 the individuals and the outflow of the experimental chamber (Filgueira et al., 2006). 225 Following the method of Conover (1966), absorption efficiency (AE) was estimated by 226 227 determining the organic and inorganic content of the food and the faeces. 228 Representative samples of the diet were collected during the experiments and the AE 229 was calculated for a given pool of mussels by collecting the faeces in each experimental 230 chamber. Samples of food and faeces were filtered through pre-combusted, pre-weighed Whatman GF/C membranes. Filters were rinsed with isotonic ammonium formate, dried 231 232 to a constant weight at 80°C, and then weighed and combusted at 450°C for 3 hours. The filters were weighed again to estimate the organic and inorganic fraction contained 233 234 in the food and faeces.

235 2.2.3. Standardisation of physiological rates

To preclude variability in physiological rates caused by size differences, these rates were corrected to a standard-size individual. To this end, once physiological measurements were completed, shell length of each individual was recorded to the nearest 0.1 mm with vernier callipers. Physiological rates were standardised to a mussel size of 60 mm length with the following formula:

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$$Y_{std} = Y_{exp} (L_{std} / L_{exp}) b$$

where Y_{std} is the standardised physiological rate, Y_{exp} is the experimental physiological rate, L_{std} is the standardised size, L_{exp} the individual experimental size and b the exponent relating the physiological rate with size. In this study, a value of 1.85 was employed as a size standardisation exponent of the CR (Filgueira et al., 2006; Filgueira et al., 2008), 0.75 for the oxygen consumption (Bayne and Newel, 1983) and 0.72 for the ammonium excretion rate (Hawkins and Bayne, 1985).

248 2.3. Statistical analysis

The significance of the water column biogeochemical differences between ReS and RaS stations was analysed over the 12 m integrated values of a total of 24 paired observations (6 sampling days x 4 seasonal periods) by using a t-test (p < 0.05) (Table 2).

For the metabolic and physiological mussel rates analysis of variance was applied to analyse the seasonal pattern. A parametric ANOVA was used for variables that fulfil normality (Shapiro test) and homocedasticity (Levene test) assumptions, and a Kruskal-Wallis tests when this assumptions were rejected. The Tukey HSD (Honest Significant Differences) test was used as a *post hoc*. Data analysis was performed with the statistical package R 2.12.2 (R Development Core Team, 2011). 259

260 **3. RESULTS**

261 **3.1. Hydrographic conditions and biogeochemistry of the water column**

The thermohaline and biogeochemical conditions for the four sampling periods are analysed based on temperature, nitrate (NO_3^-), ammonium (NH_4^+) and Chl *a* temporal distributions at the reference (ReS) and raft (RaS) sampling sites (Figure 2 and 3, respectively).

During autumn 2007 prevailing upwelling winds (-Q_x positive values) favoured the 266 intrusion of nutrient-rich subsurface ENACW into the ría, breaking the thermal 267 268 stratification observed at the beginning of the study period at both ReS and RaS stations. As expected, the entrance of this water parcel coming from the ocean was the 269 responsible of the maximum of Chl *a* during experimental day September 24th reaching 270 values as high as 6 and 3 mg m^{-3} at the reference and raft stations, respectively. During 271 272 winter 2008 the water column was characterised by relatively cold waters, only varying 0.5 °C, with high NO₃⁻ content (from 5 to 7 μ mol kg⁻¹) and lower NH₄⁺ levels than the 273 previous sampling period at the two sites. Chl a concentration was lower than 1 mg m⁻³ 274 275 at both stations. In spring 2008 we found that water column was thermally mixed with very low NO₃⁻ (below 2 μ mol kg⁻¹) and NH₄⁺ (below 1 μ mol kg⁻¹) levels during the first 276 half of the cruise. During this period, the maximum values of Chl a (5 mg m⁻³) at sea 277 surface, decreased downwards to a marked minimum of 2 and 1 mg m⁻³ at the reference 278 and raft site, respectively. After April 21st, it was established a thermal stratification 279 which favoured the development of a subsurface Chl *a* maximum (6 mg m⁻³) at ReS site 280 that disappeared at RaS station. Finally, during the first half of summer 2008 sampling 281 282 period the intrusion of ENACW, linked with very high positive values in upwelling

index, is clearly discernible by low temperature (T < 14 $^{\circ}$ C), and high NO₃⁻ contents (5 283 μ mol kg⁻¹) (Figure 2 and 3), always recorded close to the bottom. According to the 284 upwelling conditions registered in the first half of this period, we observed a surface 285 maximum of Chl *a* content at ReS site (5 mg m^{-3}) that was no registered at RaS station. 286 After July 2nd, northerly winds relaxed and even shifted southward, developing a strong 287 thermocline with relatively nutrient poor surface waters; NO_3^- and NH_4^+ levels lower 288 than 1 μ mol kg⁻¹ and 2 μ mol kg⁻¹, respectively. During this sampling period the Chl *a* 289 290 content maintained relatively constant along the whole water column at both ReS and 291 RaS sampling sites (Figure 2 and 3).

292 In order to describe the effect of mussel rafts on the Ría ecosystem we present mean seasonal variations of nitrogen forms, dissolved oxygen (DO), particulate organic 293 carbon (POC), Chl a and microbial plankton carbon (PC) at reference and raft stations 294 (Figure 4). Despite average NO_3^- and nitrite (NO_2^-) concentrations showed no 295 significant differences between sites, NH4⁺ contents were significantly different (Table 296 2) with higher values at RaS station. Mean integrated NH_4^+ levels ranged from 297 maximum values of 27 mmol m^{-2} and 48 mmol m^{-2} registered in autumn and minimum 298 values of 7 mmol m⁻² and 15 mmol m⁻² recorded during spring time for ReS and RaS 299 stations, respectively (Figure 4a). Dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) presented no 300 significant differences between sampling stations (Table 2) and seasonally varies 301 between minimum integrated values of 75 mmol m⁻² and 77 mmol m⁻² in autumn for 302 ReS and RaS sampling sites, respectively, and maximum integrated values of 89 mmol 303 m^{-2} in spring at ReS station and 93 mmol m^{-2} in summer at RaS station (Figure 4a). 304 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) also presented no significant differences between sites 305 ranging around mean annual integrated values of 1032 mmol m⁻² and 1064 mmol m⁻² at 306 307 ReS and RaS stations, respectively (Table 2). We also found no-significant differences

in DO contents between sites being the mean annual deficit in the raft station respect to
the reference site of 5% (Table 2). Maximum variations in mean seasonal DO contents
between sampling sites were registered during autumn 2007 and summer 2008 (Figure
4b).

In terms of suspended particulate matter, although POC did not present significant differences between stations we registered clearly lower values of both Chl *a* and PC at the raft station by comparing with the reference site (Figure 2, 3 and Table 2). In terms of mean seasonal values of both Chl *a* and PC we found maximum values in spring and minimum values during winter time (Figure 4b).

317 3.2. Physiological rates during mussel experiments

In Figure 5 we present the box-plots with the seasonal evolution of both metabolic and physiological parameters. With our data, the test rejected the hypothesis of homogeneity between seasons in all physiological variables. In Table 3 it is presented a descriptive resume of the data showing the seasons that followed a homogeneous pattern (Tukey HSD) for all variables. In general, we observed that metabolic and physiological activity of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* reached minimum values in winter time and maximum values during spring and summer seasons (Figure 5).

The ammonium excretion rates (VNH₄⁺-N) were significantly lower in autumn (14.2 μ g h⁻¹) and winter (13.7 μ g h⁻¹) than in spring and summer, when rates of 20.8 μ g h⁻¹ and 21.7 μ g h⁻¹ were registered, respectively (Table 3). The oxygen uptake presented a different pattern respect to the other variables, ranging between minimum values during winter (0.7 ml h⁻¹) and maximum values during spring (1.4 ml h⁻¹).

330 Seasonal variations of organic ingestion rates (OIR) presented minimum values in 331 winter (0.8 mg h^{-1}) and maximum values in spring (2.7 mg h^{-1}) (Figure 5 and Table 3). In terms of absorption efficiency (AE) mean values of 81.5% were registered during our experimental year, ranging from a minimum value of 72.5% in winter to a maximum value of 87.7% in summer (Table 3).

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336 4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Alteration of water column biogeochemistry by feeding activity of mussels.

According to previous studies, the bivalve feeding activity can be important in the 338 339 pathway of nutrient cycling on coastal ecosystems (Souchu et al., 2001; La Rosa et al., 340 2002; Nizzoli et al., 2006; Richard et al., 2007). Mussel cultures act as a source of 341 recycled nutrients to the system by means of the respiration and excretion of inorganic 342 metabolic waste products, while harvest of the mussels results in removal of nutrients from the system. In doing so, mussels act as a sink or source of nutrients and thereby 343 344 interact with nutrient cycling in coastal ecosystems, particularly in areas with dense 345 mussel communities (see reviews by Newell, 2004; Prins et al., 1998).

346 For the Ría de Vigo, it has been suggested that the intensive mussel culture has a great 347 influence on the microbial food web structure and functioning (Figueiras et al., 2002; Petersen et al., 2008; Maar et al., 2008). However, only Alonso-Pérez et al. (2010) tried 348 349 to elucidate the impact of suspended mussel culture on water column biogeochemistry by comparing conditions inside and outside of a raft area. Based on a short field 350 351 campaign, they concluded that mussel farming did not significantly alter the pelagic 352 nutrient cycling. On the contrary, the present seasonal study shows, for the first time, 353 that mussel farming clearly modifies the water column biogeochemistry.

Data presented in this study reveal that thermohaline conditions were very similar at 354 355 both the reference (ReS) and raft (Ras) stations, following the pattern presented in Figures 2 and 3. Nevertheless, the comparison of inorganic and organic (dissolved and 356 357 particulate) nutrient forms at the two stations showed contrasting results in terms of effects associated to mussel activity at the raft site. Focusing on nitrogen and beginning 358 with the inorganic forms (NO₃, NO₂ and NH₄⁺), we did not observe any significant 359 difference on NO_3^- content between stations (Figure 2, 3, 4 and Table 2). The 360 relationship of this nutrient with the water column temperature pointed that is controlled 361 by thermohaline properties observing the highest levels with the entrance of upwelled 362 363 cold, nutrient-rich subsurface ENACW into the Ría (Fraga, 1981). Such correlation runs in parallel at both control and raft stations revealing that similar hydrographic 364 conditions were affecting our two study sites (Figure 2 and 3). Likewise, NO₂⁻ 365 366 distributions were also very similar between ReS and RaS sampling sites with no significant differences along the studied year (Figure 4 and Table 2) suggesting that this 367 368 nitrogen form is not directly affected by mussel physiology either. These results clearly 369 contrast with NH₄⁺ distribution, that presented significant differences between the two 370 sampling stations (Figure 2 and 3). Our ammonium excretion rates are of the same order than previously reported values (Hawkins and Bayne, 1985; Smaal and Vonck, 1997; 371 Smaal et al., 1997; Jansen et al., 2011) and could explain the increase of NH_4^+ levels in 372 373 the water column as the high correlation between these two parameters indicates (Figure 374 6). Our observations clearly evidence that mussel rope community plays an important role on nutrient recycling. NH4⁺ excess in the mussel farming zone respect to the 375 376 reference site was highly significant in all sampling periods (Table 2) with values in the 377 same range of data presented by Boucher et al. (1988) from a study of oyster farming, where the contribution of VNH_4^+ -N was 10-40%. 378

379 The role of dissolved organic matter as a potential food source has not been sufficiently 380 studied and the few available manuscripts reached different conclusions (Roditi et al., 2000; Pang and Wang, 2004; Baines et al., 2007). Our results (Table 2), showing no 381 382 significant differences in the quantity and quality of dissolved organic matter (expressed as DOC: DON ratio; p-value = 0.504) at the raft and reference stations, would support 383 384 the idea proposed by Pan and Wang (2004). These authors stated that the contribution of 385 DOC as nutrition source for marine bivalves is basically negligible due to the low carbon absorption efficiency (AE) from the dissolved phase, which is 3 orders of 386 magnitude lower than the carbon AE from food particles. 387

388 In contrast, particulate organic matter as a food source for *Mytilus galloprovinciallis* 389 during our study presented a different contribution. While the lack of significant differences between PON and POC at the two sites would suggest that they were not 390 391 suitable food sources, the reduction in microbial plankton carbon (PC) at the raft site 392 points to preferential consumption by mussel activity. The PC content was depleted at 393 the raft site (Figure 4b; Table 2) where PC represented, in annual terms, around $49 \pm$ 25% of total POC in contrast to $73 \pm 37\%$ at the reference site. This fact reveals that 394 395 there has to be an additional source of particulate organic matter at the raft site different 396 from the non-planktonic carbon at the reference site. One possible additional source of 397 particulate organic matter could be all raft epifauna community associated to the mussel 398 ropes (Maar et al., 2008) but further studies should be focused on analyzing these other 399 inputs of organic matter.

The annual deficits of both Chl *a* and PC at the raft station respect to the reference site (Figure 4b and Table 2) reflect the preferential grazing of mussels on plankton. The Chl *a* deficit at the mussel zone in Ría de Vigo was lower than values (-44 \pm 4%) presented by Souchu et al. (2001), who reported how the filter feeders (*Crassostrea gigas*) were

able to alter water column nutrient cycling in a poorly flushed lagoon in the 404 405 Mediterranean Sea. Otherwise, our Chl a (-26 - 53%) summer deficits in the raft station respect to the reference site were in good agreement with summer depletion rates (10-406 407 45%) found by Petersen et al. (2008) in a study carried out in the Ría de Vigo based on fluorescence data. They are also similar to previous levels of estimated phytoplankton 408 409 reduction (30%) from mussel rafts in the Rías reported by Perez-Camacho et al. (1991). 410 No previous studies have analysed the mussel consumption on plankton based on microbial plankton carbon. 411

412 4.2. Physiological responses of mussels to quantity and quality of the organic 413 content in the available food.

414 The physiological responses of mussels to quantity and quality of the available food has 415 been extensively studied mainly analysing the feeding and digestive behaviour under experimentally controlled levels of suspended particles load (SPM) and particulate 416 organic matter (POM) content of the seston (e.g. Bayne et al., 1993; Cranford and Hill, 417 418 1999; Kreeger and Newell, 2001). In this framework, and taking into account that the 419 Rías are characterised by low suspended particulate matter (Babarro et al., 2000) the 420 goal of our study, carried out under natural conditions, is to understand how quantity 421 and quality of the seston organic compounds can affect the feeding behaviour of suspended mussels and how these filter feeder organisms utilise these components to 422 423 satisfy their carbon demands. To assess the nutritional value of the seston organic compounds we have used different proxies such as particulate organic carbon (POC), 424 425 that represents the total organic carbon content of seston available for mussels, 426 chlorophyll a (Chl a) that is used, as an indicator of phytoplankton biomass, and the 427 microbial plankton carbon (PC), that considers the whole organic carbon derived from both autotrophic (phytoplankton) and heterotrophic microbial plankton. 428

From the relationship between organic ingestion rates (OIR) of mussels Mytilus 429 430 galloprovinciallis and the seston organic content in the Ría de Vigo during our experimental year, we can observe that 59% and 64% of the variance in OIR are 431 explained based on quality of the ingested food derived from POC and PC estimates, 432 respectively (Figure 7). These results corroborate that Mytilus galloprovinciallis under 433 natural conditions in the Rías Baixas are filter organisms that not only increase their 434 435 feeding activity in terms of SPM contents (Figueiras et al., 2002) but also in terms of organic load of the available food. With this model we can asses that for maximum 436 POC (247 mg m⁻³) and PC (153 mg m⁻³) contents, found in the Ría de Vigo during our 437 experimental year, the predicted maximum OIR were 2.51 mg l^{-1} and 2.35 mg l^{-1} , 438 respectively. 439

Otherwise the nutritional value of the seston carbon sources not only affects the feeding 440 441 activity of mussels but also the digestive processes that optimize the consumed energy 442 (Babarro et al., 2000; Perez-Camacho et al., 2000). Figueiras et al (2002) presented a 443 first adjustment of mussel absorption efficiency (AE) to the nutritional value of seston, i.e. organic matter content of seston. Their approach assesses a maximum AE (~ 0.6) 444 when the ratio between particulate organic matter and SPM is ~ 0.5 . However, during 445 our experimental year in the Ría de Vigo, we found that AE is not highly related with 446 POC contents ($r^2=0.34$). Taking into account this fact and considering primarily 447 reported information (section 4.2) about an additional source of POC at RaS, we 448 449 hypothesise that in our study this additional source of carbon is not accessible for 450 mussel digestion, leading to an overestimation of the high quality available food. In fact, a significant relationship between AE and PC (not observed with Chl a content) 451 was observed (Figure 7): 452

453 AE (%) = 94.40 (PC / (9.06+PC)),

The model, that explains 85% of the variance in AE as dependent on the quality of 454 455 ingested food due to microbial plankton carbon, predicts an asymptotic maximum AE of 89.4% for maximum PC contents registered in the Ría de Vigo during our experimental 456 year. The adjustment of AE is maintained even if we consider the PC/POC ratio as the 457 independent variable (AE (%) = 100 PC / POC/(9.23+PC/POC); $r^2 = 0.83$). These 458 models clearly reflect that when microbial plankton carbon dominates the organic 459 content of the seston, the digestive processes of the mussels are reinforced and explain 460 the high growth rates of mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* in the Rías. On the other hand, 461 the fact that the good adjustments between both feeding (OIR) and digestive (AE) 462 463 parameters with PC contents in the water column were lost when we used Chl a as a proxy of seston organic fraction (Figure 7) remarks the importance of consider the 464 whole microbial plankton carbon, including not only autotrophic but also heterotrophic 465 466 microbial plankton as high quality food for mussels in the Ría de Vigo. Otherwise, 467 changes in PC/Chl a ratios can also help to explain differences in the adjustments with 468 PC and Chl *a*.

469 In summary, the interaction between coastal upwelling and circulation patterns in the 470 Rías triggers the high microbial plankton carbon content of seston (Margalef and Andreu, 1958; Tenore and González, 1975; Figueiras et al., 2002) which leads to 471 472 maximum levels in the absorption of energy consumed by mussels, as presented in this study. In this way, the Rías Baixas have become into an ecosystem with the largest 473 mussel production in Europe (Labarta, 2000). Future research increasing temporal and 474 475 spatial resolution sampling, both in and out of the raft areas, will be necessary to corroborate our results. 476

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Table 1. Mean ± standard deviation of shell size, dry tissue weight and condition index
(CI) for the individuals used in this study.

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654		Size shell	Dry weight	CI
		(mm)	(mg)	
655	Autumn07	1073 ± 199	56 ± 2	30 ± 5
656	Winter08	451 ± 77	57 ± 2	14 ± 2
657	Spring08	738 ± 107	58 ± 1	23 ± 3
(50	Summer08	852 ± 175	61 ± 2	21 ± 3
658	Annual	811 ± 277	58 ± 3	23 ± 7
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Table 2. Results derived from the t-test applied to the paired samples (n = 24; 6 samplings x 4 seasonal periods) between reference and raft stations. Values of p < 0.05indicate a significant difference between sites. SD: standard deviation; NS. not significant.

		Significance level of	Mean \pm SD	Mean \pm SD	Deficit or excess
		t-test at $\alpha = 0.05$	at reference site	at raft site	comparing raft and
					reference site (Mean \pm
					SD in %)
					52 m /0)
		(n=24)	(n=24)	(n=24)	(n=24)
	NO_3^- , mmol m ⁻²	0.879	48 ± 39	46 ± 35	NS
	NO_2^- , mmol m ⁻²	0.562	3.4 ± 2.5	3.8 ± 2.6	NS
	NH_4^+ , mmol m ⁻²	0.007	20 ± 14	33 ± 18	40 ± 31
	DON mmol m ⁻²	0.270	84 ± 20	87 ± 22	NS
	$DOC \text{ mmol } \text{m}^{-2}$	0.239	1032 ± 80	1064 + 81	NS
	DOC , minior in DO , minior m^{-2}	0.049	1052 ± 300 2222 ± 200	1004 ± 01 3140 ± 350	5 ± 7
	DO, minor m	0.049	3333 ± 309	3140 ± 350	-5 ± 7
	POC, mg m	0.064	2803 ± 1068	2229 ± 464	INS 22 + 26
	Chl a, mg m 2	0.023	$3/\pm 23$	23 ± 16	-33 ± 26
	PC, mg m ⁻²	0.015	2017 ± 750	1298 ± 561	-34 ± 28
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Table 3. Mean \pm standard deviation of ammonium excretion rate (VNH₄⁺-N), oxygen uptake (VO₂), organic ingestion rate (OIR) and absorption efficiency (AE) for each sampling season. Homogeneous groups identified by Tukey's HSD test ($\alpha = 0.05$) are given in brackets (a,b).

	VNH4 ⁺ -N	VO ₂	OIR	AE
	$(\mu g h^{-1})$	$(ml h^{-1})$	$(mg h^{-1})$	(%)
Autumn07	14.2 ± 4.9 (a)	0.9 ± 0.2 (b)	2.0 ± 0.6	82.0 ± 5.3 (a)
Winter08	13.7 ± 4.5 (a)	0.7 ± 0.1 (a)	0.8 ± 0.2	72.5 ± 1.7
Spring08	20.8 ± 7.2 (b)	1.4 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 0.9 (a)	82.9 ± 4.6 (a,b)
Summer08	21.7 ± 5.7 (b)	0.8 ± 0.2 (a,b)	2.4 ± 0.6 (a)	87.7 ± 1.8 (b)
Annual	17.0 ±6.6	1.0 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.9	81.5 ± 6.2

Figure 1. Map of the Ría de Vigo showing the location of the raft polygons (in black) and the positions of both reference (ReS) (black dot) and raft (RaS) (white dot) sampling sites. The position of RaS station inside the polygon is also shown in the figure.

Figure 2. Time-series of upwelling index, temperature, nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺) and chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentration registered at the reference station (ReS). The days when physiological experiments with mussels were carried out are shown as vertical dashed lines.

Figure 3. Time-series of temperature, nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺) and chlorophyll a (Chl *a*) concentration recorded at the raft station (RaS). The days were physiological experiments with mussels were carried out are shown as vertical dashed lines.

712 Figure 4. (a) Mean seasonal variations of 12 m water column integrated values of nitrate

(NO₃⁻), nitrite (NO₂⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) at both the reference (white bars) and raft (black bars) stations. (b) Mean seasonal variations of 12 m water column integrated values of dissolved oxygen (DO), chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*), particulate organic carbon (POC) and microbial plankton carbon (PC) at both the reference (white bars) and raft (black bars) stations.

Figure 5. Box-plots showing the seasonal variation of metabolic (ammonium excretion rate (VNH₄⁺-N) and oxygen uptake (VO₂)) and physiological (organic ingestion rate (OIR) and absorption efficiency (AE)) rates. The box itself goes from the lower quartile (Q1) to the upper quartile (Q3). The horizontal bar inside the box is the median. The whiskers above and below the box are drawn at the first value in the range [Q1 - (1.5 * IQR), Q3 + (1.5 * IQR)]. Data points which exceed this range are drawn separately as outliers. Figure 6. Dispersion diagram between ammonium content in the water column at the raft station $(NH_4^+_{WC})$ and the direct ammonium excretion rate (VNH_4^+-N) obtained from the physiological experiments with mussels.

Figure 7. Dispersion diagrams showing the relationship between both organic ingestion rate (OIR) and absorption efficiency (AE) with the food quality variables (given as particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) and microbial plankton carbon (PC)) observed in the raft. The adjustment of the data was given by the hyperbolic equation y = ax / (b + x). The coefficients a and b are shown in the figure for each adjustment.

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Figure 6









