

1 Attachment strength of the mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*: effect of habitat and body size

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13 **Abstract**

14 Marine organisms adapt to a wide variety of environments, often altering their morphology and behaviour in
15 response to local habitat. This study addressed the effects of habitat (wave exposure) and body size on the
16 morphology and byssal attachment of mussels within the same estuary. Tenacity of the mussel *Mytilus*
17 *galloprovincialis* was higher at the exposed site, particularly for the smaller size classes. This was largely
18 due to differences in thread thickness; mussels from the exposed site produced thicker and stronger byssal
19 threads. For a given shell length, exposed mussels also produced thicker and smaller shells and had lower
20 gonadal condition. In laboratory flume experiments, both thread production and mechanical performance
21 (strength and extensibility) decreased with increased flow, suggesting flow alone does not explain tenacity
22 differences between sites. Altogether, these analyses suggest that mussels at exposed sites allocate resources
23 to reducing risk of dislodgment (smaller and thicker shell, stronger byssal threads) instead of growth and
24 reproduction, and these allocation differences between sites are less apparent in larger size classes. The lack

25 of the largest size class (8 cm) at the exposed site may reflect an upper limit to size imposed by wave
26 induced mortality, where attachment strength does not keep pace with hydrodynamic loading.

27

28

29 **Introduction**

30 Environmental characteristics greatly influence aspects of the life histories of marine organisms, such as
31 growth, reproduction or spawning periods (Seed and Suchanek 1992). In the case of estuarine tidal zones,
32 environmental factors like temperature, salinity, aerial exposure and hydrodynamics represent key elements
33 that influence population dynamics. Specifically, disturbances created by wave-generated hydrodynamic
34 forces have a controlling influence in structuring mussel bed communities as mussels become dislodged and
35 new space is created for colonization (Hunt and Scheibling 2001; Carrington et al. 2009). The risk of
36 dislodgment increases with flow speed and mussel size and decreases with mussel tenacity, or attachment
37 strength (Carrington 2002).

38 Mussels are sessile and gregarious organisms capable of withstanding strong flows as consequence of
39 their ability to secrete an extracellular structure called byssus, a bunch of collagenous threads secreted in the
40 ventral groove of the foot (Waite 1992). Each thread is proximally attached to a common stem that connects
41 via the root to the byssus retractor muscle (Brown 1952) and distally to the substratum through the adhesive
42 plaque. The structure of the byssus apparatus has to be replaced continuously because threads decay over
43 time (about 2 to 8 weeks; Carrington 2002; Moeser and Carrington 2006) and byssus production can
44 represent up to 8-15% of the mussel's total energy expenditure (Hawkins and Bayne 1985). Another
45 important structural feature mussels manufacture is shell; greater shell mass and thickness provides
46 protection from aerial exposure, wave action and predation, and may represent also a high metabolic cost, up
47 to 25-50% of the total energy (Gardner & Thomas 1987).

48 Different environments may induce morphological changes in mussels, such as shell dimensions
49 (Raubenheimer and Cook 1990; Akester and Martel 2000; Steffani and Branch 2003; Beadman et al. 2003;

50 Babarro and Carrington 2011), and may also alter energy allocation to other vital structures such as soft
51 tissue growth or byssus secretion. Energy allocation can also shift with body size, as larger animals mature
52 reproductively. While many biotic and abiotic factors are known to influence byssal attachment strength of
53 mussels, body size represents an endogenous parameter that is not often considered explicitly. For example,
54 factors influencing mussel attachment strength, like byssal thread thickness and production (Bell and
55 Gosline 1997; Zardi et al. 2007; Babarro et al. 2008; 2010) may vary also as a function of the individual's
56 size. Moreover, Moeser et al. (2006) reported seasonal variation in attachment strength reflected changes in
57 the mechanical properties of the threads themselves, perhaps due energetic shifts to reproduction.

58

59 The mechanical properties of mussel byssus have been quantified in several studies (Smeathers and
60 Vincent 1979; Bell and Gosline 1996; Carrington and Gosline 2004; Brazee and Carrington 2006; Babarro
61 and Carrington 2011 among others). Breaking force can be estimated as the maximum force supported by an
62 individual thread and the breaking strain, or extensibility, is the distance a thread can extend before failure
63 divided by its resting length (Moeser and Carrington 2006). Generally speaking, strength of the entire byssal
64 structure increases for stronger and more extensible threads; higher extensibility allows individual threads to
65 stretch and realign within the byssal complex and recruit more threads to resist an applied load (Bell and
66 Gosline 1996).

67

68 Byssal attachment strength generally increases linearly with body size of *Perna perna* and *Mytilus*
69 *galloprovincialis* (Zardi et al. 2006) and *Mytilus* spp. (*Mytilus trossulus* and *Mytilus edulis*; Kirk et al. 2007;
70 Hunt and Scheibling 2001). This may be due to changes in the mechanical properties of the byssal threads,
71 but may reflect the rate of thread production and decay (Moeser et al. 2006). To date, several studies have
72 reported on the effect of body size on thread secretion (see review of Clarke and McMahon 1996; van
73 Winkle 1970; Lee et al. 1990; Eckroat et al. 1993; Seed and Richardson 1999), with conflicting patterns.
74 Babarro et al. (2008) observed significantly lower rate of byssus thread secretion in large mussels (> 8.5 cm

75 shell length) as compared to juveniles (2.5 cm) in calm water and suggested a metabolic limitation to thread
76 production in larger size classes. One aim of this study is evaluate how byssal thread performance varies
77 with mussel size, the extent to which it depends on metabolic aging, and its implications for the mussels'
78 ability to resist dislodgement.

79 The mussel species we studied was *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, a widely distributed and commercially
80 important bivalve. Our field locations were selected along the coastline of Rías Gallegas (NW Spain), where
81 individuals may tolerate occasionally abrupt abiotic variability between outer and inner locations of the Ría
82 (Babarro and Carrington 2011). Here, we examine the influence of habitat within the same estuary (Ría de
83 Vigo) on mussel morphometry and byssal attachment strength over the body size range encountered *in situ*.
84 We chose two very different intertidal locations (inner sheltered vs. outer exposed) which supported mussel
85 patches that clearly differed in the upper limit of its size distribution frequency (smaller at the exposed site).
86 We tested the hypotheses that (1) habitat would influence the scaling relationship of attachment strength
87 with mussel size, (2) morphometric differences in the byssus secreted by different size classes would
88 account for differences in attachment, and (3) the quality and quantity of the byssus secreted decreases with
89 mussel size.

90

91

92 **Material and Methods**

93 *Environment*

94 Field sampling was conducted at two littoral sites of Ría de Vigo (NW Spain) with strong environmental
95 differences. A detailed comparison of the conditions at each site is described in Babarro and Carrington
96 (2011) and is briefly summarized here. Both experimental sites are located near the city of Vigo and are 30
97 km apart (Figure 1): one site at the outer exposed Ría in Cabo Estay (CE) and the other at the inner sheltered
98 zone in the Ensenada San Simón (SS). The rocky shore at both sites is mainly composed of granitic rocks
99 although a muddy-granitic bottom is more frequent in the sheltered SS site. Mussels, however, are attached

100 only on hard granitic substrate and grow in numerous patches at both sites as free-living monolayer beds at a
101 tidal height of 20% aerial exposure. Solitary individuals were not considered; mussel patches had similar
102 density ($\sim 400 \text{ ind m}^{-2}$). Mussels from the interior part of the patches attached to hard rocks were selected for
103 strength measurements and byssus collection. It was assumed mussels in patches experience primary lift
104 because neighbours shield individuals from drag (Denny 1987; Bell and Gosline 1997). Environmental
105 differences between outer exposed and inner sheltered sites include wave exposure, salinity, temperature and
106 littoral vegetation. Mussels living at the exposed site face wave impact directly whereas a bed of vegetation
107 (i.e. *Fucus sp.*) protects those at the sheltered site during aerial exposure. Mussels were sampled in early
108 September 2007.

110 *Attachment strength*

111 Attachment strength was measured as described by Bell and Gosline (1997) and Babarro and Carrington
112 (2011). A mussel was connected to a spring scale (Kern MH, resolution of 0.01N) with a thin monofilament
113 fishing line through a 0.2-cm diameter hole drilled through the shell valves, close to the posterior margin.
114 The spring scale was pulled perpendicular (normal) to the substratum until dislodgement occurred and the
115 peak dislodgment force was recorded. Sample size was approximately 100 mussels per site spanning size
116 classes of mussels ranging of 2 - 8 cm shell length, at 0.5 cm intervals; mussels smaller than 2 cm shell
117 length were not included because collection would damage their byssus structure. Following Carrington et
118 al. (2009), attachment strength was divided by mussel size (planform area) to obtain tenacity in N m^{-2} .

120 *Morphometrics: animals and byssus*

121 After dislodgment, individual shell dimensions were measured along the antero-posterior (shell length),
122 dorso-ventral (shell height) and lateral axis (shell width) to the nearest millimeter with vernier callipers.
123 Shell planform area was approximated as an ellipse with shell height and width as major and minor axes,
124 respectively (Bell and Gosline 1997). Image analysis (IA) was performed for shell area using the software

125 QWin (© Leica Imaging Systems) on a PC (AMD Athlon XP 3000+) connected to a video camera (Leica IC
126 A) on a stereo microscope (Leica MZ6). Camera and light settings were established at the beginning of the
127 analysis and kept constant throughout the whole analysis. Shell thickness was estimated as shell mass *versus*
128 surface area ratio (Beadman et al. 2003).

129 Byssal threads were collected from mussels adjacent to those used for dislodgement measurements. Thread
130 thickness secreted by the mussels *in situ* was measured by Image Analysis (IA), performed on 20-30 threads
131 per size class of individuals (2 - 8 cm shell length, at 1 cm intervals). Here, thread thickness is the diameter
132 of the major axis of the distal region (Bell and Gosline 1997).

133

134 *Gonadal index*

135 Gonadal index of mussels used for tenacity measurements was the proportion of mussel biomass composed
136 of mantle tissue (site of gametogenesis in *Mytilus*; Carrington 2002; Babarro and Carrington 2011). Wet
137 mantle was dissected from the wet body and together with the rest of organs were freeze-dried for 48 hours.
138 Samples were weighed to the nearest 0.001 g and gonadal index was calculated as the dry weight of the
139 mantle divided by the whole soft body (sum of the dry weight of the mantle and remaining tissues).

140

141 *Byssus secretion in the laboratory: the effect of flow speed and body size*

142 To explore possible causes for the observed patterns in tenacity between sites (see Results), we conducted a
143 laboratory study to investigate how byssus production and strength varies with flow speed for different
144 mussel size classes (4, 6 and 8 cm shell length). Mussels were carefully collected from a raft culture in the
145 Ría de Vigo and transported to the laboratory and maintained in an open flow system following Babarro and
146 Fernández Reiriz (2010). Briefly, an input flow was distributed into the series of four 19-litre experimental
147 tanks at 0.10 cm s^{-1} . The tanks were of open flow design using filtered ($10 \mu\text{m}$) seawater (Cartridge CUNO
148 Super Micro-Wynd $10 \mu\text{m}$) with controlled salinity and temperature values of 35.5‰ and 15°C, respectively.
149 The filtered seawater was supplemented with a mixture of microalgae (Tahitian *Isochrysis* aff. *galbana*, T-

150 ISO) and sediment from the seafloor below the rafts (40:60 microalgae:sediment, by weight) supplied with a
151 peristaltic pump at constant flow, so that particulate material load was maintained at 1.0 mg l^{-1} with an
152 organic content of 50%, simulating the mean values of food availability for the animals in their natural
153 environment of Galician Rías (Babarro et al. 2000).

154 Animals of different size were exposed to several water velocities for 24-h in a custom flume. The
155 flume volume was 1720 L (from above: 320 cm length x 60 cm width x 40 cm water depth). The rectangular
156 working section was 80 cm x 60 cm x 40 cm (L x W x H). The water flowed through a system of
157 collimators (PVC pipes 2 cm opening diameter x 100 cm length), positioned at 40 cm from the inlet and 40
158 cm upstream of the working section, removing large-scale turbulence. Flow in the chamber was generated by
159 a variable speed axial flow pump and was measured to the nearest cm s^{-1} using a flow meter (2D-ACM
160 Falmouth Scientific, Inc. Cataumet, MA 02534 USA). The flume used filtered seawater (Cartridge CUNO
161 Super Micro-Wynd $10 \mu\text{m}$) with controlled salinity and temperature values of 35.5‰ and 15°C , respectively.
162 Phytoplankton and sediment were pulsed in daily, as in the maintenance tanks. Care was taken to ensure that
163 the microalgae added as food for the mytilids were well mixed in the chamber and that the chamber was
164 operating at the average tested velocity. In the working section of the flume, animals were fixed to vertical
165 posts using 5 minute epoxy (Imedio S.A. Madrid, Spain) and suspended 0.6 cm above a slate tile platform
166 with the posterior end facing upstream, as shown by Carrington et al. (2008). Two platforms were used for
167 each trial, covering the flume tank width. Mussels were mounted near the anterior portion of the post to
168 reducing flow obstruction and were separated by one shell length.

169 Twelve mussels from each size class were exposed to a range of unidirectional water velocities, from 3 to 52
170 cm s^{-1} . Velocity in the vicinity of the experimental mussels was measured for each experimental trial. Thread
171 production was monitored for 7 velocities for each animal size class and the order of these velocities was
172 randomized among trials. In order to avoid continuous exposure of the same animals to consecutive flows
173 that could weaken their condition, animals used for one trial were returned to the maintenance system and
174 new set of animals were used for the following one. The seawater of the flume was aerated, maintained at 15

175 $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and renovated every two days. After 24-h trial, threads produced by each mussel were counted and
176 carefully cut from the stem for morphometric analysis of the whole byssus.

177 The tensile properties of byssal threads secreted by different size class mussels in each flow trial were
178 tested according to Bell and Gosline (1996), using an Instron-5565 tensometer. Maximum load (N), strain at
179 maximum load, initial modulus (MPa), yield force (N) and scaled (by thread thickness) force to break (N)
180 were measured for whole threads. All mechanical tests were conducted in seawater at $15 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and an
181 extension rate of 1 cm min^{-1} .

182 183 *Statistical analyses*

184 Analysis of slopes and intercepts of the linear relationships between shell parameters (and gonadal index)
185 against shell length of individuals of both mussel populations were performed following Zar (1999). Shell
186 area data were log transformed before analyses. Least squares regression equations describing the
187 dependence of mussel tenacity, shell morphometrics and distal byssus thickness on mussel size were used to
188 estimate relative differences in scaling relationships between the two experimental populations. Mussel
189 attachment force (in newtons) was plotted against the square of the byssus thickness values.

190 Two-way ANOVA was used to test for the effects of mussel size and flow speed on production rate
191 and mechanical properties of byssus secreted in the laboratory flume. Two-way ANOVA was also used to
192 estimate the effects of experimental location and mussel size on the byssus thickness secreted by the
193 individuals in the field. Independency of the cases was assumed and normality was checked with Shapiro-
194 Wilk tests. Homoscedasticity was established using Levene's test and homogenous groups among
195 experimental mussels could be established *a posteriori* using Tukey and Fisher tests. When variances were
196 not homogenous, non-parametric tests Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney were used. All analyses were
197 performed using STATISTICA 6.0 (Statsoft Inc. USA).

Results

Attachment strength

Mussel tenacity as a function of individual size and habitat is illustrated in Figure 2A. Tenacity varied regardless of the mussel size ($p>0.05$) in the sheltered population with mean values of $5.8 \pm 1.8 \text{ N m}^{-2} \times 10^{-4}$ (Figure 2A). However, a decrease in tenacity was reported with increased size in the exposed mussel population (Figure 2A). Consequently, magnitude of differences in mussel tenacity between sites decreased with body size of mussels, from 59% stronger tenacity in small size classes (2-3.5 cm shell length) for the exposed population to 33% for larger size classes (4-6 cm shell length; Figure 2A).

A significant inverse relationship was obtained for the mussel tenacity and gonadal index when all samples are combined (Figure 2B). Mussel from the exposed population tended to have higher tenacity and lower gonad condition.

Mussel morphometry and gonadal index

Mussel morphometry measurements for different size classes are presented in Figure 3A-D. Mussels at the exposed site were more cylindrical, with lower ($p<0.001$; Table 1) but wider shells (for mussels > 3 cm shell length, $p<0.001$; Table 1) as compared to the sheltered population (Figure 3A-B). Differences in shell height between populations were independent of mussel size as indicated by the similar slope value (20% lower shells for the exposed population as mean value; Figure 3A; Table 1) but differences in shell width increased with size of individuals up to 9% wider shells for larger size classes of the exposed population (4-6 cm shell length; Figure 3B) according to significantly higher slope value (Table 1). Projected area of the shell increased with size of individuals but distinctly depending on mussel population as reported by the different slope value of the linear relationships (Table 1; Figure 3C). Consequently, differences between populations in shell area of individuals decreased with mussel size from 25% smaller shells for 2-3.5 cm shell length size classes of the exposed mussels to 13% smaller shells for 4-6 cm shell length size classes (Figure 3C). Shell

224 thickness increased linearly with size and was significantly higher in the exposed population over the entire
225 size range (Figure 3D) ($p < 0.001$ for the intercept analysis; Table 1).

226 Gonadal index increased linearly with mussel size in both populations; values were approximately 2-fold
227 higher in the sheltered site ($p < 0.001$ for the intercept analysis; Table 1) compared to the exposed population
228 (Figure 3E).

230 *Byssus (field): thickness*

231 Thickness of the byssus secreted in the field by different mussel sizes is presented in Figure 4A. Mussel size
232 and habitat were significantly correlated with the distal thread diameter secreted by the mussels. Byssus
233 distal thickness increased with mussel size in both exposed and sheltered populations ($p < 0.001$; Kruskal-
234 Wallis test; Figure 4A). The effect of site was also significant for the whole mussel size range analysed
235 ($p < 0.001$; Mann-Whitney test; Figure 4A) with distal sections of the byssus 28% (2-3 cm shell length) and
236 14% (4-6 cm shell length) thicker in the exposed mussels as compared to sheltered population (Figure 4A).
237 A significant relationship between byssus distal diameter (as transformed values to the square of thickness)
238 and attachment force (in Newtons) was obtained for the two mussel populations with equal pattern (Figure
239 4B).

241 *Byssus (laboratory): amount of threads, thickness and mechanical properties*

242 The amount of byssus secreted by different mussel size groups maintained in the laboratory decreased with
243 flow speed ($p < 0.001$; Table 2A; Figure 5A). However, the latter decrease in byssus production was not equal
244 for each mussel size, as shown by the interaction term (size x flow; $p < 0.05$; Table 2A). Large mussels (8 cm
245 shell length) secreted fewer byssal threads as compared to smaller size classes (6 and 4 cm shell length) with
246 a steady value of 14 ± 2 threads within the velocity range of $3-36 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ and a drop in byssus secretion at
247 higher flow speeds (Figure 5A). On the contrary, a continuous decrease in byssus secretion with increased
248 flow speed was observed for 4 cm and 6 cm shell length size class animals ($p < 0.001$; Figure 5A). For these

249 smaller two size classes, thread production ranged 20-25 threads secreted in calm waters (3 cm s^{-1}) and
250 decreased to 6-8 threads at the highest flow speed tested (52 cm s^{-1} , Figure 5A).

251 Mechanical properties of the byssus secreted by different mussel size groups exposed to a range of
252 flow speeds in the laboratory are reported in Tables 3-4 and Figure 5B. Mussel size strongly affected all
253 tensile properties of byssal threads ($p < 0.001$) and for the specific case of scaled force to break such effect
254 was also dependent on flow regime (see interaction terms in Table 2B). Scaled force values were highest for
255 the largest mussel size (8 cm shell length) facing calm waters (1.24 N) although a significant drop was
256 observed with flow speed increased (Figure 5B). Scaled force of the byssus secreted by the other mussel size
257 classes did not vary significantly with regard to flow speed ($p > 0.05$) and represented mean values of 0.57
258 ± 0.07 (range: 0.48-0.65 N) and 0.27 ± 0.05 (range: 0.23-0.33 N) for 6 cm and 4 cm shell length classes,
259 respectively (Figure 5B).

260 Maximum load and strain values of the byssus varied according to mussel size and flow speed (Table 3).
261 Both load and strain values of the byssus increased with size of individuals and were highest for the largest
262 mussels facing calm seawater (Table 3). In contrast, an increase in the flow speed caused a significant drop
263 in both mechanical properties (Table 3).

264 Distal yield and modulus of the byssus secreted in the laboratory varied regardless of flow speed but as
265 a positive (yield) and negative (modulus) function of mussel size ($p < 0.001$; Table 4). Distal byssus thickness
266 increased with size of individuals ($p < 0.001$; Kruskal-Wallis test; Table 4) but varied regardless of flow
267 speed tested in the laboratory ($p = 0.050$; Kruskal-Wallis test).

268 Overall, we note that mussel size had a larger impact on thread mechanics than flow speed. There was
269 an increase of load, strain and yield of the byssus with mussel size whereas stiffness dropped significantly.
270 Flow speed, however, caused a decrease in maximum load and extensibility values as well as scaled force to
271 break for the specific case of large mussels.

274 Discussion

275 Shape of individuals was clearly modified by habitat within the same estuary. Mussels living at the rougher
276 exposed site produced lower and wider shells (Figure 3A-B), perhaps due to strong differences in the
277 hydrodynamic forcing between the experimental sites (see Babarro and Carrington 2011). For a given water
278 velocity, reduced mussel shell area would cause a minor hydrodynamic force acting on the mussel (Denny
279 1995; Zardi et al. 2006). By modifying their shape, mussels living at the exposed site would offer better
280 resistance to wave dislodgement (Price 1980; 1982; Bell and Gosline 1997; Hunt and Scheibling 2001;
281 Carrington 2002; Steffani & Branch 2003; Babarro and Carrington 2011).

282 Mussels from the exposed population allocated relatively more energy to protective tissues (byssal
283 attachment and shell thickness; Figures 2A and 3D) and less energy to soft tissue growth (i.e. gonadal index;
284 Figure 3E). Similar trade-off patterns were previously reported by Raubenheimer and Cook (1990),
285 Carrington (2002) and Moeser and Carrington (2006). Shell thickness was significantly higher for the
286 exposed population (Figure 3D), which would promote the ability to withstand the destructive, erosive
287 effects of wave action. However, the influence of other factors, like predation and age, may also influence
288 shell thickness. First, we can note that distribution of the gastropod *Nucella lapillus*, one of the greatest
289 predators on littoral mussel populations in Ría de Vigo, is similar between exposed and sheltered sites
290 (Barreiro et al. 1999). Second, although age can affect inter-population variation in shell morphology
291 (Raubenheimer and Cook 1990), shell thickness differences in the present survey were reported for the
292 whole size range analysed (Figure 3D) and are most likely associated to differences in wave-action stress
293 because both intertidal mussel seed populations are subjected to similar aerial exposure (see Materials and
294 Methods) and would come from the same early summer spawning season. The significant negative
295 relationship between mussel tenacity and gonadal index reported here for the exposed population (Figure
296 2B) suggests these mussels cannot afford to investing energy simultaneously to both byssus and reproductive
297 tissues; natural resources available in the sheltered site, along with a calmer water motion, would have
298 allowed these animals to channel energy to attachment strength and gametogenesis with no restrictions. Our

299 results agree with the study of Zardi et al. (2007) that highlighted a negative relationship between mussel
300 attachment and gonadosomatic index despite the latter authors also indicated that such a link could be
301 coincidental and have no biological meaning. The strong relationship found in our survey between
302 attachment strength and gonadal index might be a consequence of considering juveniles (not sexually
303 mature) and adults in the same analysis which might have masked the competing strategies between byssus
304 secretion and reproduction.

305 Tenacity of mussels living at the exposed site was significantly higher than the sheltered site,
306 particularly for the smaller size classes (Figure 2A). Moreover, tenacity of the exposed individuals dropped
307 significantly with mussel size whereas values for the sheltered population kept a rather constant pattern
308 (Figure 2A). The ability of mussels to adjust the secretion rate of byssal threads represents a key parameter
309 for explaining attachment strength variability. The counting of byssus filaments *in situ*, however, is difficult
310 because of the interconnection of byssus among tightly clustered individuals. Theoretically, one might
311 expect that higher attachment strength of the exposed mussels would be consequence of higher thread
312 secretion. Indeed, Seed and Suchanek (1992) suggested that “*Mytilus* detects and responds to movement by
313 wave energy ...by the production of increased numbers of byssal threads”. However, such hypothesis was
314 not confirmed in the present survey. Byssus secretion per individual declined with increased flow speed in
315 the flume (Figure 5A), indicating flow inhibited rather than stimulated thread secretion (see also Moeser et
316 al. 2006 and Carrington et al. 2008). Carrington and co-workers suggested that flow would impose physical
317 limitation for the foot organ to be extended properly beyond the margin of the shell long enough to mold and
318 attach a new thread.

319 Increased byssal thread thickness is another way of increasing tenacity, and is often quantified in the
320 distal section (Figure 4A-B; Bell and Gosline 2007). Variation in distal byssus thickness was previously
321 reported in *M. galloprovincialis*, either for mussels of different size and condition kept in laboratory
322 (Babarro et al. 2008; Babarro and Fernández Reiriz 2010) or linked to different field sites (Babarro and
323 Carrington 2011). In this study, mussel attachment force increased with byssus thickness (Figure 4B),

324 although this does not entirely account for differences in mussel tenacity between sites especially for smaller
325 size classes (Figure 2A, 4A). This gap might be filled with other factors like mechanical properties of the
326 byssus which would allow mussels to secrete stronger and stiffer threads in wave exposed sites (Babarro and
327 Carrington 2011). This idea is extended in Figure 6. Differences in tenacity and distal byssus thickness
328 between exposed and sheltered mussels were evident for lower size classes but not for large size classes. For
329 a given size class, differences in shell area also tended to disappear in large mussels (Figure 6).
330 Consequently, tenacity differences between populations were high enough to compensate the increase in
331 shell projected area of growing individuals although for a given mussel size > 6 cm shell length, we can
332 hypothesize that differences between mussel populations would be narrower (Figure 6). This would mean
333 that the exposed site would be a restricted environment for larger size mussels and might represent the basis
334 to explain their absence in the field.

335 The amount of byssus secreted dropped with mussel size and flow speed in the laboratory flume experiments
336 (Figure 5A). This result, along with the mechanical properties of the byssus (Tables 3-4; Figure 5B) allowed
337 us to evaluate both size and flow speed as key parameters for explaining relatively weaker attachment of
338 larger animals facing rougher conditions. Large mussels (8 cm shell length) generally secreted fewer, but
339 mechanically superior byssal threads. However, high flow decreased thread mechanical performance (lower
340 extensibility and scaled force to break values), which would make these animals weaker in high energy
341 environments (Table 3; Figure 5B). Moeser et al. (2006) highlighted that seasonal variability in attachment
342 strength based on thread secretion may not match always changes in wave action, suggesting that other
343 factors like thread decay and material properties of filaments would play a role. We can assume that wave
344 action in nature may be even far more important than flow for byssus formation and consequently, it is
345 possible to hypothesize that field exposed site may limit the maximum size of mussels by constraining their
346 ability to produce a byssus strong enough to resist dislodgment.

347 Wave action has been suggested to be the strongest predictor of byssal attachment strength of bivalves (Hunt
348 and Scheibling 2001; Lachance et al. 2008) and represents a qualitative term that refers to small-scale

349 turbulence superimposed on a directional current exposing mussels to different potential stimuli for byssus
350 secretion (e.g. mean flow, acceleration and hydrodynamic loading of the byssal retractor muscle; see Moeser
351 et al. 2006). From these stimuli, flow has been reported to be the primary cue for increased thread production
352 in *M. edulis* (Van Winkle, 1970 and Lee et al., 1990 among others) and therefore, it was considered in the
353 present survey as valid hydrodynamic indicator of high energy environment assuming most likely
354 differences between mean flow tested in the laboratory and wave action in nature. Differences in the wave
355 activity between exposed and sheltered populations within Ría de Vigo (Babarro and Carrington 2011) are
356 likely related to mussel tenacity differences documented here. Nevertheless, it is plausible to hypothesize
357 that wave action itself, in our environment, would be not sufficient to explain the absence of larger mussel
358 sizes (> 6 cm shell length) at the rougher sites (see Material and Methods). According to equations that relate
359 predicted scaled hydrodynamic forces as a function of water velocity (see Figure 6 in Zardi et al. 2006), *M.*
360 *galloprovincialis* in our survey should have experienced seawater flows of 13-15 m s⁻¹ to rupture the
361 strength value generated in the field which is actually very unlikely to occur in Ría de Vigo.

362 Here, we report large animals are more vulnerable to wave action as consequence of lower byssus
363 quantity and quality secreted in high flow environments. Larger size mussels under high flow produced
364 weaker and less extensible byssus, key properties for enhancing attachment strength of mussels in nature
365 (Bell and Gosline 1996). Our results illustrate the importance of environmental factors within an embayment
366 that modifies mussel morphology through shifts in energy allocation between protective (byssus, shell
367 parameters) and soft tissues. Distal byssus thickness represents a key value to explain attachment strength
368 differences in the habitat and mussel size comparisons.

369 370 371 **Acknowledgements**

372 We would like to thank E. Silva Caride for technical assistance in the field and laboratory and C.
373 Craig for mechanical analysis of the byssus. J.M.F.B. also thanks support and help provided by José

374 Luis Garrido. This study was partly funded by “National Science Foundation EF1041213 to E.
375 Carrington. We also acknowledge two main reviewers that significantly improved quality of the
376 manuscript with useful comments. JMF Babarro acknowledges the funding of the projects AGL2006-
377 06986/ACU and AGL2010-16464 (Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación, Spanish Government).

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Table 1. Regressions of height, width, projected area and thickness values of the shell as well as gonadal index against shell length of individuals.

Linear regressions $Y = a + b X$ (values of shell projected area were log transformed to obtain linear functions)

		a = intercept (SD)	b =slope (SD)	n	r
shell height	exposed	0.585 (0.151)	0.366 (0.036)	9	0.918
	sheltered	0.767 (0.184)	0.451 (0.036)	12	0.969
		t = 5.781; df = 18; P<0.001	t = 1.444; df = 17; ns common slope: 0.427		
shell width	exposed	-0.131 (0.073)	0.451 (0.017)	9	0.995
	sheltered	0.256 (0.078)	0.327 (0.015)	12	0.989
		t = 4.843; df = 17; P<0.001			
shell projected area	exposed	-1.493 (0.080)	1.784 (0.058)	9	0.989
	sheltered	-1.013 (0.105)	1.563 (0.068)	12	0.978
		t = 2.233; df = 17; P<0.05			
shell thickness	exposed	50.486 (19.781)	47.535 (4.706)	9	0.967
	sheltered	-1.462 (4.308)	42.449 (7.872)	12	0.863
		t = 4.231; df = 18; P<0.001	t = 0.427; df = 17; ns common slope: 43.884		
gonadal index	exposed	-2.562 (0.4394)	3.544 (1.045)	9	0.788
	sheltered	7.152 (2.930)	2.486 (0.572)	12	0.808
		t = 3.086; df = 18; P<0.001	t = 0.924; df = 17; ns common slope: 2.785		

The standard deviation on the slopes and intercepts are given between parentheses and the r^2 estimates the proportion of the total variation explained by the regression model. ns, not significant.

In case slopes are different, analysis of intercepts was not performed (see Zar, 1999)

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Table 2. Two-way ANOVA of byssal thread secretion by *M. galloprovincialis* as a function of mussel size (fixed: 4, 6 and 8-cm shell length) and flow (fixed: 3-52 cm s⁻¹). ns: not significant . A) Number of threads secreted (see Fig 5A). B) Scaled force to break (see Fig 5B)

A				
Factor	DF	MS	F	P
size	2	0.246	1.048	ns
flow	6	1.479	6.312	<0.001
size x flow	12	0.464	1.982	<0.05
Error	202	0.234		

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B				
Factor	DF	MS	F	P
size	2	19.157	140.087	<0.001
flow	6	0.277	2.025	ns
size x flow	12	0.455	3.330	<0.001
Error	165	0.137		

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Table 3. Ultimate mechanical properties of laboratory produced byssal threads of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* as a function of size (SL = shell length) and flow speed. Values are means \pm SD (N=10-14). Results of a two-way ANOVA of the data are presented below. ns: not significant

SL (cm)	load (N)			strain (mm/mm)				
	4	6	8	4	6	8		
Flow (cm s ⁻¹)								
3	0.36 \pm 0.13	0.78 \pm 0.13	1.15 \pm 0.36	1.13 \pm 0.57	1.91 \pm 0.44	2.69 \pm 0.71		
8	0.49 \pm 0.26	0.61 \pm 0.21	1.12 \pm 0.34	1.02 \pm 0.32	1.17 \pm 0.37	2.13 \pm 0.59		
18	0.29 \pm 0.09	0.54 \pm 0.16	0.96 \pm 0.22	1.05 \pm 0.40	1.49 \pm 0.63	1.66 \pm 0.53		
24	0.36 \pm 0.21	0.51 \pm 0.12	0.94 \pm 0.37	0.96 \pm 0.55	1.16 \pm 0.35	1.84 \pm 0.68		
36	0.30 \pm 0.08	0.56 \pm 0.24	0.94 \pm 0.41	1.00 \pm 0.32	1.40 \pm 0.48	1.51 \pm 0.65		
47	0.44 \pm 0.10	0.58 \pm 0.16	0.91 \pm 0.25	0.71 \pm 0.34	1.41 \pm 0.48	1.62 \pm 0.67		
52	0.35 \pm 0.12	0.55 \pm 0.21	0.84 \pm 0.24	0.93 \pm 0.42	1.57 \pm 0.36	1.73 \pm 0.70		
ANOVA	DF	MS	F	P	DF	MS	F	P
size	2	16.398	139.741	<0.001	2	7.867	41.898	<0.001
flow	6	0.373	3.179	<0.01	6	0.650	3.463	<0.01
size x flow	12	0.120	1.024	ns	12	0.220	1.171	ns
Error	192	0.117			188	0.188		

Table 4. Selected mechanical (yield, modulus) and morphological (distal thickness) properties of laboratory produced byssal threads of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* as a function of size (SL=shell length). Values are means \pm SD (N=10-14 and 35-45 for mechanical and morphological values, respectively). No significant effect of flow speed was observed.

SL (cm)	4	6	8
yield (N)	0.23 \pm 0.03	0.37 \pm 0.06	0.54 \pm 0.04
modulus (MPa)	138.24 \pm 23.19	78.28 \pm 21.86	62.11 \pm 15.19
distal thickness (μ m)	66.21 \pm 8.47	109.51 \pm 9.08	141.50 \pm 8.66

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Experimental sites in Ría de Vigo (NW Spain). Cabo Estay (CE) and San Simón (SS) are the outer exposed and inner sheltered locations of the survey, respectively.

Figure 2. A) Tenacity of field collected mussels as a function of size (shell length) and habitat. Symbols are means \pm SD (N=3-5 for each mussel size class). Lines are linear regressions (continuous line CE: $y = -2.169x + 18.61$; $r^2 = 0.76$; $P < 0.001$ and dashed line SS: $y = -0.044x + 6.38$; $r^2 = 0.002$; ns). B) Mussel tenacity decreases exponentially with gonadal index when the two mussel populations are pooled according to the exponential function: $y = 39.26 x^{-0.647}$; $r^2 = 0.56$; $P < 0.05$.

Figure 3. Morphological relationships, scaled to shell length, of mussels collected from the two field sites. A-D) shell height, shell width, shell area and shell thickness. E) gonadal index of mussels as a function of shell length and field site. Symbols are means \pm SD (N=3-5 for each mussel size class). Lines are linear regressions (see legend of Figure 2 A for explanation). Slope and intercept values of these linear relationships are presented in Table 1.

Figure 4. Scaling relationships of field-produced byssal threads from the two sites. A) Thread thickness (measured in the distal section) increases with shell length and trend is elevated in the exposed site. B) Relationship between attachment strength of the mussels and thread diameter of the distal portions (as square values of thread thickness) considering both mussel populations.

Figure 5. Summary of laboratory produced byssal threads as a function of mussel size and flow speed. Symbols are means \pm SD (N=10-14). A) Number of threads produced in 24 hours. B) Scaled force to break byssal threads.

Figure 6. A comparison of key biomechanical and morphological scaling relationships between the two field sites. Small mussels from the exposed site have relatively stronger tenacity, thicker byssal threads and smaller shell area (exposed relative to sheltered). The relative differences between sites decrease with increasing shell length.

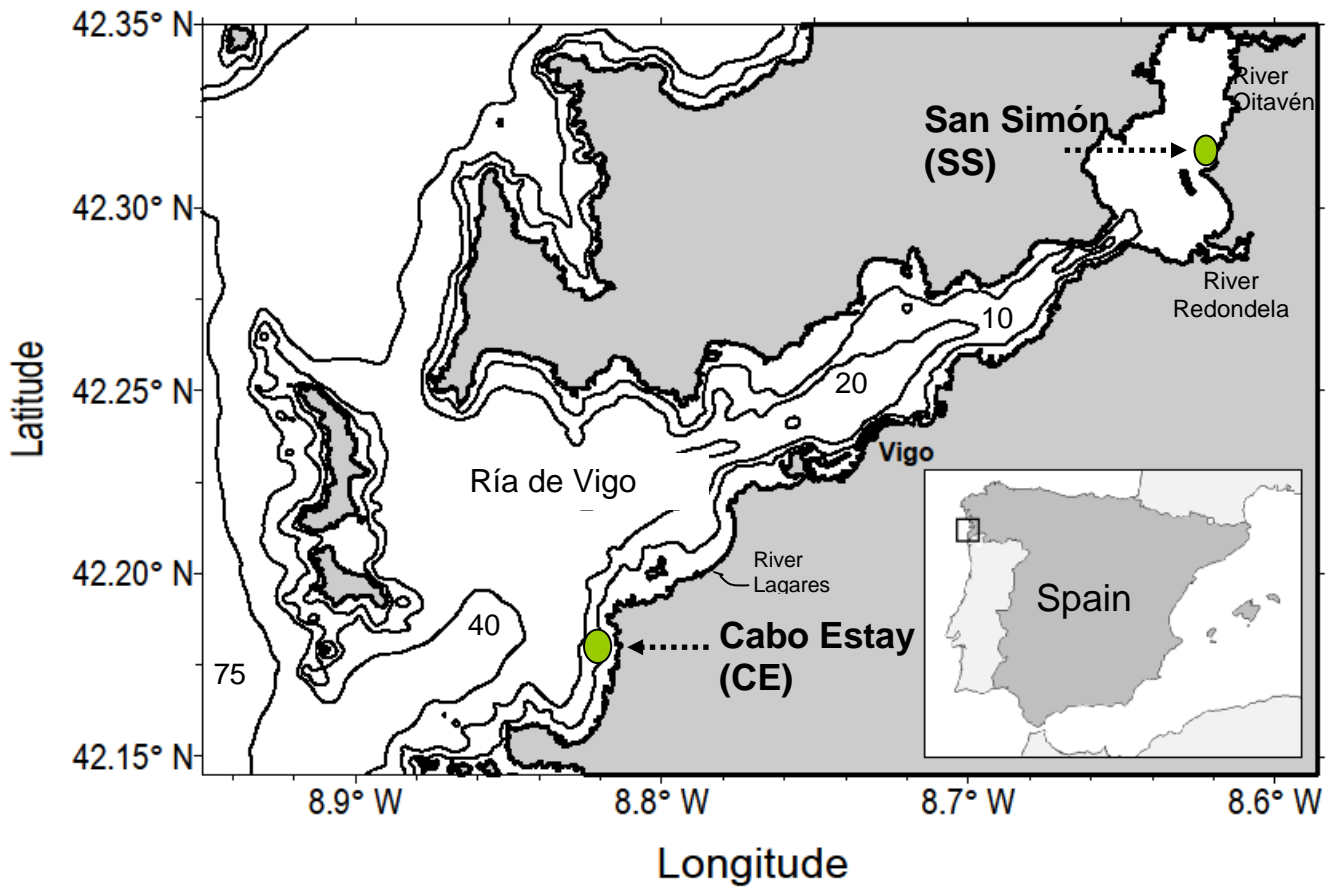
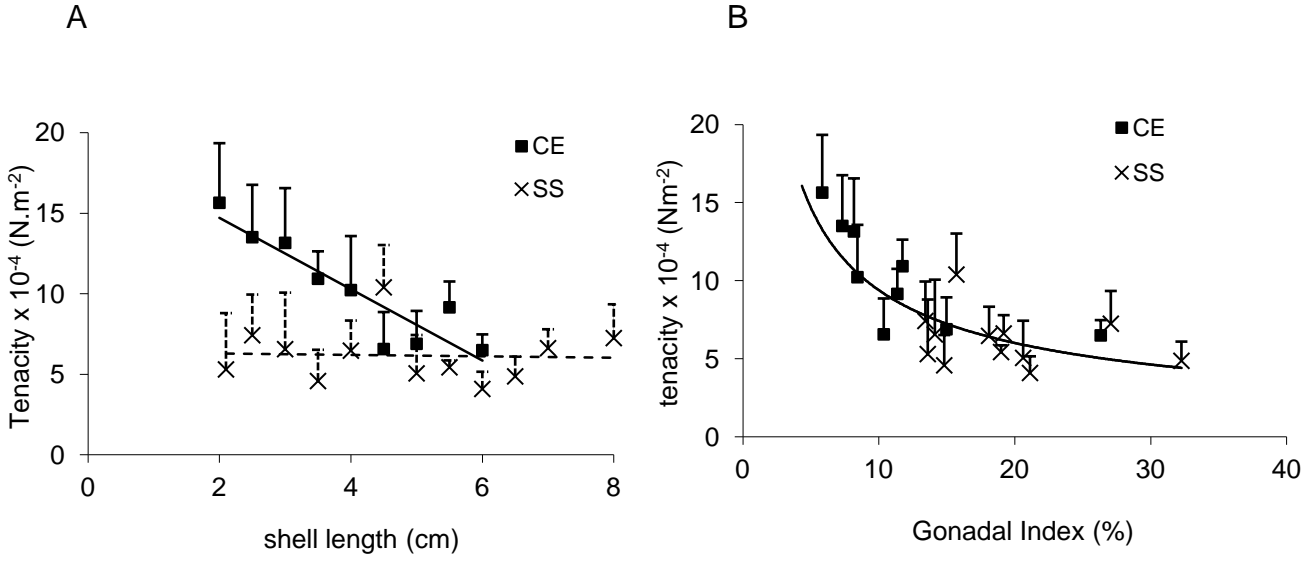


Figure 1

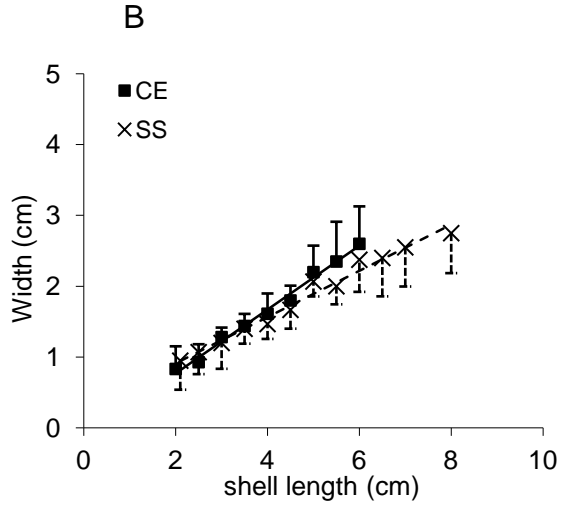
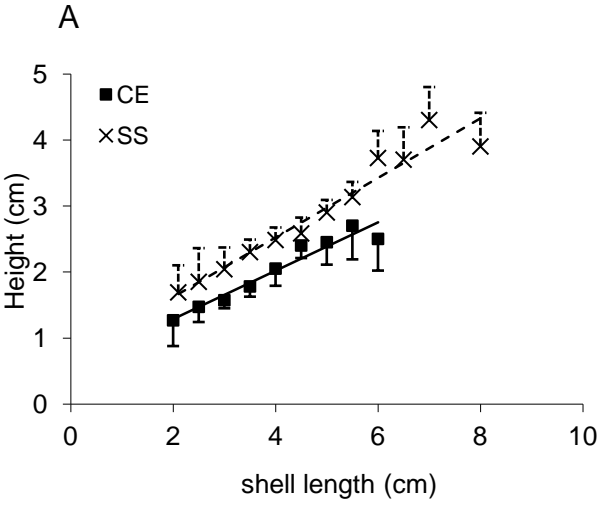
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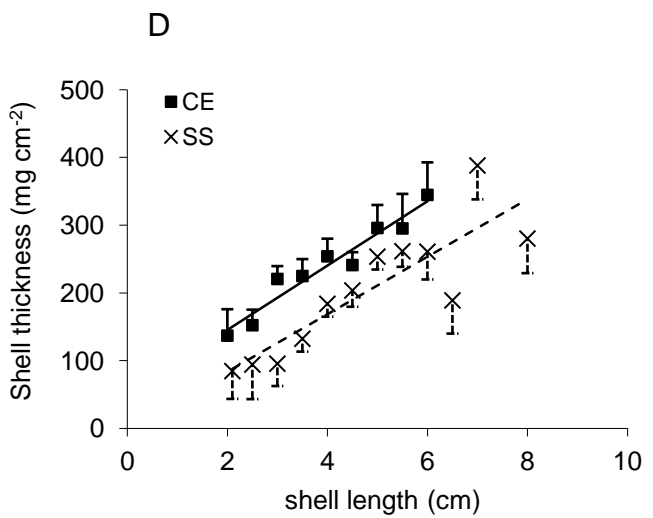
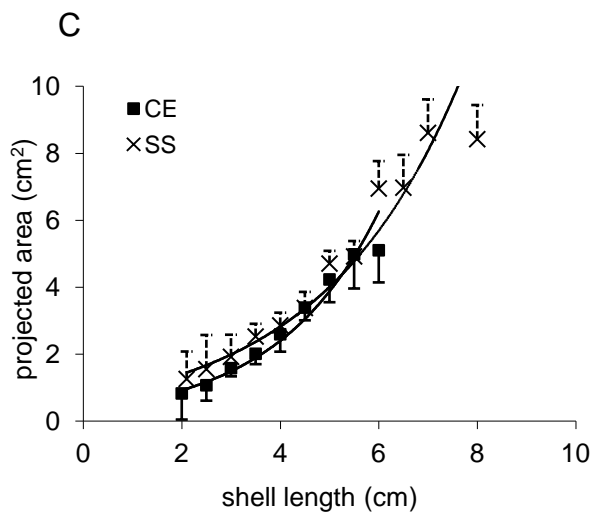
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Figure 2

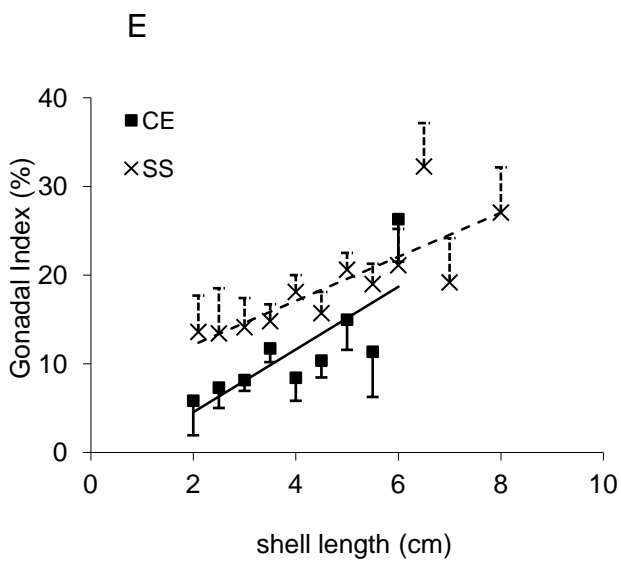
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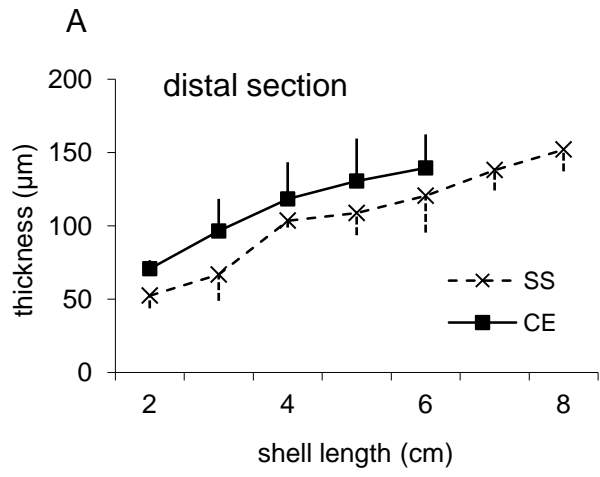
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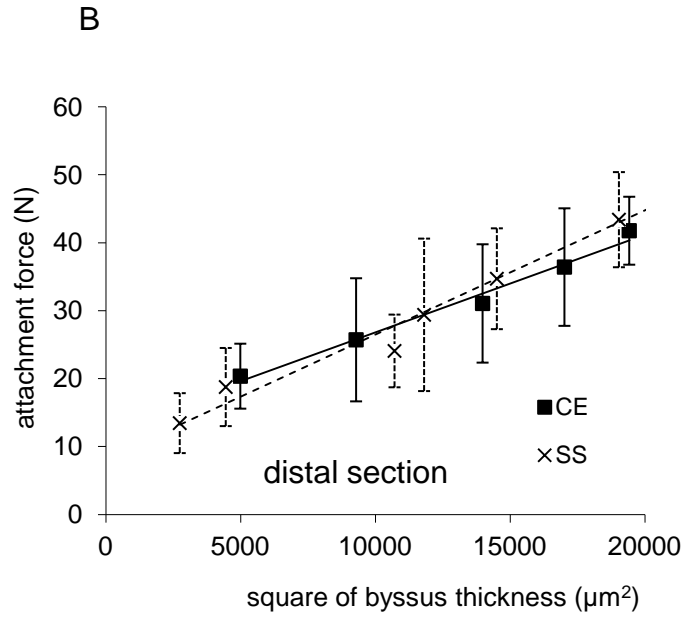
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Figure 3

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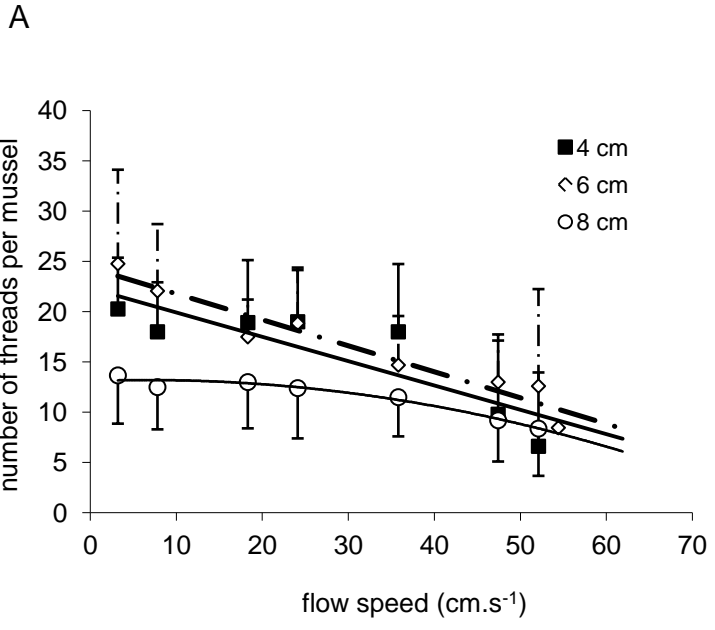
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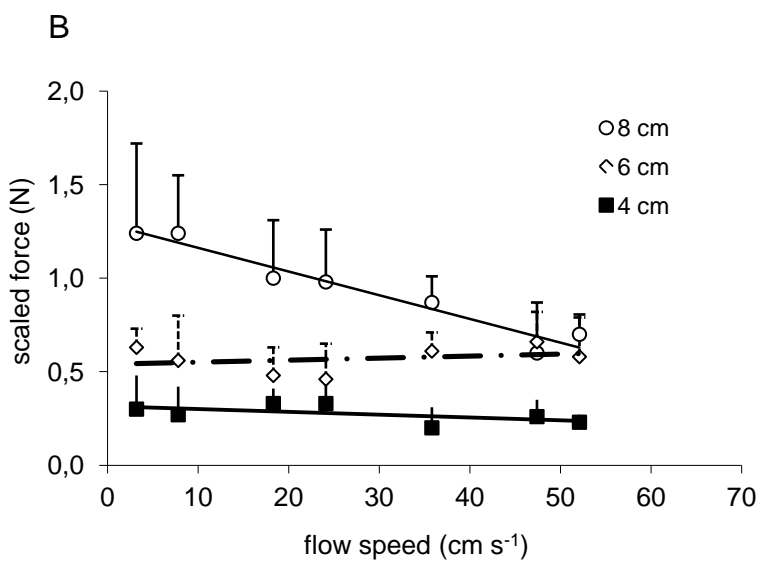
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Figure 4

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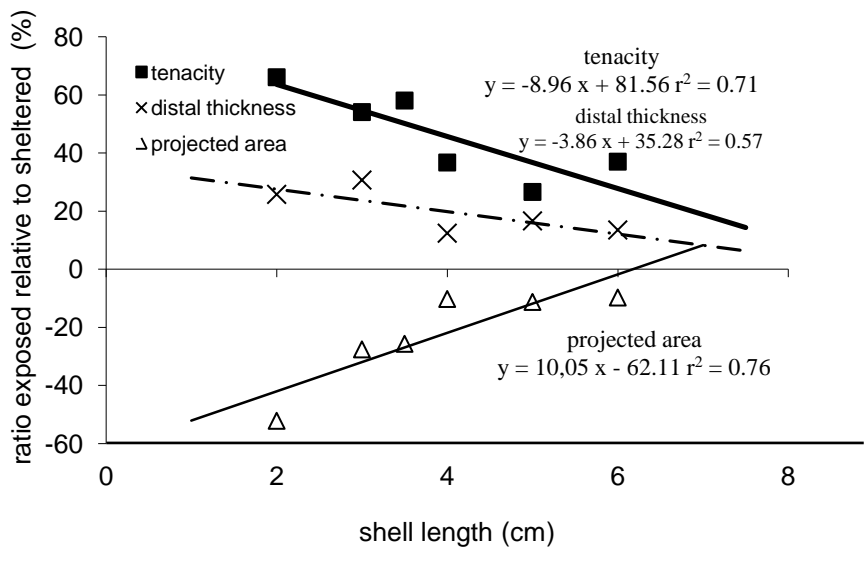


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Figure 5



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Figure 6