

1 Running Head: Valve gaping in invasive and indigenous mytilids

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3 **Narrow valve gaping in the invasive mussel *Limnoperna securis*:**  
4 **implications for competition with the indigenous mussel *Mytilus***  
5 ***galloprovincialis* in NW Spain**

6

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12 **Abstract**

13 The black pygmy mussel *Limnoperna securis* (Lamarck 1819) is endemic to the brackish waters  
14 of New Zealand and Australia but over the past decade has successfully invaded the inner  
15 Galician Rias of NW Spain. There is growing concern that *L. securis* will expand its range to the  
16 outer zones of the Rias, where it would pose a threat to the intensive raft culture of the  
17 indigenous mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Lamarck 1819). In this paper, we compare the  
18 valve-opening behaviour of the two mytilids under simulated raft conditions, i.e., full-strength  
19 seawater ( $35 \text{ g l}^{-1}$ ) and a low current flow regime ( $2\text{--}5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ). Modes of valve opening  
20 amplitudes that were most frequently observed in both species were in the range of 60 to 90%,  
21 indicating a tendency towards full valve openness. Both species displayed circadian periodicity  
22 ( $\tau = 24 \text{ h}$ ): maximal gaping was generally observed during periods of darkness, and minimum  
23 gaping during daylight hours. The only prominent difference in behaviour between the two  
24 species was related to the degree of valve opening. The maximum recorded gape angle was  $8.2^\circ$   
25 ( $\text{SE} = 0.9$ ) for *L. securis* versus  $14.8^\circ$  ( $\text{SE} = 1.4$ ) for *M. galloprovincialis*. This difference may  
26 place *L. securis* at a competitive disadvantage on substrates where the two species coexist, such  
27 as over rocky shores or potentially mussel culture ropes.

28

29 **Key words:** *Limnoperna securis*; *Mytilus galloprovincialis*; pygmy mussel; raft culture; gaping;  
30 valvometry; circadian rhythm

31 **Introduction**

32

33 The black pygmy mussel *Limnoperna securis* (Lamarck 1819) is endemic to the brackish waters  
34 of New Zealand and Australia but has been introduced over the past several decades to Japan  
35 (Kimura et al. 1999), Spain (Garci et al. 2007) and Italy (Sabelli and Speranza 1994; Barbieri et  
36 al. 2011). *L. securis* colonizes various substrate types and establishes high-density populations  
37 which foul submerged structures (Garci et al. 2007; Pascual et al. 2010) and pose serious threats  
38 to indigenous faunal communities (Darrigran 2002). Recently it has been listed among the “100  
39 worst invasive species” in the Mediterranean Sea (Streftaris and Zenetos 2006).

40

41 In Galicia (NW Spain), the presence of *L. securis* was first recorded in 2002 in the Ria de Vigo  
42 (Garci et al. 2007) (Figure 1). More recent observations indicate that it has since expanded its  
43 range into the Ria de Pontevedra (Gestoso et al. 2012). The invasion is thus far confined to the  
44 inner parts of these Rias, possibly because low salinity favours the invader’s larval stages  
45 (Wilson 1969). Settled (adult) stage abundance increases with decreasing salinity (Gestoso et al.  
46 2012).

47

48 Although apparently confined to the inner Rias, there is new information suggesting that *L.*  
49 *securis* larvae can reach the outer areas of the Rias, where intensive raft culture of the indigenous  
50 mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Lamarck 1819) is carried out. The evidence is based on  
51 molecular detection of *L. securis* larvae in the stomach contents of a copepod sampled in the  
52 outer Ria de Vigo (Guerra et al. 2013). It is possible that the copepod consumed the larvae in the  
53 inner Ria, but the investigators concluded, based on the hydrographical forcing patterns in this

54 Ria, that the larva was likely transported by surface waters from the Verdugo River to the outer  
55 Ria. The hypothetical expansion of *L. securis*' range from the inner to the outer Rias raises a  
56 serious concern for the mussel farming industry in Galicia. If *L. securis* were to successfully  
57 colonise these outer areas, its larvae would likely settle onto the culture ropes, where they would  
58 not only compete for space and food, but also inevitably lead to serious farm husbandry and  
59 plant processing challenges. While the potential economic impact is difficult to assess, it is  
60 noteworthy that the culture of *M. galloprovincialis* in the outer Rias is carried out at a scale of  
61 250,000 tons per year, which represents about 40% of the European mussel production and 15%  
62 of the world's production (Labarta et al. 2004).

63  
64 The aim of the present study was to gain insight into the behaviour of settled *L. securis* in a  
65 marine environment. To date, this species has successfully invaded areas in the Galician Rias  
66 where the velocity of brackish water currents can be quite elevated due to riverine discharge,  
67 attaining for instance  $123 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  at the mouth of the Verdugo River (Babarro and Lassudrie  
68 2011). *L. securis* has a distinct cylindrical shape, which is presumably suited to dynamic  
69 environments such as those found at river mouths. A mussel culture raft, however, is an obstacle  
70 that reduces flow rates considerably within its structure. The maximum reported velocity within  
71 a raft in the outer Rias was  $30.7 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  (Camacho et al. 1995); average velocities range between  
72 2 and  $3 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  (Camacho et al. 1995; Petersen et al. 2008), similar to velocities recorded within  
73 rafts in Saldanha Bay South Africa (Boyd and Heasman 1998), where *M. galloprovincialis* is  
74 also farmed. Here we test the hypothesis that the invasive mussel *L. securis* responds negatively  
75 to low current velocities typical of raft culture. The hypothesis was tested by acclimating the two  
76 species, *L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis*, to a high salinity environment ( $35 \text{ g l}^{-1}$ ), and then

77 monitoring (1Hz) the degree of their valve opening in response to various flow regimes (2—40  
78 cm s<sup>-1</sup>). Our premise was that atypical valve activity, such as a tendency towards the closure of  
79 shell valves, is indicative of physiological stress and consequently of limited colonization  
80 potential.

81

82

### 83 **Methods**

84

#### 85 Field sampling and holding conditions

86

87 *M. galloprovincialis* and *L. securis* were collected from the sheltered intertidal coastline of the  
88 inner Ría de Vigo (San Simón 42° 19' 31" N, 8° 36' 77" W) where the two species currently  
89 coexist, forming monolayer beds competing for space and food. Collection was carefully  
90 achieved by scraping the rocks to avoid damaging the byssus gland or foot. Mussels were  
91 transported to the Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas in Vigo, where they were held in four 19-  
92 L holding tanks under the same conditions as described in Babarro and Fernández-Reiriz (2010).  
93 Tanks were continuously supplied with filtered (10 µm) seawater (35 g l<sup>-1</sup>, 15°C) supplemented  
94 with a mixture of microalgae (Tahitian *Isochrysis* aff. *galbana*, T-ISO) and sediment collected  
95 from the seafloor below the mussel culture rafts (40:60 microalgae:sediment, by weight).  
96 Particulate material load was maintained at 1.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> with an organic content percentage of  
97 50%, simulating mean food availability in the Galician Rías (Babarro et al. 2000).

#### 98 Flume tank environment

99

100 Prior to each experiment, randomly selected mussels, ranging in shell length from 31 to 39 mm,  
101 were transferred from the holding tanks to a circulating flume tank containing 1,720 L of aerated  
102 seawater ( $35 \text{ g l}^{-1}$ ,  $15^\circ\text{C}$ ) supplemented with the same food elements as described above. The  
103 custom flume tank is described in Babarro and Carrington (2013). Briefly, the working section of  
104 the tank into which the mussels were placed, had dimensions of 80 cm (length), by 60 cm  
105 (width), by 40 cm (water depth). To remove large-scale turbulence, the seawater flowed through  
106 a system of collimators (PVC pipes, 2-cm diameter opening  $\times$  100 cm long) positioned upstream  
107 of the working section. Flow was generated by an axial flow pump and was measured in the  
108 vicinity of the experimental mussels to the nearest  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  using a flow meter (2D-ACM Falmouth  
109 Scientific, Inc. Cataumet, MA 02534 USA).

110

111 Artificial lighting was limited to a 9-h period from 8:00-17:00 hrs. This background lighting was  
112 supplemented by natural light entering the building through large windows. While lighting  
113 intensity was not rigorously controlled, it was continuously monitored using Hobo UA-002 light  
114 loggers (Onset Computer Corporation, Massachusetts, USA), which were placed above the flume  
115 tank.

116

117 Valvometry

118

119 Valve opening was monitored using a valvometry system described in Nagai et al. (2006) and  
120 Comeau et al. (2012). The system allowed for the simultaneous monitoring of 24 individuals. A  
121 coated Hall element sensor (HW-300a, Asahi Kasei, Japan) was glued to one valve at the  
122 maximum distance from the hinge. Then a small magnet (4.8 mm diameter  $\times$  0.8 mm height) was

123 glued to the other valve, directly below the Hall sensor. The magnet and the Hall element weigh  
124 0.1 g and 0.5 g, respectively. For comparison purposes, a small (6-mm diameter) live barnacle  
125 weighs approximately 0.12 g. The magnetic field (flux density) between the sensor and magnet  
126 was a function of the gap between the two valves. The magnetic field in the form of output  
127 voltage ( $\mu\text{V}$ ) was acquired by strain recording devices (DC 104R, Tokyo Sokki Kenkyujo Co.,  
128 Japan). Output voltage was recorded at a frequency of 1 Hz and was subsequently converted into  
129 valve opening by applying conversion algorithms specific to each sensor assembly.

130

131 Flume vibrational noise

132

133 We were initially concerned about the vibrational noise created by the flume tank engine,  
134 particularly at times when the engine was operating at high flow regimes. For this reason, the  
135 effect of vibrational noise on mussel behaviour was tested by placing 8 mussels of each species  
136 into glass chambers inside the flume. These mussels were isolated from the flowing water, but  
137 were nevertheless exposed to the vibration and noise created by the flume engine. Valve opening  
138 was monitored using the valvometry system described above. The outcome indicated that  
139 opening amplitudes were similar between periods when the flume was operating at low and high  
140 velocities, suggesting that vibrational noise within the context of our experiments had no effect  
141 on valve gape behaviour.

142 Experimental design and statistics

143

144 Two experiments were conducted in the flume tank. The first experiment was designed to assess  
145 the mytilids' response to sustained flow. Twelve mussels of each species were exposed to a  
146 constant velocity of 3 cm s<sup>-1</sup>, a gradual increase from 3 to 40 cm s<sup>-1</sup>, and ultimately to a sustained  
147 peak in velocity of 40 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. The rise in velocity was performed during the daytime, whereas the  
148 low (3 cm s<sup>-1</sup>) and high (40 cm s<sup>-1</sup>) sustained treatments were applied during two consecutive  
149 night-time periods, specifically from 18:00 to 8:00 (14-h periods). The entire experiment was  
150 replicated once using a new cohort of mussels.

151

152 Statistical analyses were restricted to the low and high velocity night-time treatments and  
153 therefore excluded the daytime period of gradual increase in velocity. In order to standardize the  
154 data, a relative valve opening metric was computed as a percent of the maximal recorded  
155 opening amplitude specific to each individual. The metric was then partitioned into 10 ranges  
156 from 0 to 100% amplitude. Percent occurrence was calculated as the number of observations in a  
157 specified range (e.g., 0 to 10% amplitude) divided by the total number of observations (Tran et  
158 al. 2010). A mixed model analysis of variance (SPSS v. 20, procedure GLM) was used to test the  
159 main fixed effects (species and velocity) and their interactions on percent occurrence at the  
160 specified ranges of valve opening. The model can be summarized as follows:

161

$$162 \text{Occ}_{ijkl} = \mu + \text{Sp}_i + \text{Vel}_j + \text{Sp}_i \times \text{Vel}_j + \text{Rep}_{ijk}(\text{Sp}_i \times \text{Vel}_j) + \varepsilon_{ijkl}$$

163 where Occ is the percent occurrence at a specified range of valve opening (e.g., 0 to 10%),  $\mu$  is  
164 overall mean of the population, Sp represents species ( $i = 1$  [*M. galloprovincialis*],  $2$  [*L.*



165 *securis*),  $Vel$  is the current velocity ( $j = 1 [3 \text{ cm s}^{-1}]$ ,  $2 [40 \text{ cm s}^{-1}]$ ),  $Rep$  is the replicated  
166 experiment ( $k = 1, 2$ ), and  $\varepsilon$  is the model error. The replicated experiment ( $Rep$ ) was set as a  
167 random effect. Data were rank-transformed because variances were heterogeneous (Levene's  
168 test).

169

170 The second experiment was designed to assess behavioural responses to a tidally-driven current  
171 regime. In this experiment current velocity was automatically controlled by a computer; the  
172 program was set to create sinusoidal current profiles such as those generated by semi-diurnal  
173 tides. Velocity increased gradually over 3 hours, and thereafter decreased over another 3 hours,  
174 as it typically would during successive flood and ebb tides. Eight mussels of each species were  
175 exposed to low sinusoidal forcing ( $2\text{--}5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ) over 6 days; the same individuals were  
176 subsequently challenged to elevated sinusoidal forcing ( $2\text{--}25 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ) for another 6-day period.  
177 Mussels were positioned in the flume with their incurrent siphon and mantle margin facing  
178 upstream. At the end of the experiment, the adductor muscle was severed, and small calibration  
179 wedges were manoeuvred between the two valves at the point farthest from the hinge. Wedge  
180 height was 1–6 mm. The relationships between voltage and wedge height (i.e., valve opening)  
181 were non-linear and strong ( $r^2 > 0.90$ ). Valve opening (mm) data were converted into gape angles  
182 ( $\theta$  in degrees) using the following equation (Wilson et al. 2005):

183 
$$\theta = 2 \arcsin\left(\frac{0.5W}{L}\right) \times 100$$

184 where  $W$  is the valve opening (mm) and  $L$  (mm) is the mussel's shell length.

185

186 Periodogram analysis was used to ascertain whether significant periodic components existed in  
187 the valve opening time series. Linear trends were removed using the ordinary least squares

188 (OLS) method prior to performing the analysis. Fourier spectral analyses were then performed on  
189 either the residuals from the OLS trend analysis (Warner 1998), or directly on the valve opening  
190 measures (for series where no trends were apparent). Periodogram values were calculated for  
191 each Fourier frequency, thus providing a numerical representation of the magnitude of the  
192 periodicity present in the data at each periodic cycle. The Fisher test and critical values tabled by  
193 Russell (1985) were applied to test the significance of each periodic cycle. The Fisher test  
194 required the calculation of the  $g$ -value, which in turn provided the proportion of the total  
195 variance that was accounted for by each periodic component. Because circadian periodicity was  
196 of primary interest, a paired  $t$ -test was used to test the null hypothesis that the  $g$ -statistic for the  
197 24-h periodic component was similar under low and high sinusoidal velocity regimes.

198

199 All analyses were performed in SPSS v. 20 (IBM SPSS Inc, Chicago). Statistical significance for  
200 all statistical tests was set at 0.05.

201

202

## 203 **Results**

204

205 Figure 2 summarizes the valve gape behavior of the mussels during the first experiment, or more  
206 specifically the mean occurrence as a function of valve opening amplitude (10 ranges from 0 to  
207 100% of maximal opening amplitude). For *M. galloprovincialis*, mean occurrence followed a  
208 negatively skewed normal distribution; modes of opening amplitudes that were most frequently  
209 observed were in the range of 60 to 90%, indicating a tendency towards full openness. This  
210 behaviour was consistent in both replicate experiments (panels a, b, c and g, h, i). In comparison,

211 the behaviour of *L. securis* differed between the two replicate experiments: mean occurrences  
212 followed either a flattened (replicate 1, panels d, e, f) or negatively skewed (replicate 2, panels j,  
213 k, l) normal distribution. Nevertheless, complete valve closures or near closures were rarely  
214 recorded in the two replicate experiments. Table 1 summarizes the statistical outcome of the  
215 mixed model analysis of variance. No significant differences were detected among treatments,  
216 including between species or low and high velocity phases of the experiment. The only  
217 significant effects were linked to the variance between replicate experiments.

218

219 Figure 3 shows the sinusoidal period at which the flume was operating and mean gape angle as a  
220 function of time during the second experiment. Gape angle differed between species, regardless  
221 of the velocity applied. The maximum recorded angle for *L. securis* was  $8.2^\circ$  (mean of 6  
222 individuals, SE = 0.9), compared to  $14.8^\circ$  for *M. galloprovincialis* (mean of 8 individuals, SE =  
223 1.4). These maximal values were significantly different from each other (Mann-Whitney,  $P =$   
224 0.003). There were no indications that *L. securis* responded negatively to the low velocity phase  
225 of the experiment, which was intended to mimic conditions within culture rafts.

226

227 With respect to rhythmicity, mussel behavior was not synchronized to the flume current  
228 periodicity ( $\tau = 6$  h). Instead, there was a tendency for both species to exhibit maximal gape  
229 angle during periods of darkness, and a minimum during daylight hours. Spectral analysis and  
230 the Fisher test indicated that the 24-h periodicity was dominant and highly significant ( $P <$   
231 0.001) for each individual. However, there were significant differences between the low and high  
232 velocity phases in terms of the proportion of variance accounted for by the 24-h periodicity.  
233 Initially, during the low velocity phase, the proportion of the variance accounted for by the 24-h

234 periodicity averaged 23.5% (SE = 5.2) and 12.6% (SE = 3.4) for *L. securis* and *M.*  
235 *galloprovincialis*, respectively. These proportions fell during the high velocity phase, averaging  
236 only 7.1% (SE = 5.4) and 4.7% (SE = 1.5) for *L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis*, respectively.  
237 These differences in circadian periodicity between the two velocity phases were significant  
238 (Paired-t tests applied to *g*-values,  $P = 0.03$  for *L. securis*,  $P = 0.02$  for *M. galloprovincialis*) and  
239 were of similar magnitude for both species. The proportion of variance accounted for by the 24-h  
240 periodicity fell by 71.0% (SE = 15.5) in *L. securis* and 54.5% (SE = 15.1) in *M. galloprovincialis*  
241 (Mann-Whitney,  $P = 0.20$ ). Therefore, when subjected to forceful sinusoidal currents, circadian  
242 gaping rhythmicity was significantly but equally disrupted in *L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis*.  
243

244

## 245 **Discussion**

246

247 Valve opening signals the activation of a complex nervous mechanism involving the heart and  
248 adductor muscles (Taylor 1976), resulting in the bivalve exposing itself to the ambient  
249 environment and exercising metabolically demanding processes, such as the collection and  
250 assimilation of food particles. In the present study, our premise was that atypical valve activity is  
251 indicative of physiological stress and hence colonization potential of the black pygmy mussel *L.*  
252 *securis* in the outer Rias where the indigenous mussel *M. galloprovincialis* is cultivated. We  
253 conclude that raft conditions (i.e., high salinity and low flow) have no detrimental effect on the  
254 valve gaping behaviour of *L. securis*. We base this conclusion on the observation that complete  
255 valve closures or near closures were rarely recorded and also on normal distribution of opening  
256 modes, which showed a tendency towards full openness at  $3 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  (Figure 2). Current velocities

257 in the range of 2 to 3 cm s<sup>-1</sup> are typical of those recorded within mussel culture rafts in NW Spain  
258 (Camacho et al. 1995; Petersen et al. 2008). The reason full openness for *L. securis* was more  
259 evident in the second replicate experiment may be attributable to these mussels having been  
260 acclimated longer to laboratory conditions.

261  
262 Another finding of the work conducted here is that both species exhibited strong circadian  
263 rhythmicity. To the best of our knowledge, we provide the first evidence of valve gaping  
264 rhythmicity in *L. securis*. Rhythms were not synchronized to the tidal flow cycle ( $\tau = 6$  h) in  
265 either species, suggesting that tidal currents are not the main driving influence behind these  
266 rhythms. Instead, there was a tendency for both species to exhibit maximal gape angles during  
267 darkness periods, and minimum angles during daylight hours. A lack of tidal rhythmicity and  
268 dominance of circadian rhythmicity has been previously reported for *M. galloprovincialis*  
269 (Gnyubkin 2010), the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis* (Ameyaw-Akumfi and Naylor 1987; Wilson et  
270 al. 2005; Robson et al. 2010) and more recently the green-lipped mussel *Perna canaliculus*  
271 (Lurman et al. 2013). Considering that bivalves possess photoreceptor cells (Ramirez et al.  
272 2011), and that mussels respond to sudden changes in light level (Lurman et al. 2013), it is  
273 plausible that light is the main environmental cue entraining circadian rhythms in bivalves. With  
274 regards to its adaptive significance, it is generally thought that nocturnal gaping is part of a  
275 strategy to feed while minimizing the likelihood of predation, particularly when the foot is  
276 protruding from the shell during nocturnal byssus thread production (Martella 1974). In the  
277 present study, circadian gaping rhythmicity was significantly but equally disrupted in *L. securis*  
278 and *M. galloprovincialis* when they were subjected to forceful sinusoidal currents, similar to  
279 those that occur under rafts at certain locations in the Rias (Camacho et al. 1995). The

280 implications of degraded circadian rhythms are not known, but they are likely irrelevant to raft  
281 colonization since *M. galloprovincialis* also displayed degraded rhythms.

282

283 The only prominent difference between *L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis* was related to the  
284 absolute gape angle of their valves (Figure 3). Valve gape was consistently lower in *L. securis*  
285 compared to *M. galloprovincialis*. It is possible that *L. securis* responded to the high salinity (35  
286 g l<sup>-1</sup>) in the holding tanks, although exploratory work indicated the same inter-species difference  
287 under a lower salinity environment (~ 20 g l<sup>-1</sup>, results not shown). Morphological features  
288 provide a more plausible explanation. The flexible ligament, which pulls the two valves apart  
289 while the adductor muscle actively holds them together, is about 25% shorter in *L. securis* than  
290 in *M. galloprovincialis* (JMF Babarro, unpublished data). The shorter ligament in *L. securis*  
291 could explain the narrower shell gape. Also, compared to *M. galloprovincialis*, *L. securis* has a  
292 more cylindrical shape, a relatively narrow shell height and low external shell surface area.

293 These shell characteristics provide insight into metabolic requirements given that gill tissues are  
294 distributed along the internal cavity of the shells. We calculated the shell surface area for our  
295 experimental mussels based on allometry relationships provided in Babarro and Lassudrie  
296 (2011). We found that while the two experimental groups (*L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis*)  
297 had similar shell lengths (~ 35 mm, Mann-Whitney,  $P = 0.30$ ), external shell surface area was on  
298 average 28% lower in the *L. securis* group compared to the *M. galloprovincialis* group (Mann-  
299 Whitney,  $P = 0.002$ ). Therefore, considering that gill tissues are distributed along the internal  
300 cavity of the shells, *L. securis* probably has a low gill area compared to *M. galloprovincialis*.

301 This interpretation is supported by clearance and ingestion rates being reportedly lower in *L.*  
302 *securis* than in *M. galloprovincialis* (Fragoso Pérez 2012), and also consistent with growth rates

303 being lower in *L. securis* than in *M. galloprovincialis* (Babarro and Abad 2013). Such traits are  
304 not entirely unexpected, given that *L. securis* is foremost an infaunal and semi-infaunal mytilid.  
305 It produces a multitude of short and weak byssus threads, creating an extensive network of  
306 filaments anchored to small particles on the soft bottom (Pearce and LaBarbera 2009). Wide  
307 gaping would presumably compromise the stability of this anchorage system or render the  
308 mytilid susceptible to sand particles falling into the internal cavity and causing tissue abrasion  
309 (Rius and McQuaid 2006; Zardi et al. 2008).

310

311 Regardless of the reason for the inter-species differences in valve opening, a wide valve gape  
312 may offer a competitive advantage to *M. galloprovincialis* where the two species compete in  
313 nature, such as over rocky shores or potentially mussel ropes. Byssus is secreted by the  
314 extension of a secretory organ, the foot, when it explores the surrounding substrate. The size of  
315 the foot has been reported to be significantly larger for *M. galloprovincialis* than for *L. securis*  
316 (Babarro and Lassudrie 2011), suggesting that wide gaping may be needed to accommodate a  
317 large and extensible foot. Such features increase the mobility of *M. galloprovincialis* (Brazee  
318 and Carrington 2006; Shinen and Morgan 2009; Babarro and Carrington 2011), allowing it to  
319 escape bottom layers in mixed beds. In the inner Ria de Vigo, for example, the indigenous *M.*  
320 *galloprovincialis* colonizes the upper portions of beds, thereby smothering the invasive *L.*  
321 *securis* and introducing a physical interference competition (Babarro and Abad 2013). Nicastro  
322 et al. (2012) have also reported that the extent of valve gaping in intertidal mussels plays a role  
323 in microhabitat re-organisation. Our suggestion that wide gaping offers a competitive  
324 advantage to *M. galloprovincialis* is consistent with this species being a highly successful  
325 invader in its own right. Although *M. galloprovincialis* is cultivated as food for humans in

326 Galicia, it has successfully invaded many other regions worldwide, where it is sometimes  
327 considered a nuisance species (Branch and Steffani 2004; Bownes and McQuaid 2006).

328

329 In summary, *L. securis* and *M. galloprovincialis* behaved similarly under laboratory conditions  
330 intended to mimic those found under mussel rafts. Modes of opening amplitudes that were most  
331 frequently observed were in the range of 60 to 90%, indicating a tendency towards full openness.  
332 Also, the two species displayed similar circadian periodicity: they tended to exhibit maximal  
333 gaping during periods of darkness, and minimal gaping during daylight hours. The only  
334 prominent difference recorded between the two species was related to the degree of their valve  
335 opening, with *M. galloprovincialis* consistently exhibiting a wider valve opening than *L. securis*.  
336 This wider valve gape may offer *M. galloprovincialis* a competitive advantage on substrates  
337 where the two species coexist, such as over rocky shores or potentially mussel culture ropes.

338

339

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341

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459 **Table legend**

460 Table 1. A mixed model ANOVA indicating the effect of species, current velocity and  
461 replicate experiment on percent occurrence at specified ranges of valve opening amplitude.

462

463 **Figure legends**

464 Figure 1. Map of study area showing the inner and outer areas of the Ría de Vigo. The star  
465 symbol indicates the location of the mussel collection site in San Simón (SS).

466

467 Figure 2. Percent occurrence as a function of valve opening amplitude (10 ranges from 0 to  
468 100% of maximum amplitude) for *M. galloprovincialis* (open bars) and *L. securis* (dark bars)  
469 at low velocity (LV—3 cm s<sup>-1</sup>), rising velocity (RV—3 to 30 cm s<sup>-1</sup>), and high velocity  
470 (HV—40 cm s<sup>-1</sup>). Panels are grouped according to the first (a—f) and second (g—l) replicate  
471 experiments. Error bars show mean ± standard error, n = 10 (*M. galloprovincialis*) and n = 12  
472 (*L. securis*).

473

474 Figure 3. Sinusoidal current velocity (top) and mean gape angle (bottom) of mussels in the  
475 flume tunnel. Means were calculated from individual mussels (n = 8 for *M. galloprovincialis*  
476 and n = 6 for *L. securis*). The time series extended from Jan 30 (21h00) to Feb 12 (18h00)  
477 2012. Shaded areas indicate periods of darkness.

Table 1

Source	Occurrence at specified range	d.f.	MS	F	<i>P</i>
Species	0—10%	1	551.60	0.14	0.73
	11—20%	1	13771.38	5.36	0.08
	21—30%	1	4360.80	0.79	0.42
	31—40%	1	646.10	0.12	0.75
	41—50%	1	316.45	0.07	0.81
	51—60%	1	412.86	0.15	0.72
	61—70%	1	5347.72	15.37	<b>0.02</b>
	71—80%	1	5688.01	2.68	0.18
	81—90%	1	1592.07	0.49	0.52
	91—100%	1	140.72	0.04	0.86
Velocity	0—10%	1	920.45	0.24	0.65
	11—20%	1	991.89	0.39	0.57
	21—30%	1	400.80	0.07	0.80
	31—40%	1	668.57	0.12	0.74
	41—50%	1	1270.05	0.27	0.63
	51—60%	1	880.99	0.31	0.61
	61—70%	1	85.80	0.25	0.65
	71—80%	1	786.69	0.37	0.58
	81—90%	1	4.72	<0.01	0.97
	91—100%	1	398.81	0.11	0.76
Species×Velocity	0—10%	1	901.21	0.23	0.66
	11—20%	1	844.72	0.33	0.60
	21—30%	1	1532.23	0.28	0.63
	31—40%	1	714.67	0.13	0.74
	41—50%	1	351.38	0.08	0.80
	51—60%	1	916.83	0.33	0.60
	61—70%	1	675.80	1.94	0.24
	71—80%	1	182.41	0.09	0.78
	81—90%	1	306.60	0.09	0.77
	91—100%	1	1211.81	0.33	0.60
Rep(Species×Velocity)	0—10%	4	3891.78	4.26	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
	11—20%	4	2571.97	3.29	<b>0.02</b>
	21—30%	4	5520.34	6.43	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
	31—40%	4	5431.31	5.92	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
	41—50%	4	4640.20	5.21	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
	51—60%	4	2820.91	3.10	<b>0.02</b>
	61—70%	4	346.80	0.39	0.82
	71—80%	4	2126.55	2.18	0.08
	81—90%	4	3266.58	3.59	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
	91—100%	4	3716.51	3.55	<b>0.01</b>
Error	0—10%	84	913.40		
	11—20%	84	782.04		
	21—30%	84	858.94		
	31—40%	84	917.00		
	41—50%	84	891.12		
	51—60%	84	911.46		
	61—70%	84	901.78		
	71—80%	84	974.99		
	81—90%	84	909.32		
	91—100%	84	1048.19		

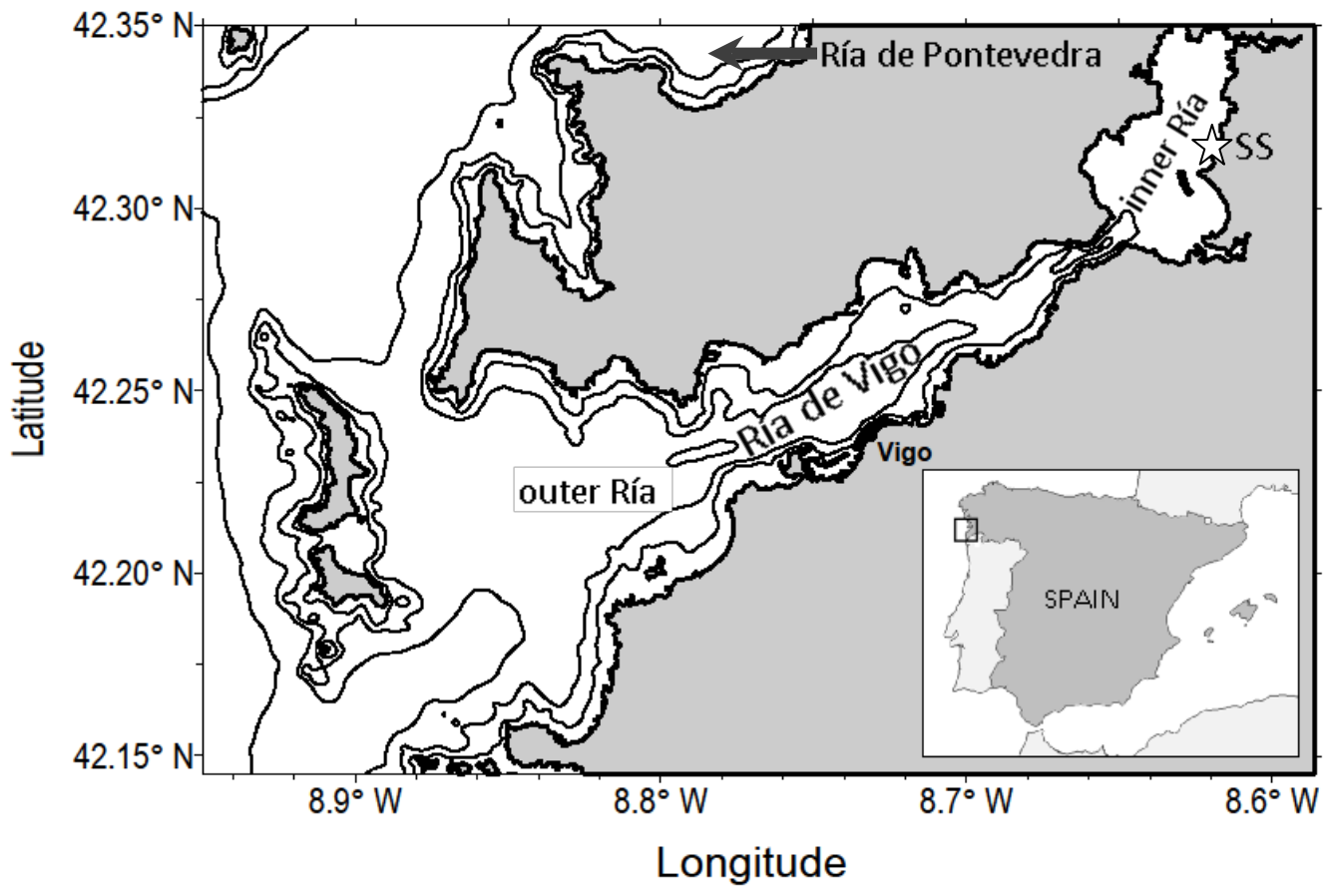


Figure 1

# Experiment 1 (Replicate 1)

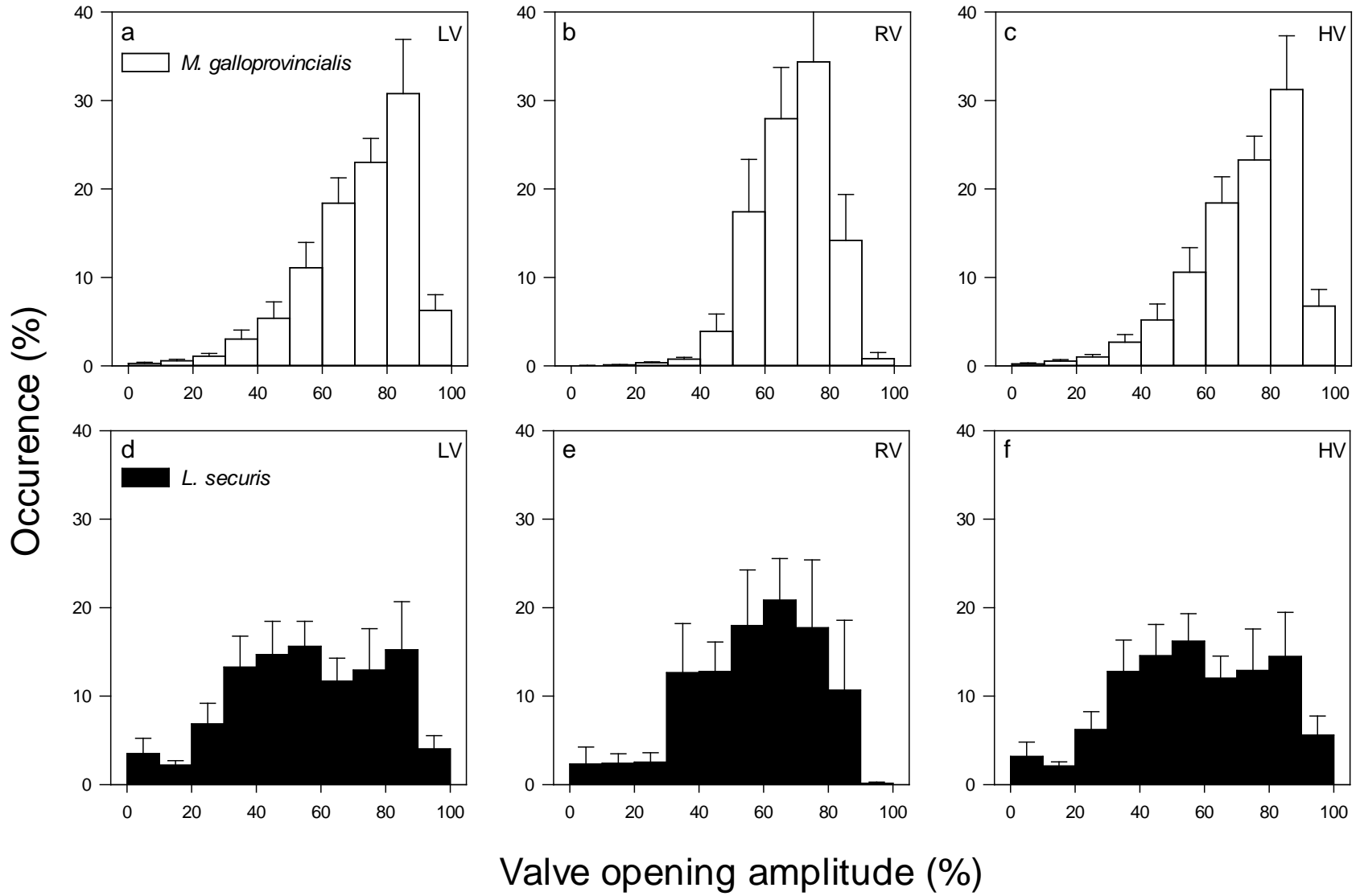


Figure 2

# Experiment 1 (Replicate 2)

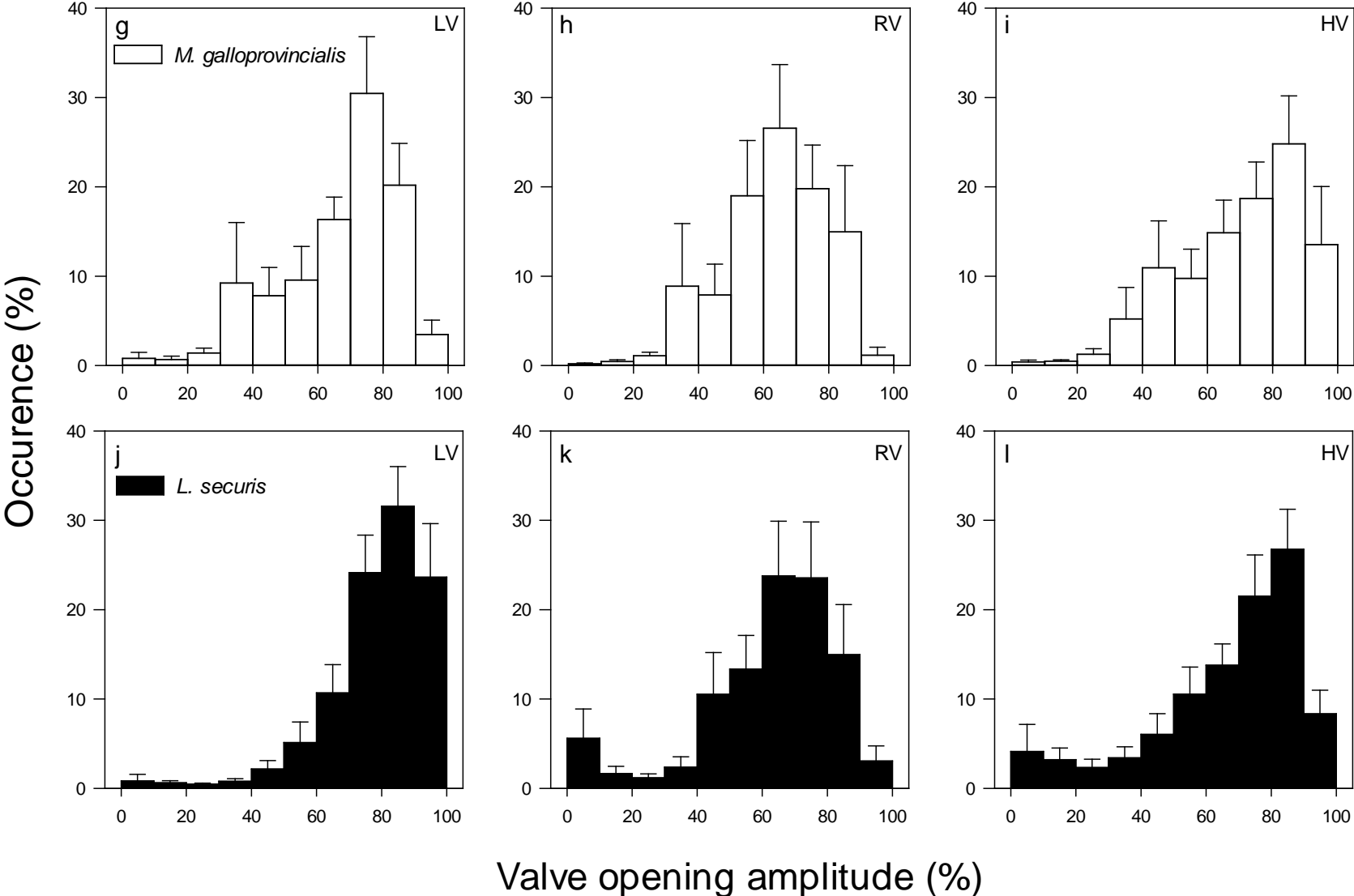


Figure 2 (continued)



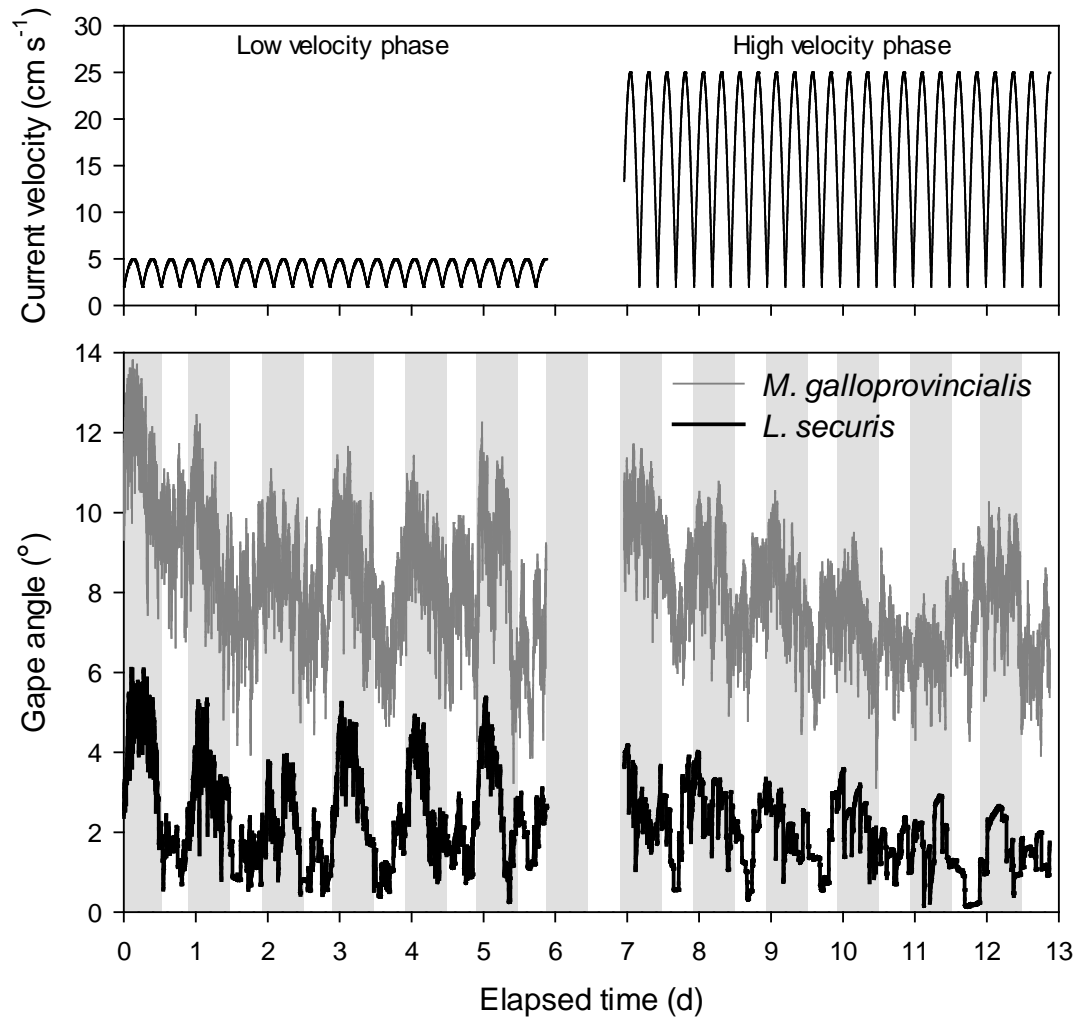


Figure 3