



Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research

This is a postprint of:

Stier, T., Drent, J., & Thieltges, D.W. (2015). Trematode infections reduce clearance rates and condition in blue mussels *Mytilus edulis*. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 529, 137-144

Published version: [dx.doi.org/10.3354/meps11250](https://dx.doi.org/10.3354/meps11250)

Link NIOZ Repository: [www.vliz.be/nl/imis?module=ref&refid=248404](http://www.vliz.be/nl/imis?module=ref&refid=248404)

[Article begins on next page]

The NIOZ Repository gives free access to the digital collection of the work of the Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research. This archive is managed according to the principles of the [Open Access Movement](#), and the [Open Archive Initiative](#). Each publication should be cited to its original source - please use the reference as presented.

When using parts of, or whole publications in your own work, permission from the author(s) or copyright holder(s) is always needed.

1    **Trematode infections reduce clearance rates and condition in blue mussels *Mytilus edulis***

2    Tabea Stier, Jan Drent, David W. Thieltges

3

4    Department of Marine Ecology; NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research; P.O.

5    Box 59; 1790 AB Den Burg Texel; The Netherlands

6

7    Corresponding author: David.Thieltges@nioz.nl

8

9    Running page head: Trematode effects on mussel filtration

10

11    Key words: Parasitism, trematodes, bivalve feeding

12

## Abstract

Suspension feeders are important players in coastal food webs by coupling pelagic primary and benthic secondary production but the potential interference of parasite infections with this pivotal role is not well investigated. We experimentally determined the effect of infections with metacercariae of the common trematode *Renicola roscovita* on clearance rates and condition of blue mussels (*Mytilus edulis*). We also investigated whether there were differences in the effects of infections between different size classes of mussels. Using controlled infections under lab conditions, our experiment showed that infections significantly reduced the clearance rates of mussels. This effect was less pronounced in small (42 % reduction) than in large mussels (71%). In addition, infections also significantly reduced mussel body mass index in large (23% reduction) and small (17 %) mussels compared to uninfected mussels. These reductions most likely resulted from a combined effect of an interference of the parasites with the mussel's feeding apparatus (with the palps being the preferred infection site of the parasite) and of the energetic demands of the parasites (with metacercariae growing in size after initial infection). These negative effects on mussel filter feeding capacity indicate that parasites can alter a crucially important functional trait of marine suspension feeders.

## Introduction

Benthic suspension feeders play a key role in coastal food webs by coupling pelagic primary and benthic secondary production and thus mediating the energy transfer through coastal ecosystems (Gili & Coma 1998). Bivalves constitute a particularly abundant part of benthic suspension feeders (Gili & Coma 1998, Newell 2004). Enormous volumes of water pass through their gills, enabling them to alter the abundance and composition of seston and plankton (Dame 1993). With their feeding activity bivalves may even act as natural eutrophication controllers which can significantly improve marine water quality (Officer et al. 1982, Wilkinson et al. 1996, Lindahl et al. 2005, Shumway 2011). In addition, through the production of faeces and pseudofaeces bivalves increase the localized sedimentation rate of suspended matter (Dame 2011) and change the benthic community composition (van der Zee et al. 2012).

The mechanisms underlying bivalve suspension feeding are particularly well understood for mussels (*Mytilus* spp., for a review see Gosling 2003). In the processing of food, mussels share the main mechanical steps with other filter feeders: interception of particles, transport, selection, and ingestion volume control (Beninger et al. 1995). After the water enters a mussel via the inhalant siphon it is filtered by the gills. The captured particles are then transported to the labial palps. The labial palps are complex structures (Beninger et al. 1995) which are important for ingestion volume control and particle selection (Beninger & St-Jean 1997). Two measures are commonly used to quantify mussel feeding activity: the *filtration rate* is defined as the pumping or volume flow rate and the *clearance rate* is defined as the volume of water cleared of suspended particles per unit of time. Clearance rate is identical to the filtration rate when all particles are retained (Riisgård 2001). Both measures are known to be influenced by various environmental factors like water temperature, particle concentration, quality and

quantity of available food, salinity and ambient water flow rate (Gosling 2003). In addition, mussel size and weight are well known intrinsic factors determining filtration rates in mussels and the interplay of intrinsic and environmental factors has long been studied (Newell 1970, Bayne 1998, Gosling 2003).

Very little is known about how parasitism affects mussel filtration rates. Mussels serve as hosts to a variety of different parasite taxa, including shell boring polychaetes, intestinal copepods, and tissue-inhabiting trematodes (Lauckner 1983). In particular the latter can occur in vast numbers of up to several thousand individuals per mussel (Lauckner 1983, Svaerdt & Thulin 1985, Zens 1999). One of the dominant trematode species in mussels along northern European shores is *Renicola roscovita* (Lauckner 1983). Like all trematodes it has a complex life cycle including several sequential hosts. Periwinkles (*Littorina littorea*) serve as first intermediate hosts from which free-living infective stages (cercariae) emerge that infect the second intermediate host (mussels). Here, the infective stages encyst as metacercariae and await ingestion of their host by a definitive host (gulls and other birds feeding on mussels). In the bird, the adult parasites reproduce and shed eggs with the bird's faeces that infect new snails (Werdning 1969). In mussels, *R. roscovita* preferably settles in the palps but can also be found encysting in the gills, the digestive gland and other body tissues at higher infection levels (Fig. 1; Lauckner 1983, Svaerdt & Thulin 1985). Given the often high infection levels in mussels and the preferred location in the palps, some effect of *R. roscovita* infections on mussel feeding appears very likely. Indeed, infected mussels show slower growth than uninfected conspecifics in field experiments (Thieltges 2006). However, it is not known whether this is due to a reduction in particle processing ability, and if so, what the magnitude of such a reduction might be.

In this study, we experimentally determined the effects of infections with *R. roscovita* on mussel clearance rates and body condition by using controlled infections under lab conditions. We also investigated whether there were size-related differences in the effects of such infections.

## **Material and Methods**

### Parasite and host collection

Infected periwinkles (*Littorina littorea*) were used as cercariae donors to artificially create trematode infections. Several hundred snails were collected from an intertidal mussel bed close to the island of Texel (Balgzand, Netherlands, N 52.944, E 4.903) in October 2010 and acclimated in aerated flow through tanks (50 x 30 x 35cm) with natural sea water and kept constantly dark at 15 °C (to reduce shedding of cercariae). After two days the snails were screened for infections by placing them in 6-well plates (filled with 10-15ml of seawater) in an incubator at approximately 25 °C for 3-5 hours while exposing them to intense light to induce shedding of cercariae. Then the wells were checked for the presence of cercariae of *R. roscovita* under a dissection microscope. Infected and uninfected snails were kept separately in small aerated seawater tanks (13 x 21 x 13cm) at a constant temperature of 15 °C until the controlled infections of the mussels were performed. The water was exchanged daily and snails were fed *ad libitum* with *Ulva lactuca*.

Mussel hosts (*Mytilus edulis*) were collected from beach groin constructions at the west coast of the island of Texel (Netherlands, N 53.023, E 4.707) in November 2010. Mussels from this locality were assumed to be free of *Renicola roscovita* infections because the first intermediate host, the periwinkle *Littorina littorea*, is not present due to high wave energy exposure (confirmed by screening 50 mussels for the presence of metacercariae). For the

experiment, a total of 24 mussels was used, 12 from each of two shell length categories: “small” (19-22 mm) and “large” (46-49 mm). After carefully removing (a few) barnacles from their shells, all mussels were acclimated in an aerated flow-through sea water tank (50 x 30 x 35cm), filled with natural sea water and kept in a climate chamber at a constant temperature of 15 °C. During this time a diet of *Isochrysis galbana* was provided by adding 500-1000ml of algal suspension (approx.  $10^6$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ ) once every day.

### Experimental infections

To infect mussels with *R. roscovita*, the 24 experimental mussels were distributed equally in six small aerated plastic aquaria (13 x 21 x 13cm). Each aquarium contained two small and two large mussels which were numbered individually with nail polish. Half of the aquaria also contained 15 snails (in each aquarium) infected with *R. roscovita* while the other half contained 15 un-infected snails. All six aquaria were placed in a climate chamber with a constant temperature of 20 °C and constant light to initiate shedding of cercariae (Thieltges & Rick 2006). 100 ml (ca.  $10^6$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ ) of *I. galbana* were added to each aquarium daily. After a total of four days all periwinkles were removed and all mussels were kept together in the same flow-through tank (50 x 30 x 35 cm) in a climate chamber at a constant temperature of 15 °C for 2 days to ensure encystation of metacercariae and acclimation to the same conditions as in the experiment. During this time mussels were fed with *I. galbana* by adding 500-1000ml of algae (approx.  $10^6$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ ) once per day.

### Clearance rate measurements & experimental design

We used the *indirect clearance method* to measure the clearance rate as the volume of water cleared of suspended particles per unit of time (Riisgård 2001). We determined the algae concentrations (*I. galbana*) of samples taken after certain time intervals by counting algal

cells with a CASY® Cell Counter and Analyser System (Schärfe System GmbH, Germany). The clearance rate could then be determined from the exponential decrease in algal concentration as a function of time (see details under data analysis). In general, the proper measuring of filtration and clearance rates in mussels is known to be difficult (Riisgård 2001) since the rates strongly depend on many biotic and abiotic factors (reviewed by Gosling 2003). No laboratory method can be directly generalized to field conditions (Beninger 2009). The *indirect clearance method* we used is generally considered valid (Riisgård 2001); however, a notable shortcoming of this technique is the confounding influence of decreasing algal cell concentrations during the experiment. We mitigated this possible source of bias by replenishing the algal concentration (Riisgård 2001) during the incubation period (see below).

The experimental setup consisted of 24 individual 2 l plastic containers filled with one litre of seawater (UV-sterilized, 0,2µm filtered) and provided with an airstone for a constant air supply and uniform mixture of the water. In each container we placed one of the 24 experimental mussels 15 minutes before measurements were started (pilot experiments had shown that mussels started with filtration at constant rates within this time). In addition to the 24 experimental containers, we set up 6 containers without mussels as controls to detect potential changes in algal concentration caused by factors other than the presence of mussels (e.g. intrinsic algal mortality). The experiment was performed at a temperature of 15 °C and under constant light. Prior to the experiment the cell concentration of our algal culture stock was measured to calculate the volume needed to produce a starting concentration ( $t_0$ ) of around  $13\text{-}14 \times 10^3$  algal cells per ml in the tanks (following Riisgård & Randløv 1981). Immediately after adding the algae, a sample of 10ml was taken out of each container and the algal concentration measured and set as the ‘input concentration’ per respective tank. Afterwards samples were taken every 15min for two hours. After each measurement, samples



were cast back into the respective container to avoid a decrease of the water volume during the experiment. Algal cell counts of each sample were performed twice to minimize potential effects of measuring inaccuracy. If the counted cell number decreased below  $1 \times 10^3$  cells ml<sup>-1</sup>, or if it was expected to decrease below this value before the next measuring point, another dose of algal culture was added to bring the number back to the starting concentration (following Riisgård 2001). The experiment was conducted during one day in three sequential runs with 2 replicates of each treatment combination (and 2 control containers), resulting in a randomized (temporal) block design.

#### Dissection, condition index and palp size

Immediately after completing all the measurements, the mussels were frozen at -18°C until dissection. At this point, 7 days since starting the infections had passed (4 days infections, 2 days acclimation, 1 day experiment, see above). Procedures for infected and uninfected mussels were exactly the same to avoid any bias, particular in tissue dry mass measurements. Prior to dissection, mussel shell length (maximum anterior-posterior dimension) was measured to the nearest 0,01 mm with a digital vernier calliper. Then the posterior adductor mussel was cut, the shell opened and the tissue (palps and gills carefully separated) placed between two thick glass slides (compressorium). Under a stereomicroscope all metacercariae of *R. roscovita* were counted (or their absence verified in uninfected mussels) and their location noted (palps, gills, foot and rest of the body). Finally, the tissue was carefully transferred from the slides to crucibles and dried at 60 °C for three days to determine dry mass and to calculate the condition index (CI) of each mussel ( $CI=W/L^3$ ; Dare 1976) following Riisgård (2001).

## Data analysis

We used the mean of the two algal cell counts per sample for further analysis. Since the control containers showed no agglomeration or loss of algae during the two hours of measurements (see results below), we did not correct cell counts for algae loss other than by filtration by the mussels. Using the number of algae in a container at each time point, we calculated the clearance rate of each mussel for each period in between adding new algae. The decline in algal cells was estimated by calculating the slope of the regression line describing the ln-transformed cell numbers as a function of time. This offered a more reliable estimate than the formula applied by Riisgård (2001) because it allowed to include more measurements than only the first and the last one. To determine the clearance rate in  $\text{ml min}^{-1}$  we multiplied the slope of each regression with -1000 (to account for the 1000ml volume the mussels were kept in). Depending on how often new algal culture was added, there were 1-4 clearance rate estimates per mussel achieved during the 2 hours. If there was more than one measurement, we used the mean clearance rate for further analysis.

We tested for differences in mussel size (log-transformed) between infected and uninfected mussels within each size class using separate t-tests. To test for differences in clearance rates and condition between infected and uninfected and small and large mussels we used a fully factorial ANOVA design with mussel size and infection status as fixed factors. In addition, we added a block factor to test for potential differences among the three separate runs. Clearance rates and condition indices were both log-transformed to meet the assumptions of parametric tests (confirmed by visual inspection of residual plots). To test for potential agglomeration or loss of algae during the two hours of measurements in the control containers we used linear regressions (log algal concentration over time).

To compare relative infection levels between small and large mussels, we calculated palp surface area (P) as  $P=1,84 \cdot L^2$ , with L=shell length in cm (Kiørboe & Møhlenberg 1981) and determined the no. of metacercariae  $\text{mm}^{-2}$  palp surface area by dividing the total no. of metacercariae found in a mussel by the calculated palp surface area. In addition, we calculated the no. of metacercariae  $\text{mm}^{-2}$  mussel by dividing the total no. of metacercariae found in a mussel by a measure for the surface area, its length ( $\text{mm}^{-2}$ ).

## Results

The final dissections showed that all controlled infections were successful, with small and large mussels acquiring, on average, approximately 1500 and 3000 metacercariae, respectively (Table 1). No other macroparasites were noticed in the experimental mussels. In small mussels about half of the metacercariae were encysted in the palps and gills (48%); in large mussels this proportion was higher (62%; Table 1). Although larger mussels carried a higher total load of metacercariae, their relative parasite burden per mussel length was about 2.5 times lower than in small mussels (Table 2). The difference between parasite load per palp surface between large and small mussels was less pronounced, with small mussels carrying about 1.5 times higher numbers of metacercariae (Table 2).

While none of the small mussels needed a new addition of algae during the experiment, some of the uninfected large mussels needed a new addition of algal culture up to four times. In contrast, several of the infected large mussels did not need an extra dose. However all individual declines in algal concentration for each period were still linear when new algae were added, and algal concentrations were comparable in all trials. Furthermore, in trial experiments we conducted, *M. edulis* did not show differences in filtration rates when exposed to algal concentrations between  $2\text{--}12 \times 10^3$  *I. galbana* cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ . Hence, we consider

our clearance rate experimental design to be robust. The control containers showed no agglomeration or loss of algae during the two hours of measurements (no statistical effect of time on algal concentration in linear regressions,  $p=0.98$  ( $< \pm 5$  % difference between start and end value)). In general, there was no statistical difference in mussel size between infected and non-infected mussels within each size class (t-tests; small mussels:  $F_{1,10}=0.17$ ;  $p=0.688$ ; large mussels:  $F_{1,10}=0.6$ ;  $p=0.469$ , Table 2), indicating that mussel size was not confounding the measurements.

The experiment showed statistically significant effects of mussel size and infection status on mussel clearance rate and condition and a marginally significant interaction term (Table 3). There was no statistically significant effect of the (temporal) block factor for clearance rates but the block factor was statistically significant when looking at mussel condition (Table 3). Mean clearance rates of infected mussels were only 58% (small mussels) and 29% (large mussels) of the ones observed in uninfected mussels (Fig. 2). In general, large mussels had higher clearance rates than small mussels (Fig.2). Similarly, small mussels had a lower condition than large mussels (Fig. 3) and the condition index was lower in infected compared to uninfected mussels, both in small and in large mussels (77% and 83% of uninfected mussels, respectively; Fig. 3). Since mussel length was not statistically different between infected and uninfected mussels within the two size classes (see above), the difference in condition resulted from higher body dry mass of uninfected mussels (small:  $20.1 \pm 3.3$  mg; large  $430.2 \pm 33.8$  mg) acquired (or maintained) during the 7 days from starting the infections to the termination of the experiment (see above) compared to infected mussels (small:  $14.5 \pm 1.4$  mg; large:  $346.3 \pm 25.9$ ).

## Discussion

The experiment showed that infections with the trematode *Renicola roscovita* significantly reduced the clearance rates of mussels. This effect was less pronounced in small (42 % reduction) than in large mussels (71%). In addition, in the short course of the experiment, infections also significantly reduced mussel condition in large (23% reduction) and small (17 %) mussels.

These results corroborate our hypothesis that the preferred location of the parasites in the gills and palps interferes with the filtration in infected mussels. This interference most likely results from a mechanical disturbance through the encapsulated cysts in the gills and palps. However, infections in other tissues (e.g. digestive gland) may have added to the reduced filtration activity by negatively affecting their hosts. Such negative effects may result from the fact that metacercariae of *R. roscovita* grow in size after the initial infection of their hosts (Lauckner 1983) and thus require increased energy resources from their hosts. However, the duration of our experiment may have been too short for such energy demands resulting from metacercarial growth to be relevant. An alternative source of parasite-induced energy drain may be the costs of host immune responses and tissue repair for the mussel hosts. The multiple penetration of mussel tissue in the course of infection may lead to loss of hemolymph and increased production of hemocytes, which could be energetically costly. Should this actually be the main driver of parasite-induced mussel energy drain, the effect of infections may only be transitory and decreasing in the long run. However, data from a previous field experiment on the effects of *R. roscovita* infections on mussel growth during a longer observation time since initial infection (10 weeks, Thieltges 2006) suggest that negative effects of metacercarial infections also continue over longer time periods. More detailed experiments will be needed to disentangle the effect of reduced food intake due to mechanical

interference of the filtration process, energy drain by energetic demands of metacercariae during their growth and potential energetic costs of immune responses and tissue repair on mussel filtration and condition.

The magnitude of the observed effects on condition after only 7 days since the start of infections seems unlikely at first sight. However, mussels are well known to increase in body mass much faster than in shell length under laboratory conditions. For example, Riisgård et al (2012) reported an increase in mussel dry weight from 22.9 to 72.0 mg within 17 days at a salinity of 30 and constant feeding, resulting in weight specific growth rate ( $\mu$ ) of 6.7 % d<sup>-1</sup> ( $\mu = \ln (W_t/W_o) t^{-1} \times 100$ ; with  $W_o$  and  $W_t$  being the initial and final body dry weight, respectively; Riisgård et al (2012). Unfortunately, we do not have initial body tissue dry weights for a similar calculation of  $\mu$ . However, using the same formula the difference in body weight between infected and uninfected mussels in our experiments amounts to a difference of 4.7 % d<sup>-1</sup> in small and 3.1 % d<sup>-1</sup> in large mussels, suggesting that the differences in body condition within such a short time are well within the range reported in the literature. However, whether the difference in body weight resulted from a reduced growth of infected compared to uninfected mussels or from a loss of weight in infected versus uninfected mussels cannot be inferred from our experiment. The combined effect of interference with the mussel's feeding apparatus and direct or indirect energetic demands imposed on the mussels by the infections probably also underlies the observed reduction in shell growth of infected mussels reported from an earlier field experiment (Thieltges 2006) and indicates that *R. roscovita* infections translate into significant reductions of host filtration, condition and growth. Reduced condition of infected hosts has also been observed in other bivalve-trematode systems, e.g. in the brown mussel *Perna perna* infected with metacercariae of the genus *Proctoeces* (Calvo-Ugarteburu & McQuaid 1998). In contrast, another study did not

find an effect of infections with *Himastla interrupta* on cockle (*Cerastoderma edule*) condition (de Montaudouin et al. 2012). Hence, it remains to be investigated how universal negative effects of metacercarial infections on bivalve condition are and what the underlying mechanisms are.

Since mussels constitute an important part of the suspension feeding compartment in many coastal ecosystems, coupling pelagic primary and benthic secondary production (Gili & Coma 1998, Dame 2011), the observed effects may ultimately influence energy transfer in coastal ecosystems. Such ecosystem wide effects will depend on the actual infection levels in the field since the effects of metacercarial infections are considered to be density-dependent, i.e. the impact on hosts increases with infection intensity (Fredensborg et al. 2004, Thieltges 2006). The laboratory infection rates with *R. roscovita* in our experiments are well within the range of infection levels observed in European coastal waters where infection levels of up to 3000 to almost 6000 metacercariae per mussel (depending on location) have been recorded (Svaerdh & Thulin 1985, Zens 1999, Buck et al. 2005). However, the mean infection levels on many natural mussel beds are often lower and future studies will be needed to estimate the overall effect of infections on mussel filtration capacity and effects on energy flow in coastal ecosystems. Such calculations will also need to integrate the effects of other parasites on mussel filtration. For example, the parasitic copepod *Mytilicola intestinalis* also reduces the filtration capacity of mussels (Meyer & Mann 1950). However, in this case the underlying mechanism is not a direct interference with the filtration apparatus (the copepods inhabit the mussels' intestines) but most likely an indirect effect resulting from negative effects on mussel condition. Apart from effects on total filtration capacity, parasites may also interfere with the sorting capability of their hosts, in particular when they inhabit the palps, which are particle sorting organs (Beninger & St-Jean 1997). This limitation in sorting capacity will

331 reduce quality and/or quantity of the ingested food affecting mussel condition/growth/energy  
332 balance (and by that possibly feed back towards system dynamics).

333

334 In conclusion, our experiment showed that infections with the trematode *Renicola roscovita*  
335 significantly reduced the clearance rates of mussels, with subsequently negative consequences  
336 on individual condition. This suggests that parasites may also affect energy transfers in  
337 coastal systems via lowering molluscan secondary production. Our study shows that parasites  
338 can affect important traits for their hosts and suggest that further studies will be valuable to  
339 evaluate the overall direct and indirect effects of parasites in coastal ecosystems.

340



## References

- Bayne B (1998) The physiology of suspension feeding by bivalve molluscs: an introduction to the Plymouth “TROPHEE” workshop. *J Exp Mar Biol* 219:1-19
- Beninger PG (2009) Directions in bivalve feeding. *Aquat Biol* 6:175-180
- Beninger PG, St-Jean SD (1997) Particle processing on the labial palps of *Mytilus edulis* and *Placopecten magellanicus* (Mollusca: Bivalvia). *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 147:117-127
- Beninger PG, St-Jean SD, Poussart Y (1995) Labial palps of the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis* (Bivalvia: Mytilidae). *Mar Biol* 123:293-303
- Calvo-Ugarteburu G, McQuaid CD (1998) Parasitism and invasive species: effects of digenetic trematodes on mussels. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 169:149-163
- Dame, RF (2011) *Ecology of Marine Bivalves: An Ecosystem Approach*. CRC Press, Boca Raton
- Dame RF (1993) The role of bivalve filter feeder material fluxes in estuarine ecosystems. In: Dame (ed.), *Bivalve Filter Feeders in Estuarine and Coastal Ecosystem Processes*. NATO ASI Series Vol G33. Springer, Berlin/Heidelberg, 245-269
- Fredensborg BL, Mouritsen KN, Poulin R (2004) Intensity-dependent mortality of *Paracalliope novizealandiae* (Amphipoda; Crustacea) infected by a trematode: experimental infections and field observations. *J Exp Biol Ecol* 311:253-265
- Gili J-M, Coma R (1998) Benthic suspension feeders: their paramount role in littoral marine food webs. *Trends Ecol Evol* 13: 316-321
- Gosling E (2003). *Bivalve molluscs, biology, ecology and culture*. Fishing News Books, Blackwell Publishing
- Kjørboe T, Møhlenberg F (1981) Particle selection in suspension-feeding bivalves. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 5:291-296

365 Lauckner G (1983) Diseases of mollusca: bivalvia. In: Kinne O (ed) Diseases of marine  
 366 animals, volume II. Biologische Anstalt Helgoland, Hamburg, p 477-961  
 367 Lindahl O, Hart R, Hernroth B, Kollberg S, Loo L-O, Olrog L, Rehnstam-Holm A-S,  
 368 Svensson J, Svensson S, Syversen, U (2005) Improving marine water quality by  
 369 mussel farming: a profitable solution for Swedish society. *Ambio* 34:131-138  
 370 Meyer P-F, Mann H (1950) Beitrage zur Epidemiologie und Physiologie des parasitischen  
 371 Copepoden *Mytilicola intestinalis*. *Arch Fisch Wiss* 2:120-134  
 372 Montaudouin X de, Bazairi H, Culloty, S (2012) Effect of trematode parasites on cockle  
 373 *Cerastoderma edule* growth and condition index: a transplant experiment. *Mar Ecol*  
 374 *Prog Ser* 471:111-121  
 375 Newell RC (1970) The Biology of Intertidal Animals. Paul Elek (Scientific Books) Limited,  
 376 London  
 377 Newell RIE (2004) Ecosystem influences of natural and cultivated populations of suspension-  
 378 feeding bivalve molluscs: a review. *J Shellfish Res* 23:51-61  
 379 Officer CB, Smayda TJ, Mann R (1982) Benthic filter feeding: a natural eutrophication  
 380 control. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 9:203-210  
 381 Riisgård HU (2001) On measurement of filtration rates in bivalves – the stony road to reliable  
 382 data: review and interpretation. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 211:275-291  
 383 Riisgård HU, Randløv A (1981) Energy budgets, growth and filtration rates in *Mytilus edulis*  
 384 at different algal concentrations. *Mar Biol* 61:227-234  
 385 Riisgård HU, Bøttiger L, Pleissner D (2012) Effect of salinity on growth of mussels, *Mytilus*  
 386 *edulis*, with special reference to Great Belt (Denmark). *Open J Mar Sci* 2:167-176  
 387 Shumway SE (2011) Shellfish aquaculture and the environment. Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford

388 Svärdh L, Thulin J (1985). The parasite fauna of natural and farmed *Mytilus edulis* from the  
 389 west coast of Sweden, with special reference to *Renicola roscovita*. Meddelande Från  
 390 Havsfiskelaboratoriet Lysekil  
 391 Thieltges D (2006) Effect of infection by the metacercarial trematode *Renicola roscovita* on  
 392 growth in intertidal blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*. Mar Ecol Prog Ser 319:129-134  
 393 Thieltges DW, Rick J (2006) Effect of temperature on emergence, survival and infectivity of  
 394 cercariae of the marine trematode *Renicola roscovita* (Digenea: Renicolidae). Dis  
 395 Aquat Org 73: 63–68  
 396 van der Zee EM, van der Heide T, Donadi S, Eklöf JS, Eriksson BK, Olff H, van der Veer  
 397 HW, Piersma T (2012) ,Spatially extended habitat modification by intertidal reef  
 398 building bivalves has implications for consumer-resource interactions. Ecosystems  
 399 15:64–673  
 400 Werding B (1969) Morphologie, Entwicklung und Ökologie digener Trematoden-Larven der  
 401 Strandschnecke *Littorina littorea*. Mar Biol 3:306-333  
 402 Wilkinson SB, Zheng W, Allen JR, Fielding NJ, Wanstall VC, Russel G, Hawkins SJ (1996)  
 403 Water quality improvements in Liverpool Docks: the role of filter feeders in algal and  
 404 nutrient dynamics. Mar Ecol 17:197-211  
 405 Zens M (1999) Der Einfluss von Parasiten auf Vitalität und Bestandesentwicklung der  
 406 Miesmuschel (*Mytilus edulis* L.). Dienstber. Forschungsstelle Küste 5/1999,  
 407 Niedersächsisches Landesamt für Ökologie. Norderney  
 408

**Table 1:** Mean number  $\pm$  SD of *R. roscovita* metacercariae in different body tissues of infected small and large mussels. Autopsies showed that all uninfected mussels carried no did metacercariae of *R. roscovita*.

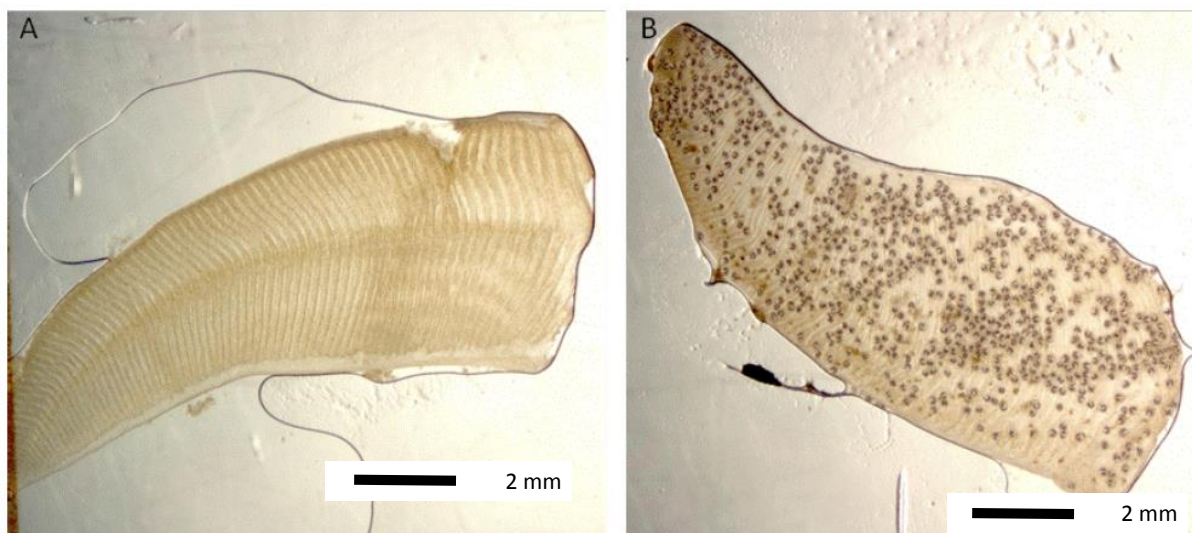
Mussel size	Labial palps	Gills	Foot	Other tissue	Total
Small	362 $\pm$ 95	397 $\pm$ 56	110 $\pm$ 71	627 $\pm$ 276	1559 $\pm$ 242
Large	1247 $\pm$ 470	647 $\pm$ 341	218 $\pm$ 89	920 $\pm$ 526	3032 $\pm$ 1247

**Table 2:** Mean shell length, palp surface area, no. of metacercariae mm<sup>-2</sup> mussel length and no. of metacercariae mm<sup>-2</sup> palp surface area (all  $\pm$  SD) of small and large infected and uninfected mussels. For calculations see text.

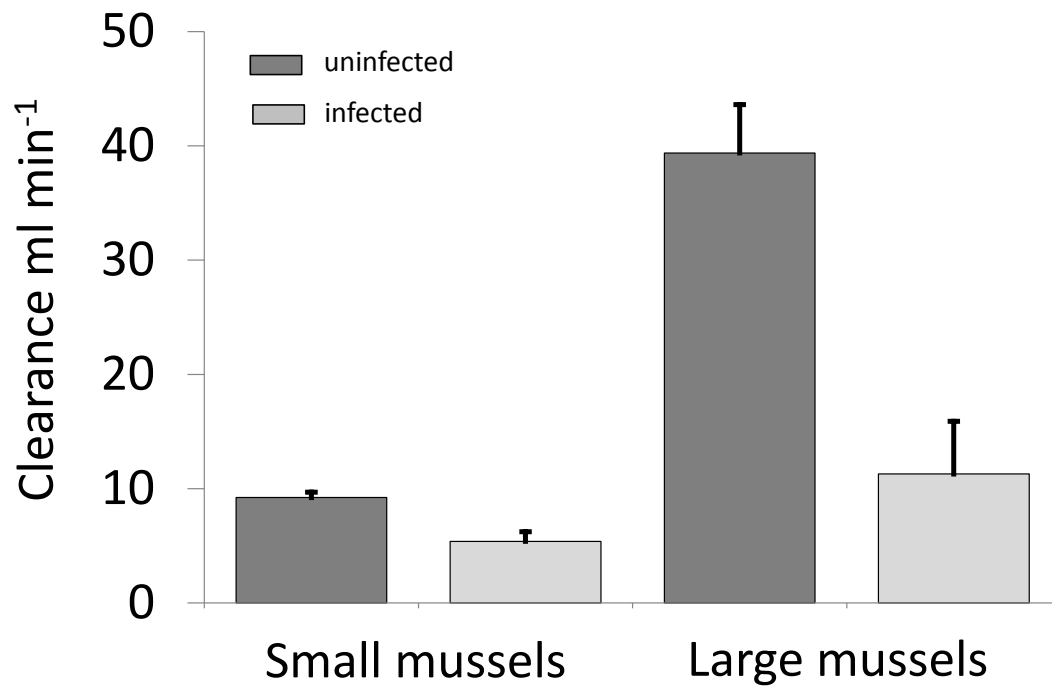
Size & infection densities	Small mussels		Large mussels	
	infected	uninfected	infected	uninfected
Shell length (mm)	21.28 $\pm$ 1.19	21.03 $\pm$ 0.55	47.52 $\pm$ 0.89	47.12 $\pm$ 0.88
Palp size (mm <sup>2</sup> )	8.35 $\pm$ 0.92	8.14 $\pm$ 0.43	41.56 $\pm$ 1.54	40.87 $\pm$ 1.63
No. metacerc. mm <sup>-2</sup> mussel	3.53 $\pm$ 0.63	-	1.38 $\pm$ 0.64	-
No. metacerc. mm <sup>-2</sup> palp	44.44 $\pm$ 9.99	-	30.51 $\pm$ 12.76	-

**Table 3:** Results of two-factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing for differences in clearance rate and condition (both log10 transformed) between uninfected and infected *M. edulis* of two size classes (small and large).

Effect	df	MS	F	p
<b>Clearance</b>				
Size	1	1.357	35.503	<0.001
Infection	1	0.903	23.618	<0.001
Size*Infection	1	0.144	3.761	0.068
Block	2	0.084	2.192	0.141
error	18	0.038		
<b>Condition</b>				
Size	1	0.60	92.071	<0.001
Infection	1	0.06	8.605	0.009
Size*Infection	1	0.001	0.214	0.649
Block	2	0,027	4.099	0.034
error	18	0,007		

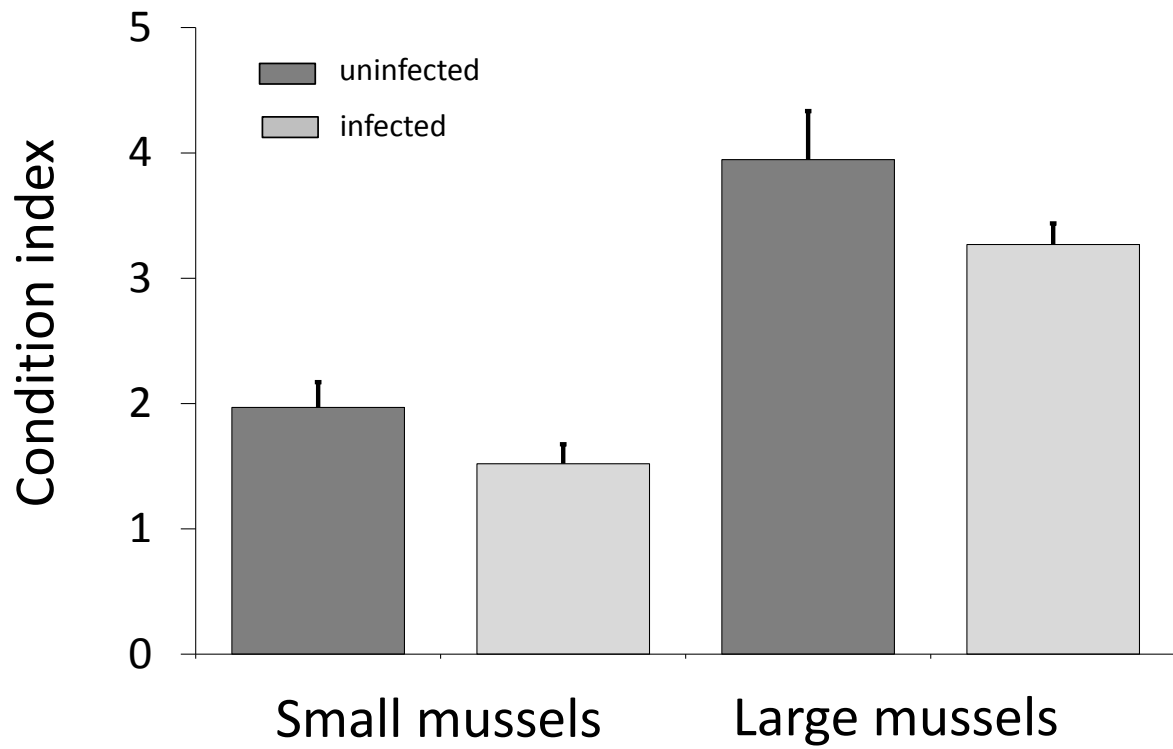


**Fig. 1:** a) Uninfected palp of a mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) and b) palp heavily infected with metacercariae of the trematode *Renicola roscovita*.



**Fig. 2:** Mean clearance rates (+SE) of small (19-22 mm) and large (46-49 mm) mussels with (infected) and without (uninfected) metacercarial infections of *R. roscovita* in the laboratory filtration experiment (back-transformed from log10) . n=6 per treatment combination.





**Fig. 3:** Mean condition index (+SE, calculated as dry weight x shell length<sup>-3</sup>) of small (19-22 mm) and large (46-49 mm) mussels with (infected) and without (uninfected) metacercarial infections of *R. roscovita* in the laboratory filtration experiment. n=6 per treatment combination.