The effect of Laminaria hyperborea detritus on the growth of key filter feeding species in the littoral zone

Jacquelyn Marie Diamond



Master thesis at the Department of Biosciences Section for Aquatic Biology and Toxicology (AQUA)

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

August 2018

The effect of *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus on the growth of key filter feeding species in the littoral zone

Jacquelyn Marie Diamond

© Jacquelyn Marie Diamond 2018 The effect of Laminaria hyperborea detritus on the growth of key filter feeding species in the littoral zone Jacquelyn Marie Diamond http://www.duo.uio.no/ Printer: Reprosentralen, University of Oslo

IV

Abstract

Laminaria hyperborea is an important species of kelp comprising large kelp forests along the Norwegian coast. Large quantities of detritus from these forests are exported to other ecosystems. These exports could support high secondary production in neighboring habitats, such as the intertidal zone. Kelp tissue fragments off the ends of the lamina, is degraded by bacteria and can then potentially be consumed by organisms like benthic filter-feeders. Mytilus edulis and Semibalanus balanoides are two key suspension feeders found in the littoral zone and feed primarily on phytoplankton and organic detritus. Some of this detritus could be derived from L. hyperborea. In order to investigate this, a growth experiment was devised to see how the two filter-feeders responded to different diets. One half of the organisms from each species received L. hyperborea detritus and the other half received a blend of three phytoplankton species: Protoceratium reticulatum, Prorocentrum minimum, and Skeletonema pseudocostatum. The test organisms were housed in aquaria with an artificial seawater system, while control organisms received natural running seawater from Oslofjord. Organisms were fed regularly with measurements of mussel shell length and barnacle shell diameter taken once a month. M. edulis individuals were grouped by small or large size and these measurements were analyzed separately. The large group of mussels on the phytoplankton diet grew significantly more than the detritus diet group. This means that the phytoplankton diet provided a better nutrition source than the detritus from L. hyperborea. There was no significant difference in the growth of small *M. edulis* between the two diet types. The small mussel group fed L. hyperborea detritus grew just as well as the phytoplankton diet group. There was no difference in size between the diet groups for the barnacles when considering only the effect of diet. Both barnacle diet groups had a significantly smaller size than the control group. Overall, S. balanoides grew very little over the duration of the experiment. The result from M. edulis shows that this species can survive on L. hyperborea detritus and in the case of the small group they can grow equally as well as on a phytoplankton diet. The outcome from S. balanoides indicates that more factors may need to be taken into consideration with this species and its feeding activity. This thesis gives a fundamental aim of investigating the relationship between L. hyperborea and the filter feeding species living in the littoral zone.

Acknowledgements

Before beginning at the University of Oslo, I had a difficult decision to make. I knew I wanted to study a master's in biology but was unsure of the concentration I wanted to take. I had always been interested in marine biology but after the first lecture in Benthic Ecology, I knew I had made the right decision. This study has taught me a lot but not just what was important for the exams. Cooperation with classmates on the field course, time management, the importance of setting small goals, being creative with solutions, and most importantly asking for help when it is needed.

Throughout the writing of this thesis, there were numerous people whose support and encouragement helped me to complete this work. I am especially grateful for their help as I wouldn't have been able to finish without them.

First, my advisor Stein Fredriksen whose advice and suggestions were essential during the experiment, as well as the editing of numerous drafts and guidance with the statistics. My coadvisor Wenche Eikrem, for her knowledge of microalgae and help with the cultures. Rita Amundsen for help with making medium and loan of the filter. Berit Kaasa for analyzing my samples in the laboratory. My friend, Louise Valestrand, for giving detailed and helpful feedback on my drafts and always giving an answer to my random questions. My partner Åsmund Ervik, without whose encouragement I may not have finished before the deadline. A big thank you to my parents, without their support I would not be at this position in my life. And lastly the students in room 4405, I have had a fantastic two years at UiO and you guys have been the highlight of the experience.

Table of Contents

Αl	Abstract\				
A	cknowled	gements	VIII		
1	Intro	duction	1		
	1.1	Study organisms	2		
	1.1.1	Mytilus edulis Linnaeus	2		
	1.1.2	Semibalanus balanoides	4		
	1.1.3	Phytoplankton	5		
	1.2	Kelp forests	6		
	1.2.1				
	1.3	Study aims	9		
2	Mate	rials and Methods	10		
	2.1	Collection of organisms			
	2.1.1	Mytilus edulis	10		
	2.1.2	Semibalanus balanoides	11		
	2.2	Aquaria set-up	11		
	2.2.1	Mytilus edulis design	12		
	2.2.2	Semibalanus balanoides design	13		
	2.2.3				
	2.2.4	Diet	15		
	2.3	Measurements			
	2.4	Lipid analysis	21		
	2.5	Statistical analysis	22		
	2.5.1	Mann-Whitney U test on Mytilus edulis data	22		
	2.5.2	Two-factor ANOVA on Semibalanus balanoides data	22		
3	Results		24		
	3.1	Statistical analysis of shell growth	24		
	3.1.1	Mann-Whitney U test on Mytilus edulis	24		
	3.1.2	ANOVA test on Semibalanus balanoides			
	3.1.3	Summary of statistical results	33		
	3.2	Lipid analysis of tissues	34		
	3.2.1	Mytilus edulis large test groups and control	34		
	3.2.2	,			
	3.2.3	Semibalanus balanoides	35		
	3.3	Response to study aims	36		
4	Discu	ssion	37		

4.1	Different growth results based on size group of Mytilus edulis	37
4.2	Semibalanus balanoides test groups smaller than control	40
4.3	Conclusion	41
4.4	Improvements and future work	42
References	·	44
Appendix 1	L	49
Appendix 2	2	50
Appendix 3	sion 41 ements and future work 42 44 49 50 52 58 58	
Appendix 4	1	58
Appendix 5	5	61

1 Introduction

The littoral zone describes the area where the terrestrial and marine systems meet, from the high tide to the low tide. Above the littoral zone is the supralittoral, which stretches up to the highest point of the black *Verrucaria* belt. The sublittoral is below the littoral zone down to the area where the deepest algal vegetation can be found. Marine species found in the intertidal area of rocky littoral systems display a specific vertical sequence called zonation (Chappuis et al., 2014). This can be defined as the distribution of species and communities along environmental gradients (Chappuis et al., 2014) for example wave exposure, seawater temperature, salinity, shore slope, nutrient availability, or biotic interactions among organisms (Cefali et al., 2016). Extreme conditions are experienced by organisms living in the littoral zone and species must be highly tolerant to withstand the threats of desiccation, strong currents, temperature and salinity fluctuations, in addition to predation pressure (Marfenin et al., 2013). Instability is the key feature in this environment.

In addition to the stressful conditions, certain processes like contamination, climate change effects and increased ultraviolet radiation are magnified in the littoral system compared to deeper zones (Marfenin et al., 2013). This contributes further to the harshness of the living conditions in this environment.

Despite the number of severe factors species must deal with in the intertidal, there are some benefits to life in this habitat. High levels of nutrients and plenty of light mean that productivity levels are high in the littoral system. Benthic organisms recycle nutrients, tides bring in more nutrients and wind helps with mixing (Demers et al., 1989). An abundance of nutrients and light availability supports high phytoplankton productivity but not necessarily high biomass. Benthic filter-feeders which are abundant in this habitat can influence the amount of particular organic matter found in the water column (Demers et al., 1989). Consequently very little phytoplankton biomass is built up in the littoral due to the high grazing by these organisms (Demers et al., 1989). In contrast to the littoral, grazing activity is reduced offshore which allows phytoplankton biomass accumulation to occur in the mixed layer (Demers et al., 1989).

Filter-feeding organisms such as *Mytilus edulis* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Semibalanus balanoides* (Linnaeus, 1767) commonly inhabit the rocky littoral zones of coastal Norway. The littoral

zone is generally wave-exposed and therefore makes it a great location for sessile filter-feeders to obtain various food sources. Detritus from local kelp forests can also be exported to these areas. Old kelp tissue fragments off the distal part of the lamina and after being decomposed by bacteria is released as detritus into the water column (Abdullah et al., 2017). In South Africa, a study conducted by Bustamante et al. (1996) found that filter-feeders used particulate kelp detritus as their major source of organic carbon and nitrogen. They also found that average particulate organic matter (POM) levels were significantly higher on exposed shores than sheltered shores. In the Aleutian Islands (Alaska), kelps belonging to the genera *Laminaria* and *Alaria* were identified as supporting high productivity in adjacent ecosystems through the export of their detritus (Duggins, 1989). Since these links between filter-feeders and kelp forests are found in similar climates, it is sensible to investigate further the relationship between filter-feeders and kelp detritus in Norway.

1.1 Study organisms

1.1.1 Mytilus edulis Linnaeus

Mytilus edulis are filter-feeding sessile bivalves whose diet consists of phytoplankton, zooplankton, and detritus which are filtered from the water column (Lesser et al., 2010). The blue mussel is a cold-temperate generalist with a nearly cosmopolitan distribution stretching from both sides of the northern Atlantic (Lesser et al., 2010; Sorte et al., 2017) as well as down the western coasts of North and South America (Berge et al., 2006; Suchanek, 1978). In Norway, various species of Mytilus including M. edulis are found along the entire coast (Figure 1) with M. edulis solely found inhabiting intertidal rocky shores in Oslofjord (Brooks & Farmen, 2013). The blue mussels used in this experiment were taken from

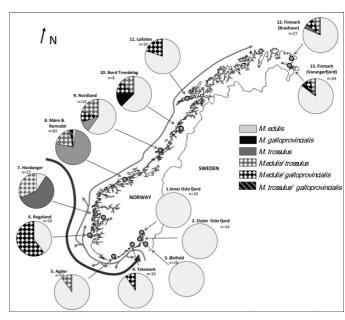


Figure 1: Distribution of various Mytilus species along the Norwegian coast (From Brooks & Farmen, 2013). The mussels used in the experiment were taken from Oslofjord which only has the species Mytilus edulis.

Oslofjord, therefore it is very unlikely that they belonged to another *Mytilus* species. Blue

mussels are frequently used in growth experiments due to their development being affected by external factors in their habitat. Berge (2006) describes mussel growth as, "A sensitive parameter of the suitability of the environment..." and that "Growth is an unspecified response, but provides a quantitative measure of stress experienced by the mussel". In addition to the sensitivity of M. edulis growth to environmental conditions, there are a few other reasons for conducting experiments with this species. First, M. edulis is considered an important foundation species within intertidal food webs and also creates beds that provide essential habitats for diverse assemblages of invertebrates, supporting high biodiversity (Seed, 1969a; Suchanek, 1978, 1992). These beds are made up of living mussels, shells, debris and sediment; they can house as many as 300 species at a specific location (Suchanek, 1978). Mussel beds provide protection to associated species from harsh environmental conditions, shelter from predation, and a vast amount of surface area for settlement for sessile species (Suchanek, 1978). Second, they are capable of tolerating a wide range of environmental conditions because of their external shell and firm attachment to the substrate (Seed, 1969a).

Spawning generally occurs from spring to summer with blue mussel larvae first attaching to filamentous substrates where they are temporarily settled until migrating permanently to adult mussel beds (Seed, 1969b).

As previously stated, *Mytilus edulis* is a key species inhabiting the littoral zone. Its upward expansion is restricted to the littoral zone by abiotic factors, like temperature and desiccation, while a combination of competition for space and predation controls its lower boundary on shore (Suchanek, 1978).

In contrast to what was earlier believed about particle size capture by mussels (Coe & Fox, 1944), mussels do not select food particles based on size (Bayne, 1976). Selection is based on the chemical composition of the particles (Ward & Targett, 1989). Mussels have been observed filtering natural seawater with a particle size ranging between 2-100µm (Bayne, 1976). Food is captured by a mucus secreted over the animal's gills which particles stick to and then the mucus sheet is drawn into the mouth (Coe & Fox, 1944). *M. edulis* does not filter in very dilute suspensions but instead begins filtering when particle concentration reaches an unknown critical threshold (Bayne, 1976). While there have been numerous studies focusing on the diet of *M. edulis* with an emphasis on phytoplankton as the primary food source, more research is needed on the potential link between bivalves and detritus from kelp as nutrition.

Mytilus californianus, a closely related species to M. edulis, was found to use organic detritus from various sources as its primary food supply, as living phytoplankton could provide only a small amount of the nutrients required (Coe & Fox, 1944). In a study conducted by Lesser et al. (2010), it was found that M. edulis populations in Maine consumed a mixed diet of phytoplankton and detritus originating from macrophytes in the intertidal. The larvae of M. edulis were fed four diverse species of algae grown under various conditions to evaluate if there would be a change in growth or mortality (Leonardos & Lucas, 2000). All the larvae survived and there was a significant difference in larval growth with the most nutritious alga containing a low proportion of carbon to nitrogen ratio equal to 16, saturated fatty acids, as well as increased proteins and carbohydrates.

1.1.2 Semibalanus balanoides

Semibalanus balanoides is an intertidal, boreal-arctic species of barnacles (Marfenin et al., 2013) which feeds by filtering microscopic organic particles from the water. This animal is found inhabiting the littoral zone on rocky shores and competes with Mytilus edulis in their shared habitat. S. balanoides has a widespread habitat distribution with organisms found on both coasts of the North Atlantic, as far south as northwestern Spain, as well as individuals found in the Pacific from Alaska to Japan (Bourget et al., 1990). This species has a breeding cycle which is attenuated to fluctuations in temperature and nutrition with fertilization generally taking place in autumn (Crisp, 1964). Habitat and latitude influence breeding times and growth rates of S. balanoides meaning that fertilization will occur earlier in northerly latitudes than more southern habitats (Crisp, 1959). Decreases in temperature and nutrients, increase in animal's age and possibly decreased irradiance are some of the factors which prompt maturity (Crisp, 1959). S. balanoides is an obligate, cross-fertilizing hermaphrodite (Pineda et al., 2002). The nauplii of S. balanoides are released in the spring/summer season in concert with the spring phytoplankton bloom (Davenport et al., 2005). These are nauplius I larvae which will molt six times, producing nauplii II-VI, before molting into a final cyprid stage (Pineda et al., 2002). The planktonic larvae of S. balanoides spend weeks in the water column before settling on a permanent location (Bertness et al., 1991).

Sessile filter-feeders are ideal candidates to study secondary production as they cannot move to find nutrition and therefore food resources can be thought of as a flux of food particles available in the water to individuals (Bertness et al., 1991). Labarbera (1984) describes

S. balanoides as a facultative active suspension feeder. This describes the organism's process of actively driving water through feeding cirri or by passively extending its cirri into currents to collect food (Labarbera, 1984).

Bertness et al. (1991) describes acorn barnacles (*Semibalanus balanoides*) specifically as being preferred study organisms for production influence experiments. It was found that barnacle secondary production can be enhanced by high primary production and patterns in barnacle growth and reproduction may reflect food supply rates (Bertness et al., 1991).

The growth of *Semibalanus balanoides* has been studied with regards to geographic variation (Bertness et al., 1991) and oceanographic effects (Burrows et al., 2010) but the effect of feeding this organism different species of algae has not been thoroughly explored.

1.1.3 Phytoplankton

The spring bloom is a common characteristic found in northern temperate coastal ecosystems (Cebrian & Valiela, 1999) with this short event usually taking place in late February/early March in the Oslofjord and in mid-April to end of May in northern Norway (Hegseth et al., 1995). Increasing light, low temperature and high nutrient levels mark the environmental conditions at the time of this event (Hegseth et al., 1995). Sverdrup (1953) first discussed the importance of the critical depth before the onset of the bloom stating that the mixed surface layer must be less than the critical depth if the phytoplankton in the mixed layer will increase. This is because production only occurs above the compensation depth where the rate of photosynthesis production is higher than respiration rate. Nutrients generally become depleted as the phytoplankton rapidly consume and multiply with the exhaustion of nitrate and silicic acid triggering the collapse of the Oslofjord spring bloom (Kristiansen, 1987). Diatoms tend to dominate the phytoplankton community in the Oslofjord (Kristiansen et al., 2001). Silicic acid is vital to diatoms due to its use in the development of the frustule. When silicic acid becomes depleted, the phytoplankton community shifts from being diatom-dominated to flagellate-dominated (Malone et al., 1996).

1.2 Kelp forests

1.2.1 Laminaria hyperborea (Gunnerus) Foslie 1884

Laminaria hyperborea belongs to the family Laminariaceae, order Laminariales, (Kain, 1971) class Phaeophyceae. The structure consists of three parts: the lamina, stipe, and holdfast which attaches the kelp to hard-bottom surfaces (Eilertsen et al., 2011). Primary and secondary growth are seasonal. The transition zone between stipe and frond is where primary growth occurs (Kain, 1971). This tissue is comprised of a medulla, inner and outer cortex (Kain, 1963). Secondary cortex is produced below the mature part of the stipe consisting of a meristematic layer and increases the stipe's diameter (Kain, 1963, 1967). Primary growth is fastest from January to June, and then slows down extremely for the remainder of the year (Kain, 1963). Secondary growth speeds up much later than primary growth and results in lines

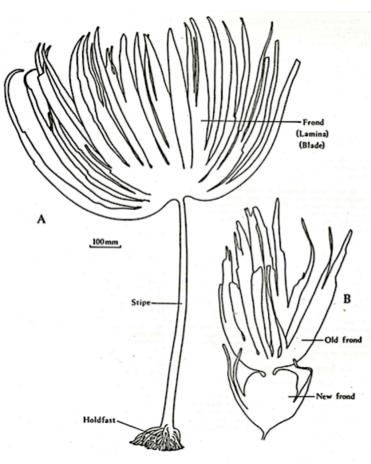


Figure 2: A: Drawing showing the structure of Laminaria hyperborea sporophyte during the slow growing season. B: Shows a typical plant in February with the old and new fronds (From Kain, 1971).

in a vertical section or rings in transverse (Kain, 1963). Cells produced in slow growth are dark and small, therefore the two types of cells can be distinguished from each other and approximate age can be inferred from the number of zones of these cells (Kain, 1963). The cells in the transition zone initiate growth of the frond and a young blade develops distally from this zone. This tissue develops into a rounded lamina with slits eventually materializing with the end result being finger-like processes (Kain, 1963). These developments occur during the fast stipe growth followed by a slow growth period, resulting in a small amount of frond growth at the transition zone which forms a band of tissue at the base of the old frond. When a new frond emerges below this in a fast growth period the narrow band of tissue joins the new and old fronds (Figure 2) until April or May when the old frond is torn off (Kain, 1963). The fast-growing period begins in the winter when there is the least light available, therefore growth of the frond takes place by use of storage material in the lamina (Kain, 1963). The laminas are covered with reproductive tissue from fall to spring and gametophytes appear during winter and can give rise to sporophytes soon after, usually during winter and spring (Kain, 1963).



Figure 3: Map showing distribution of Laminaria hyperborea in Western Europe (From Kain, 1967).

Laminaria hyperborea is a significant kelp species which comprises large kelp forests along the Norwegian coast and is responsible for high secondary production in adjacent habitats (Norderhaug & Christie, 2011). This species forms dense forests on the substratum where it dominates over other algae and results in a markedly changed environment (Kain, 1962). These forests occur from low water springs down to a variable depth. L. hyperborea thrives in semi-exposed areas with unstable gravelly bottoms to fully exposed stable rocky bottoms (Kain, 1962). This species is found as far south as northern Portugal, as far north as northern Norway (71°N) with distribution stretching east to the Murman coast of Russia (Figure 3) (Araújo et al., 2009; Kain, 1967; Schoschina, 2012). According to Kain (1963), most of the advantage in more northerly attitudes (i.e. Norway) is connected with longer life rather than faster growth. The factor which limits the depth maximum of L. hyperborea forests acts on their initial establishment and not on their growth (Kain, 1963). Growth conditions do deteriorate with depth and therefore light availability controls the depth limit (Kain, 1963). Despite this, the establishment stage is critical to the success of a new forest even if colonizing on a suitable substratum.

Detritus can be exported from kelp forests to surrounding habitats such as rocky intertidal shores and then enhance secondary production there (Krumhansl & Scheibling, 2012). Along the Norwegian coast, $Laminaria\ hyperborea$ is estimated to cover an area of > 5000 km² (Fosså, 1995). Norderhaug and Christie (2011) found that only 8% of primary production was utilized in high to medium exposed kelp forests, suggesting that large quantities of L. hyperborea are exported to other systems. Abdullah et al. (2017) determined that kelp was the major source of organic matter in sediment cores taken in the area of a well-established kelp community off the west coast of Norway. The high levels of phenols in kelp make it disagreeable as a food source for most benthic organisms (Norderhaug et al., 2006). Phenols are antiherbivore and antibacterivore which is the reason why kelp may not always be consumed by organisms or bacteria. This would suggest that a substantial amount of POC derived from kelp remains in the aquatic system and may be sedimented or exported to other areas (Abdullah et al., 2017).

If Laminaria hyperborea detritus contributes significantly to the growth of either Mytilus edulis or Semibalanus balanoides, this could help direct future studies to understanding this trophic interaction thoroughly. This kelp species has undergone significant regime shifts in Norway in the last decades and is currently recovering from the barren ground to kelp forest state (Norderhaug & Christie, 2009) and it is uncertain to what extent climate change can exacerbate the recovery of kelp forests. Recent studies have shown a worrying trend of declining kelp forests and reduced stability due to warmer ocean temperatures and eutrophication along coastlines (Filbee-Dexter & Wernberg, 2018). If kelp forests continue to be negatively affected by climate change, especially by increased warming, this could have serious consequences for the multitude of species which depend on kelp forests and their detritus exports.

1.3 Study aims

It is important to see if the growth of these key filter-feeders might be affected by kelp detritus in their diet. Therefore, *Mytilus edulis* and *Semibalanus balanoides* were collected and fed detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea*.

The objective of this study was to determine if detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* had a significant effect on the growth of *M. edulis* and *S. balanoides* compared to a diet consisting of three different species of phytoplankton.

The following hypotheses were tested:

 H_0 = There is no difference in growth of *<the organism>* due to different algal species in their diet.

 H_1 = There is a difference in growth of *<the organism>* due to different algal species in their diet.

Where < the organism > is M. edulis or S. balanoides.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Collection of organisms

2.1.1 Mytilus edulis

Mytilus edulis organisms were collected from the guest harbor at Drøbak on the Oslofjord in February 2017 (Figure 4). A rake was used to scrape the blue mussels from the side of the dock and the organisms were placed in seawater filled buckets. The animals were collected from the exposed side of the dock facing out towards the fjord. Two size groups of mussels were collected: a smaller group of <20mm and a larger group of >20mm. The mussels were taken to the Department of Biosciences at the University of Oslo and placed in the aquarium room in the cellar. A total of 60 mussels were harvested for the experiment with approximately an extra 30 individuals taken as backups.

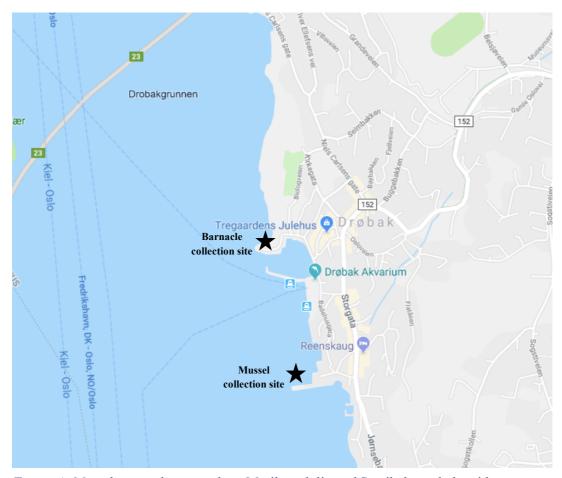


Figure 4: Map showing the sites where Mytilus edulis and Semibalanus balanoides were collected in Drøbak (From Google Maps).

2.1.2 Semibalanus balanoides

Plates were smeared with older Semibalanus balanoides organisms and hung over the fjord in Drøbak in March 2017. Barnacle larvae are attracted to surfaces where adult barnacles have settled and will settle on these habitats. An ice scrape was used to collect old barnacles attached to the rocks along the shoreline next to the university's biological station in Drøbak. The old barnacles were crushed between two stone plates and smeared on all the plates attached to the chain. First a chain was laid out and the nine square plates evenly spaced in a row along this. The plates were attached to the chain using plastic ties looped through the hole drilled in the middle of each. Three ropes were attached to the chain with one at each end and one in the middle. The chain was then hung in the middle of an old barnacle settlement` at the edge of the dock next to the biological station by tying the ropes to planks on the dock. In April 2017 the first larvae had settled on the plates and began to grow their shells. By May 2017 the plates were covered with thousands of small S. balanoides juveniles. They were then moved from the chain with six of the nine plates placed in the aquarium room in the cellar at the Department of Biosciences in Oslo. The remaining three were set up in aquaria at the biological station in Drøbak to be used as controls. Before placement in the aquaria the plates were thinned using a metal pick to reduce the risk of crowding between the barnacles.

2.2 Aquaria set-up

Six identical aquaria (handmade at UiO) were placed in a room in the cellar of the Department of Biosciences at the University of Oslo (Figure 5). This room had access to the artificial seawater system. Two hoses were connected to the water spouts in the ceiling with each end placed in a separate plastic rectangular container raised on a platform on opposite sides of the room. These containers were raised up higher on one end so that water could drain out a pipe on the opposite end. Three glass aquaria were placed in each of these two containers and filled with the artificial seawater. In each aquarium a water pump (Fluval Nano Aquarium Filter (up to 55L) 6.8W) was placed to continuously circulate the water.

The artificial seawater had a temperature of 9.4°C and salinity of 20 PSU in February 2017. The water in the system had just been replaced and the salinity would adjust after full circulation. When taking down the aquaria in November 2017 the temperature was 10°C and the PSU was 32.

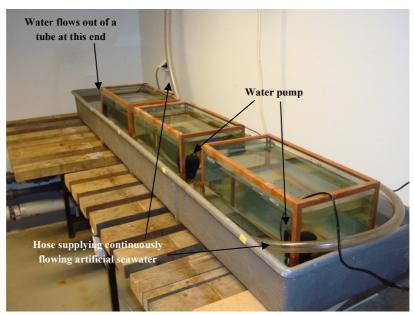


Figure 5: Aquarium set-up in the cellar of The Department of Biosciences at Blindern, Oslo. There was an identical aquarium set-up on the opposite side of the room (not shown in photo) contributing to a total of 6 aquariums that could be used simultaneously for the experiment.

2.2.1 Mytilus edulis design

The mussels were dried off with paper towels before being glued to rectangular PVC plates using super glue (Clas Ohlson Universal Super Glue Water-resistant). The organisms were glued in a row with approximately 2cm of space left for growth between them (Figure 6). The first row consisted of the larger mussel group, with the second group composing the smaller group of mussels. Each group consisted of 5 individuals meaning there were a total of ten mussels per plate/aquarium. Each plate was placed in an aquarium with a small plastic cup raising the plate up about 5cm off the aquarium floor. Therefore, each aquarium had ten mussels of two size groups contributing to a total of 60 mussels with half belonging to each respective size group. Water in the aquaria was replaced every 2 weeks with each aquarium emptied and cleaned out every 2-3 weeks.



Figure 6: Mytilus edulis glued to a PVC plate before placement in the aquarium. The first row consists of the larger organisms and the second row is the small group of mussels.

On 17 March 2017, thirty-one days after the start of the experiment some test mussels at the university had managed to move from their glued positions. The plates were taken out of the aquaria and dried. The loose mussels were measured to determine which group and spot they belonged to. The animals were then dried with paper towels before placing glue on the plates in the correct position. After the glue

had dried, the plates were placed back in to their respective aquaria. The final measurements were taken on 2^{nd} of May.

2.2.2 Semibalanus balanoides design

The aquaria were organized identically to the mussel experiment, six aquaria with running artificial seawater. The stone plates were raised off the aquarium floor using the same plastic cups as in the mussel experiment (Figure 7). Aquaria were cleaned every 2-3 weeks and received new water every 2 weeks. The barnacles were measured once a month over a four-month period.

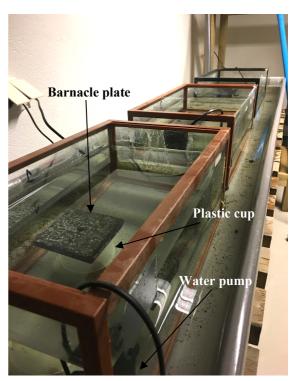


Figure 7: Semibalanus balanoides covered plates set up in aquaria in the cellar at the Department of Biosciences, Blindern, Oslo. The plates were raised approximately 5cm off the aquarium floor by small plastic cups.

2.2.3 Control design

Mytilus edulis

A control experiment was set up in parallel to the test experiment at the university's biological station in Drøbak in February 2017. Thirty blue mussels were taken from those collected in the guest harbor and placed in three aquaria at the biological station with some extra individuals placed in a fourth aquarium. The aquaria received natural running seawater from the fjord so that the organisms would receive a normal diet (Figure 8). The animals were glued down to the same plastic plates as described earlier with enough space for growth between individuals. Two size groups had been chosen identical to the test experiment.



Figure 8: Control set-up at Biologen in Drøbak. The aquaria received natural seawater from Oslofjord through plastic tubes. Each Mytilus edulis control and Semibalanus balanoides control shared an aquarium.

Semibalanus balanoides

A control was set up at the biological station with three aquaria receiving natural running seawater from Oslofjord. This was set up 1st of June and the control barnacles shared aquaria with the second group of control mussels (Figure 9). The control aquaria were set up identically for the barnacles as described for the control mussels. The control barnacles had to be taken back to the Department of Biosciences at Blindern, Oslo for measurement on the microscope in the Algae Lab.

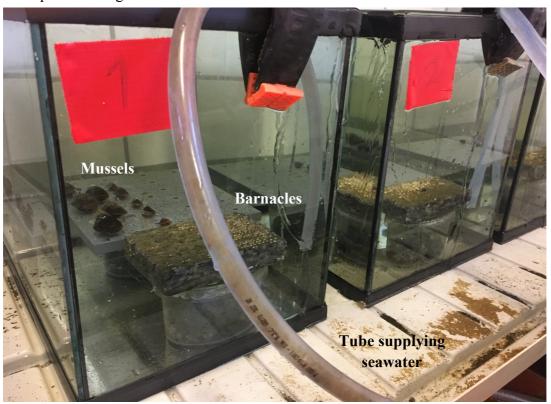


Figure 9: One control for Mytilus edulis and one control for Semibalanus balanoides were placed in each aquarium together. The organisms were nourished with natural seawater continuously flowing from Oslofjord.

2.2.4 Diet

Both *Mytilus edulis* and *Semibalanus balanoides* were fed the same type of diet over the experimental period. Half of the test organisms from each species received a diet of kelp detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* while the remaining half received a mixture of three different phytoplankton species. The phytoplankton species used in this study include two dinoflagellates, *Protoceratium reticulatum* (Claparède & Lachmann) Bütschli 1885, *Prorocentrum minimum* (Pavillard) J. Schiller 1933, and a diatom, *Skeletonema pseudocostatum* Medlin 1991. Both species control groups were housed in aquaria with

natural seawater and therefore were nourished by the phytoplankton in the surface water found naturally in Oslofjord.

Preparation of phytoplankton mixture

As stated earlier, the algae cultures used to feed the test animals were: *Protoceratium reticulatum*, *Prorocentrum minimum*, and *Skeletonema pseudocostatum*. Each of these cultures had been grown by Professor Bente Edvardsen (UiO) and maintained throughout the experiment in the Culture room at the Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo. The cocktail created to nourish the test organisms was made by blending 200mL from each culture in an Erlenmeyer flask. Therefore, each of the three phytoplankton aquaria received a total of 600mL of phytoplankton every 3 days. An IMR ½ medium (Eppley et al., 1967) was made to maintain the microalgae cultures.

Preparation of kelp

Laminaria hyperborea used in this experiment were harvested by Professor Stein Fredriksen (UiO) outside Stavanger in March 2016 and were kept frozen (-18°) in plastic containers in the Algae lab at the Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo. The frozen kelp blades were placed in a mortar and liquid nitrogen was added. The blades were crushed into smaller particles with a pestle. These particles were then transferred to plastic trays and placed in a

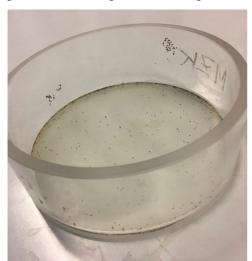


Figure 10: The 500-micron filter used to filter Laminaria hyperborea detritus. The detritus was blended with liquid nitrogen, dried and then crushed with a mortar and pestle before filtering.

drying oven (Termaks 'Mains': FOH60) at 60°C for a minimum of five days. After being fully dried, the contents of the trays were emptied back into the mortar to be crushed into finer particles. These particles were filtered using a 500-micron filter (handmade by Rita Amundsen, UiO) (Figure 10) which ensured that no particles larger than 500µm were used in the experiment. The majority of the *L. hyperborea* particles were most likely smaller than this size after being grinded multiple times. After being filtered for size, the particles were placed in sealed plastic tubes for storage. When it came time for feeding, the particles were placed in Eppendorf tubes and weighed

at 0.9g. Each of the three aquaria receiving kelp were fed with the contents of one tube every 3-4 days.

Carbon nitrogen analysis of diet

An analysis was performed on both diet samples to determine the C:N composition. Five Eppendorf tubes were filled with the detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* used to feed the test organisms. The three phytoplankton cultures were blended together and prepared as described earlier. Vacuum filtration was used to filter five replicates of this mixture onto GF/C filter paper. These ten samples were submitted to the Toxicology Lab at the Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo. Berit Kaasa (UiO) performed the analysis on the samples.

The diet consisting of detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* had a higher C:N ratio than the diet of phytoplankton (Figure 11). The sample of *L. hyperborea* detritus had an average carbon nitrogen ratio of 17:1 compared with the average ratio of 3:0 for the phytoplankton samples. These values are in contrast to the typical Redfield ratio for carbon: nitrogen which is 6:6 (Geider & La Roche, 2002). The Redfield ratio is important in determining from what source an element originated, for example land-based or marine-based. Alfred Redfield equated the elemental composition of plankton with that of inorganic C, N, and P in seawater and that variations in inorganic nutrients were a result of the decomposition of organic matter (Geider & La Roche, 2002).

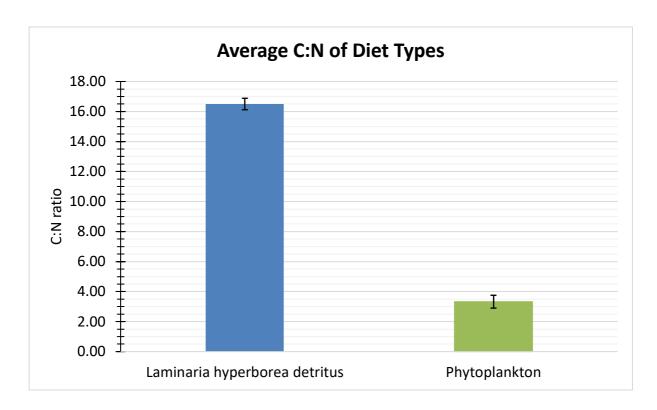


Figure 11: Comparison of carbon:nitrogen content between the two diet groups. Detritus from Laminaria hyperborea had a C:N ratio of 17:1 while the phytoplankton mixture had a C:N ratio of 3:0.

The kelp detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* contained around ten times more nitrogen and carbon than the phytoplankton mixture (Table 1). This means that the *Mytilus edulis* organisms which were fed detritus received a higher amount of carbon and nitrogen than the phytoplankton group for every time they were fed.

Table 1: Comparison of average % nitrogen and average % carbon in detritus from Laminaria hyperborea and the phytoplankton diet. The detritus from Laminaria hyperborea had a higher percentage of carbon and nitrogen than the phytoplankton blend.

	Average	
Diet	% Nitrogen	% Carbon
Laminaria	2.14 ± 0.06	32.76 ± 0.19
hyperborea		
Phytoplankton	0.36 ± 0.02	3.33 ± 0.06

2.3 Measurements

Mytilus edulis shell length measurements

The blue mussels were measured once a month for four months from February to May 2017. The first measurement was on the day of set-up, 15 February. Measurements of shell length were performed by taking the plates out of the aquaria and placing on a flat surface. A digital caliper was used (Cocraft Digital Caliper 0-150mm) to measure from the anterior to posterior position on the shell. The shell length measurements were recorded for every individual according to group (small or large) and aquarium type/diet. The final measurements were taken on 2nd May.

Semibalanus balanoides shell diameter measurements

The *Semibalanus balanoides* stone plates were moved from the chain at Drøbak to the cellar at the Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo on 1st of May. The plates were then taken into the Algae Lab for their initial measurement on 3rd of May. Each plate was placed in a square plastic box filled with water from its respective aquarium and a stereo microscope

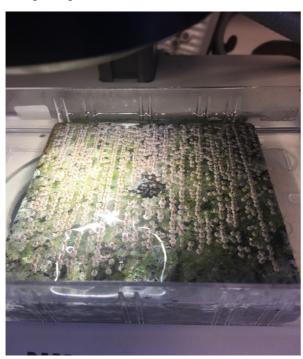


Figure 12: Initial measurements ready to be taken of Semibalanus balanoides organisms just moved from Drøbak. The plate is placed on the base of the stereo microscope.

(Nikon SMZ-U) was used to measure the shell diameter of 20 randomly chosen living individuals from each plate (Figure 12). Individual *S. balanoides* organisms were determined to be living if their cirri were beating/filtering water. The microscope (0,75X) was connected to a computer monitor (Dell) where a digital camera system for microscopy (Nikon Digital Sight DS-L1) was used to measure the shell lengths on each plate. These measurements were then photographed (Figure 13) with a microscope camera head (Nikon Digital Sight DS-5M) and organized according to plate number/diet/date.

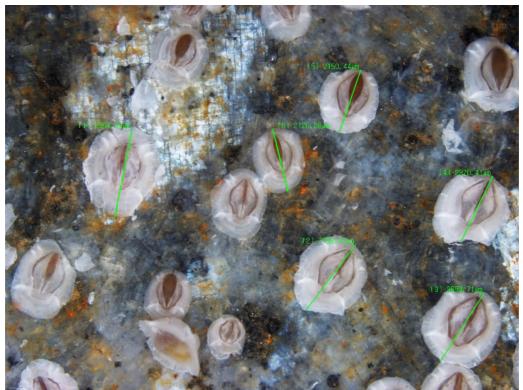


Figure 13: First photo of plate 4 of the Semibalanus balanoides organisms which would be receiving the phytoplankton diet. Shell diameter measurements are in micrometers.

The last planned measurements were taken on 28th August. However, since the barnacles had not grown as much as expected, their test period was extended by one month. They were fed during this time to see if their growth would increase much more. Therefore, the fourth and final measurements were taken 17th of October.

Control measurements

Control organisms were measured identically to the corresponding test organisms.

Mytilus edulis control

The control individuals were measured once a month with the first measurement taken on the day of setup. In March 2017, all of the control mussels were alive and appeared to be filtering. The water was replaced in the tanks as there was a buildup of feces and particles. None of these mussels had moved from their original glued positions. This control experiment was mistakenly taken down in early April 2017 before the test period conclusion and a new one had to be set up on 10 May 2017.

The second control had the same set-up as the first control the only difference being that the mussels used were taken from outside Tollboden in Drøbak along the Oslofjord. This group were measured from May to August 2017. Aquaria were cleaned every 2-3 weeks and the mussels measured once a month from the day of set-up. The shell length was measured as described previously. The first measurements were taken on 10th of May.

When taking the second set of measurements on 15th of June, it was discovered that some of the mussels had moved from their glued positions. They were identified and re-glued using a new super glue (Loctite Power Glue Repair Extreme). The final measurements of the control were taken on 15th September.

The natural seawater varied between temperatures of 1°C in February 2017 to 5°C in March 2017 and finally 12°C in September. The PSU increased from 32 in February 2017 to 34 in May 2017.

Semibalanus balanoides control

The control organisms were measured identically to the *Semibalanus balanoides* test organisms. The control was transported back and forth between the university's biological station at Drøbak and the Department of Biosciences at the University of Oslo. The same microscope and camera settings were used so the test and control measurements could be compared precisely. The first measurements were taken in May 2017 and the last measurements taken in August 2017.

2.4 Lipid analysis

A lipid analysis of the *Mytilus edulis* samples was performed by ALS Laboratory Group Norway AS. The NMR method was used to determine the amount of lipids in the samples. The measurement uncertainty was 6.0% and the units were reported in 0.1g/100g. A minimum of 30g was required per sample and mussels from each group were combined into one sample to meet this minimum. For example, the five large *M. edulis* individuals which received the phytoplankton diet were submitted as one sample for analysis and are labeled the large *M. edulis* phytoplankton group.

2.5 Statistical analysis

2.5.1 Mann-Whitney U test on Mytilus edulis data

Data were analyzed in Microsoft Excel using the XLSTAT extension package. Summary statistics were performed for each group of data and normality of each group was determined using the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine the significance of difference between data groups for *M. edulis* shell length measurements. This test was also used to determine the statistical significance of daily growth rates between the test groups and control. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test which is used for a dataset with an ordinal dependent variable and an unpaired independent variable (Neely et al., 2003). A non-parametric test was chosen as not all of the data could be confirmed to have a normal distribution. This test considers differences between two populations (Quinn & Keough, 2002). The H₀ being tested is that the two samples come from populations with identical distributions against the H_A that the samples come from populations which differ only in location (mean or median) (Quinn & Keough, 2002). The alpha was set at 0.05, meaning any p-value less than this would result in rejection of the null hypothesis and the data would be considered significantly different.

2.5.2 Two-factor ANOVA on Semibalanus balanoides data

Data for *Semibalanus balanoides* was analyzed in Microsoft Excel. A single-factor ANOVA (analysis of variance) was first performed to analyze differences between aquaria in the same diet group as all measurements were random. ANOVA is used for partitioning the variation in a response variable into that explained and that unexplained by one or more factors (Quinn & Keough, 2002). The aims of ANOVA are to examine the relative contribution of different sources of variation to the total amount of variability in the response variable and to test the null hypothesis that population group or treatment means are equal (Quinn & Keough, 2002). As the mean of each aquarium was considered to be significantly different from each other within each diet group, a two-factor ANOVA was used to compare between both diet groups and identify which factor was contributing most to the amount of variability. Diet and aquarium were the two factors used in the analysis. The alpha was set at 0.05, with any p-value below this indicating that the data are significantly different. This would result in a rejection of the null hypothesis.

3 Results

3.1 Statistical analysis of shell growth

3.1.1 Mann-Whitney U test on Mytilus edulis

Mytilus edulis large group

Values for total amount grown for each organism over the experimental period were used in the statistical test. The average amount grown for each diet group was used for comparison and a Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine the significance between these two diet groups. There is a significant difference (p = 0.011) between the growth of large *Mytilus edulis* individuals fed a diet of *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus and the growth of *M. edulis* individuals fed a diet of phytoplankton (Table 2).

Table 2: Mann-Whitney U test for the comparison of averages in shell length growth between the two diet groups for the large Mytilus edulis organisms.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:		
U	35	
U (standardized)	0.000	
Expected value	84.000	
Variance (U)	378.000	
p-value (Two-tailed)	0.011	
alpha	0.05	

The average difference in growth for each diet group was used for visual comparison of the data. When looking at these two values (Figure 14), it can be seen that the large mussels receiving the phytoplankton diet grew more in terms of shell length compared to the mussels receiving the *L. hyperborea* detritus diet. The phytoplankton large mussel group (n=13) had an average growth of 9.58mm (SD = \pm 0.81mm) while the *L. hyperborea* detritus large mussel group (n=15) had an average growth of 8.87mm (SD = \pm 0.39mm) over the study period of 76 days. This was determined by subtracting the first measurement from the final measurement to get the difference in growth for each individual. The differences from each organism were averaged to get one value for the group and then the standard deviation was calculated for the

average. The large mussels which were fed phytoplankton grew on average $0.71 \text{mm} \pm 0.25 \text{mm}$ more than the large mussels fed kelp detritus.

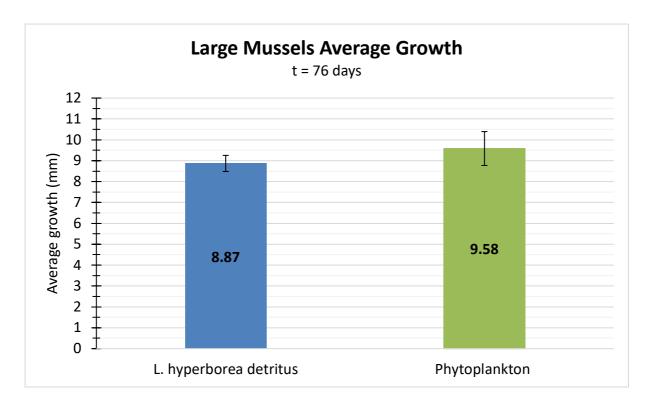


Figure 14: Comparison of average difference in growth for the large Mytilus edulis diet groups. The Mytilus edulis organisms in the group which were fed with detritus from Laminaria hyperborea grew 8.87mm ($SD = \pm 0.39$ mm) on average, compared to the average growth of 9.58mm ($SD = \pm 0.81$ mm) for the phytoplankton Mytilus edulis group.

Mytilus edulis large group control

The large *Mytilus edulis* control was tested against the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus group and the phytoplankton group. The data used in the tests was the average shell growth per day for each group during the experiment period. Large M. *edulis* which received detritus from L. *hyperborea* grew significantly more (p < 0.0001) per day than the control group (Table 3).

Table 3: The Laminaria hyperborea detritus group tested against the control group for the large Mytilus edulis organisms. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine the significance of difference between average growth rate per day between the two groups.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:				
U	196			
U (standardized)	4.481			
Expected value 98.000				
Variance (U)	473.537			
p-value (Two-tailed)	< 0.0001			
alpha	0.05			

When comparing between the large Mytilus edulis organisms on the phytoplankton diet and the large control group, the phytoplankton-fed group had a significantly higher (p = 0.001) growth rate (Table 4).

Table 4: The phytoplankton diet group tested against the control group for the large Mytilus edulis group. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine the significance of difference between average growth rate per day between the two groups.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:			
U	168		
U (standardized)	0.000		
Expected value	98.000		
Variance (U)	473.407		
p-value (Two-tailed)	0.001		
alpha	0.05		

The control for the large mussels (n=15) had an average daily growth rate of 0.08mm/day. The control fed on phytoplankton species naturally found in the seawater from Oslofjord. When comparing the test groups with the control group, the phytoplankton diet group grew the most per day with the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus group having the second highest growth rate per day and the control group grew the least per day (Figure 15).

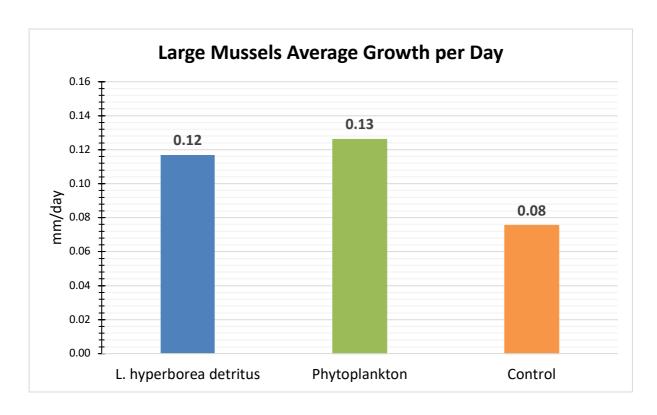


Figure 15: Comparison of daily growth rate between the two test groups and control group for the large Mytilus edulis organisms. The highest growth rate was the phytoplankton group with an average of 0.13mm/day, then the Laminaria hyperborea detritus group with 0.12mm/day and the lowest daily growth rate, the control with 0.08mm/day.

Mytilus edulis small group

As with the *Mytilus edulis* large group, a Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze the significance of difference in growth between the two diet groups. The values for amount of growth for each organism from the phytoplankton group were compared to all the values for amount of growth for each organism from the detritus group. There is not a significant difference (p = 0.434; $\alpha = 0.05$) between the growth of small *M. edulis* individuals fed a diet of *Laminaria hyperborea* and the growth of *M. edulis* individuals fed a diet of phytoplankton (Table 5).

Table 5: Mann-Whitney U test for the comparison of averages in shell length growth for the two diet groups for the small Mytilus edulis organisms. There is less than a 5% chance that there is a significant difference in growth between the two diet groups.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:				
U	80.500			
U (standardized)	0.000			
Expected value	98.000			
Variance (U)	473.537			
p-value (Two-tailed)	0.434			
alpha	0.05			

In addition, the average difference in growth for each diet group was calculated for visual comparison of the data. The small mussels which received phytoplankton (n=15) grew on average 9.54mm (SD = \pm 0.82mm) compared to the average growth of 9.29mm (SD = \pm 0.67mm) for the mussel group that fed on *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus (n=15) (Figure 16). These numbers were calculated the same as described earlier for the large mussels. The difference between the averages for the small mussel groups is 0.25mm (SD = \pm 0.27mm).

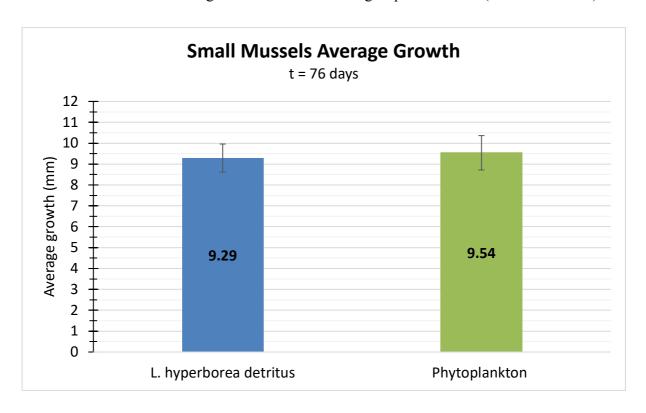


Figure 16: Comparison of average small Mytilus edulis growth between the two diet groups. The Mytilus edulis organisms which were fed detritus from Laminaria hyperborea grew 9.29mm (SD = \pm 0.67mm) and the Mytilus edulis group which received the phytoplankton diet grew 9.54mm (SD = \pm 0.82mm).

Mytilus edulis small group control

The control for the small Mytilus edulis group was tested against the diet groups which were fed with Laminaria hyperborea detritus or the blend of phytoplankton. The small M. edulis organisms which received detritus from L. hyperborea had a significantly higher (p < 0.0001) growth rate per day than the control group (Table 6).

Table 6: The Laminaria hyperborea detritus group tested against the control group for the small Mytilus edulis organisms. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine the significance of difference of the growth rate per day between the two groups.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:				
U	196			
U (standardized)	4.482			
Expected value	98.000			
Variance (U)	473.148			
p-value (Two-tailed)	< 0.0001			
alpha	0.05			

The small *M. edulis* organisms fed the phytoplankton blend had a significantly higher (p < 0.0001) daily growth rate than the control group (Table 7).

Table 7: The phytoplankton diet group tested against the control group for the small Mytilus edulis organisms. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine the significance of difference between the two groups average growth rate per day.

Mann-Whitney test / Two-tailed test:				
U	196			
U (standardized)	4.482			
Expected value	98.000			
Variance (U)	473.148			
p-value (Two-tailed)	< 0.0001			
alpha	0.05			

The control group for the small mussels (n=11) had an average daily growth rate of 0.07mm/day. This was a significantly lower growth rate than both the test groups. The phytoplankton diet group had the highest growth per day with 0.13mm/day and the *L. hyperborea* detritus group grew on average 0.12mm/day (Figure 17). The large and small groups of *Mytilus edulis* on the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus diet had a daily growth rate of 0.12mm/day.

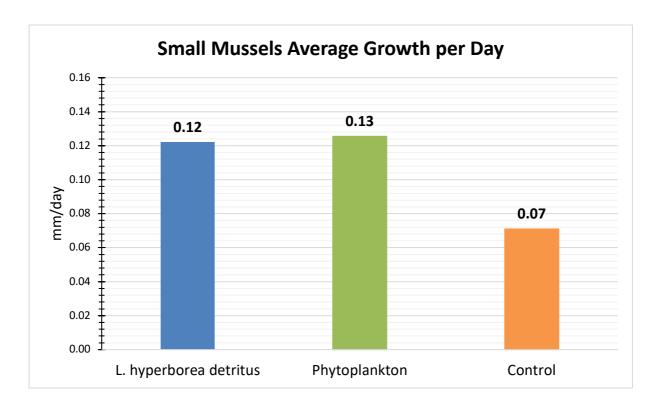


Figure 17: Comparison of daily growth rate between the two test groups and control group for the small Mytilus edulis organisms. The phytoplankton group grew on average 0.13mm/day. The small mussels which were fed Laminaria hyperborea detritus had a daily growth rate of 0.12mm/day and as with the large mussels the control had the lowest growth rate of 0.07mm/day.

3.1.2 ANOVA test on Semibalanus balanoides

Test groups

A two-factor ANOVA test was used to determine the significance of the *Semibalanus* balanoides test groups growth. The shell diameter measurements were compared based on diet type and aquarium. When looking only at the diet factor, there was no significant difference (p = 0.756) between the *Laminaria hyperborea* group and the phytoplankton group (Table 8). However, the aquarium factor resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis (p < 0.0001) as there was found to a be significant difference between the size of organisms between aquaria. The null hypothesis was rejected (p = 0.012) for the interaction between diet type and aquarium. There was a significant difference in the size of the organisms when considering the combination of diet and aquarium number.

Table 8: A two-way ANOVA test with replication was done on the final shell diameter measurements for both Semibalanus balanoides diet groups, phytoplankton and Laminaria hyperborea detritus.

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Diet	0.016487696	1	0.016487696	0.096244294	0.756950485	3.924330485
Aquaria	7.923577225	2	3.961788613	23.12630835	3.71265E-09	3.075852636
Interaction	1.559070848	2	0.779535424	4.550413548	0.012551661	3.075852636
Within	19.52944219	114	0.171310896			
Total	29.02857796	119				

Control group

Each diet group was analyzed against the control in order to compare the size of *Semibalanus balanoides* between the two groups. A two-factor ANOVA was done on the shell diameter data for the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus group and the control (Table 9). There was a significant difference (p < 0.0001) in the means between the two groups when considering the factor of diet. The aquaria factor had a p-value of 0.002, therefore the alternative hypothesis of significant difference in means between aquaria is accepted. The interaction between diet type and aquarium was significantly different (p = 0.001) and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 9: The results of the two-factor ANOVA performed on the data from the Laminaria hyperborea group and the control group for Semibalanus balanoides.

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Diet	8.407449053	1	8.407449053	22.09522686	7.31611E-06	3.924330485
Aquaria	4.815206356	2	2.407603178	6.327310232	0.002478434	3.075852636
Interaction	5.025942091	2	2.512971046	6.604222637	0.001932714	3.075852636
Within	43.37811048	114	0.380509741			
Total	61.62670798	119				

The two-factor ANOVA shows the results of comparing the data from the phytoplankton group and the control group for *Semibalanus balanoides* (Table 10). The null hypothesis was rejected (p < 0.0001) when only looking at the influence of diet. There was a significant difference in means between the diet groups. There was no significant difference (p = 0.065) in means of *S. balanoides* organisms between aquaria. The interaction between aquarium

number and diet was significant (p < 0.0001) and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected for this combination of factors.

Table 10: The results of the two-factor ANOVA performed on the data from the phytoplankton group and the control group for Semibalanus balanoides.

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Diet	7.679304043	1	7.679304043	18.97559105	2.90892E-05	3.924330485
Aquaria	2.265719776	2	1.132859888	2.799301322	0.065041195	3.075852636
Interaction	11.82384546	2	5.911922729	14.60838475	2.24867E-06	3.075852636
Within	46.13509315	114	0.4046938			
Total	67.90396243	119				

When looking at the two diet groups average size, there was no difference whether the *Semibalanus balanoides* organisms received detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* or the phytoplankton mixture. A difference can be seen when comparing between the aquaria of each diet group (Figure 18). The control organisms were significantly bigger than the organisms fed the *L. hyperborea* diet. The same pattern can be seen when looking at the phytoplankton data. The control organisms were significantly larger than the *S. balanoides* group given the phytoplankton mixture.

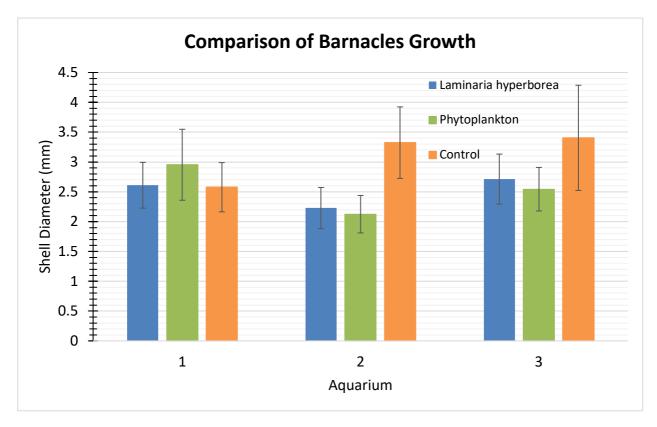


Figure 18: Comparison of average size of the Semibalanus balanoides organisms from both test groups and the control. The group given Laminaria hyperborea detritus had an average final size of 2.52mm ($SD = \pm 0.43$ mm). The phytoplankton group had an average final size of 2.54mm ($SD = \pm 0.55$ mm). In comparison, the Semibalanus balanoides organisms belonging to the control group had a final average size of 3.05mm ($SD = \pm 0.85$ mm).

3.1.3 Summary of statistical results

The null hypothesis of no difference between the means of groups was rejected for the large *Mytilus edulis* group (Table 11). There was no significant difference between the means of the small *M. edulis* groups and the null hypothesis was accepted. There was not a significant difference in the size of *Semibalanus balanoides* between diet groups and therefore the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 11: Summary of the statistical results for each organism in the experiment. The null hypothesis is rejected for the large Mytilus edulis organisms. The null hypothesis is accepted for both the small Mytilus edulis organisms and the Semibalanus balanoides organisms.

Null hypothesis					
Organism group	Acceptance	Rejection			
Large Mytilus edulis		√			
Small Mytilus edulis	✓				
Semibalanus balanoides* ✓					
*when considering the diet for	actor alone.				

3.2 Lipid analysis of tissues

3.2.1 Mytilus edulis large test groups and control

A lipid analysis was performed on the two different diet groups and the control group for the large *Mytilus edulis* organisms. The *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus group had the highest fat content of the three, 0.6g/100g (Figure 19). The control had a fat content of 0.5g/100g and the phytoplankton diet group had the lowest amount of lipids with 0.2g/100g.

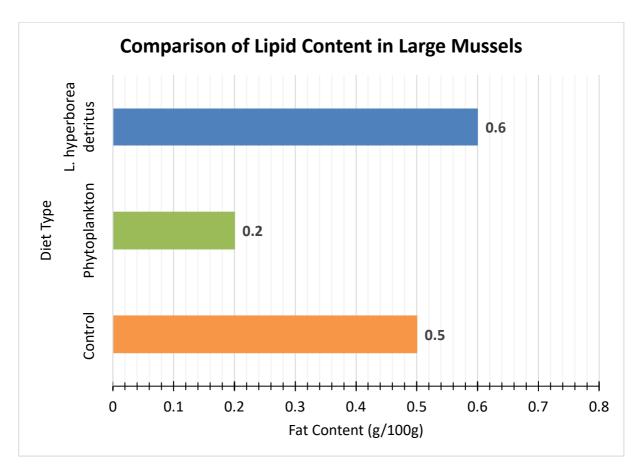


Figure 19: Comparison of fat content between the three groups of large Mytilus edulis organisms. The highest lipid content of 0.6g/100g belonged to the large Mytilus edulis group fed with Laminaria hyperborea detritus. The control had a fat content of 0.5g/100g and the phytoplankton diet group had the lowest fat content of 0.2g/100g.

3.2.2 Mytilus edulis small test groups and control

A lipid analysis was also performed on the small *Mytilus edulis* organisms from both diet groups and the control group. The control group had the highest amount of lipids with a value of 0.6g/100g (Figure 20). The *L. hyperborea* detritus group had a result of 0.3g/100g, while the phytoplankton diet group had the lowest amount of fat at 0.2g/100g.

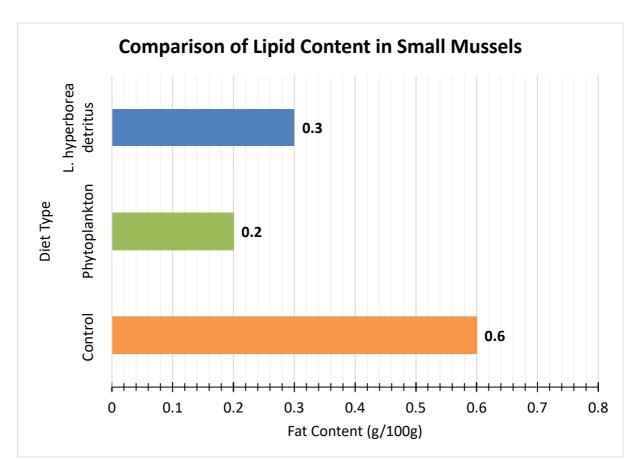


Figure 20: Comparison of fat content between the three groups of small Mytilus edulis organisms. The control group had the highest fat content of 0.6g/100g. The test group which received Laminaria hyperborea detritus had a fat content of 0.3g/100g, followed by the phytoplankton group with the lowest lipid amount of 0.2g/100g.

3.2.3 Semibalanus balanoides

The *Semibalanus balanoides* organisms did not have enough tissue in order to perform a lipid analysis. A minimum of 30g per sample was required to do a lipid analysis with the NMR method. Most of the organisms had died by the time the last measurements were taken.

3.3 Response to study aims

Mytilus edulis

There was a significant difference between the two diet groups growth for the large *Mytilus edulis* organisms. This means the null hypothesis can be rejected for the large size group. The large *M. edulis* organisms on the phytoplankton diet grew more than the organisms on the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus diet.

There was not a significant difference between the two diet groups growth for the small *Mytilus edulis* organisms. The null hypothesis is accepted for the small size group.

Semibalanus balanoides

There was no significant difference between the two diet groups average size for the *Semibalanus balanoides* organisms when considering only the factor of diet. The null hypothesis is accepted for the *S. balanoides* organisms. The interaction between the aquaria and diet factors was significant.

4 Discussion

4.1 Different growth results based on size group of *Mytilus edulis*

As stated in the Results section, there was a significant difference in growth between the *Laminaria hyperborea* diet group and the phytoplankton diet group for the **large** *Mytilus edulis* organisms. The large mussel group which received *L. hyperborea* detritus grew less on average than the large mussel group which received phytoplankton. The result of the Mann-Whitney U test computed this difference to be significant. Both of the large *M. edulis* test groups were also compared against the average growth of the control. The control grew significantly less on average than both the *L. hyperborea* detritus group and the phytoplankton group. When comparing the daily average growth rate for all three, the phytoplankton diet group had the highest growth rate, followed by the *L. hyperborea* detritus group and the lowest growth rate per day belonged to the control group for the large *M. edulis* organisms. In a growth experiment by Stromgren and Cary (1984), it was found that *M. edulis* individuals grew better on a multispecies diet compared to individuals fed on single species diets and that this could be due to a shortage of vital nutrients. With regards to this thesis, this does not explain why the control had the lowest growth rate compared to the two diet groups when these organisms probably had the most varied diet.

There was not a significant difference in growth between the *Laminaria hyperborea* diet group and the phytoplankton diet group for the **small** *Mytilus edulis* organisms. This means that small *M. edulis* organisms fed with *L. hyperborea* detritus grew just as well as the group fed with the phytoplankton mixture. The average growth for the two test groups was significantly higher than the control group belonging to the small *M. edulis* organisms. As with the large *M. edulis* group, the small *M. edulis* on the phytoplankton diet had the highest growth rate when compared to the detritus group and control. Similarly, the *L. hyperborea* detritus group had the next highest daily growth rate with the control growing the least per day on average.

When considering the reasons why the large *Mytilus edulis* group did not grow as well as the small *M. edulis* group, it is useful to look at the results of other growth experiments on this species. Small *M. edulis* organisms grew significantly more in mm than large *M. edulis*

organisms in an study done on the effects of increased concentrations of CO₂ in seawater on the shell growth of blue mussels (Berge et al., 2006). The authors were unsure if this difference in growth was due to a systematic interaction effect of size and pH or a random effect of sampling variance. The small group of mussels had a mean shell length of 11 mm and the large group had an average shell length of 21 mm, which is similar to the size groups for the mussels used in this experiment.

In a study done on *Mytilus edulis* organisms growth in the Gulf of Maine, the shell lengths of mussels at one particular location were significantly larger than the shell lengths at other tested locations (Lesser et al., 2010). The authors speculated that the location with greater shell growth had the benefits of increased availability of food, longer emersion times and also an increased seasonal sea surface temperature ($\approx 20^\circ$) which would increase metabolic rates. The *M. edulis* organisms in this thesis experiment were constantly emerged and received a steady food supply, however temperature was maintained at 10°C in the artificial seawater system. In Oslofjord, peak summer sea surface temperatures can be up to 20°C (Baalsrud & Magnusson, 2002), however this is not average for the year. A consideration for future work could be to test *M. edulis* growth on a diet of detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* and use different temperatures to see if that factor had a significant effect on the results.

The results from the lipid analysis of the *Mytilus edulis* samples show that the large group fed detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* had the highest lipid content. This is unusual because kelps are generally quite low in lipid content (Maehre et al., 2014). *L. hyperborea* had a lipid content of 1.14 g/100g DW when analyzed with ether extraction and 1.42 g/100g DW with dichloromethane/methanol extraction (Maehre et al., 2014). The control group had the second highest amount of fat in their tissue. The large *M. edulis* organisms on the phytoplankton diet had the lowest amount of fat. A contrasting pattern is seen in the results of the lipid analysis on the small *M. edulis* organisms. The highest amount of fats in their tissue belonged to the control group, followed by the *L. hyperborea* detritus group and again the lowest amount of lipids found in the tissue of the phytoplankton diet group.

Detritus from *L. hyperborea* had a higher amount of carbon and nitrogen than the phytoplankton mixture. It would be valuable to perform an isotope analysis on both the test and control organism's tissues to determine the major source of carbon and nitrogen for each group in this experiment. Bustamante and Branch (1996) conducted a study to determine the

trophic relationship between sessile filter-feeders and kelp detritus using stable isotope analyses in South Africa. One of the filter-feeders used was of the genus Mytilus and the kelp-derived particles from the Laminaria genus. It was found that the filter-feeders used particulate kelp detritus as their major source of organic carbon and nitrogen. They also discovered that kelp particles dominated the composition of suspended POC in the intertidal zone. In another example of stable isotope analysis, kelp-derived detritus was found not to significantly contribute to the carbon content of M. edulis. Duggins et al. (1989) evaluated δ^{13} C from samples of kelp species belonging to Laminaria and Alaria and compared these to isotopic values of dominant phytoplankton in the Aleutian Islands. When looking at consumers δ^{13} C values in kelp-dominated islands, all species had significantly more kelp-derived carbon in their tissues except M. edulis. Lesser et al. (2010) also used stable isotope analyses and determined that phytoplankton dominated the diets of all M. edulis organisms tested, although there was evidence that diets were a mix of phytoplankton and detritus originating in the intertidal. While detritus from kelp can certainly supplement M. edulis nutritional needs, it is certainly not the primary food source for this species.

In this experiment, the detritus from *Laminaria hyperborea* had a mean C:N ratio of 15.29 ± 0.38 and most animals require food sources to have a C:N ratio below 17 to meet their nitrogen requirements (Russell-Hunter, 1970). Norderhaug et al. (2006) used fresh and degraded *L. hyperborea* in a feeding experiment with amphipods. The fresh kelp harvested in March had a C:N ratio of 12 with the most degraded kelp having a value of less than 2. Norderhaug et al. (2006) found in this experiment that the amphipods did not grow on kelp collected in August when the C:N ratio of the kelp tissue was > 30. The authors concluded that kelp can be used as a food source if the C:N ratio is not too high, resulting in nitrogen storage, or too low, causing carbon storage, as the growth of the amphipods was best on the fresh kelp from March with a low C:N ratio and low-degraded kelp diets. A potential further study with this thesis could be to harvest *L. hyperborea* at different seasons as they store nitrogen from January to April (Sjøtun et al., 1996) and therefore have a different C:N composition year round. The effects of feeding filter-feeders detritus from *L. hyperborea* of varying carbon-nitrogen content could then be tested.

This experiment demonstrates that *M. edulis* can survive on kelp detritus from *L. hyperborea*. In the case of the small *M. edulis* individuals, they can even grow as well as on a phytoplankton diet. Considering that the mussel shell is approximately 20% of the total

organic content of the whole mussel, increase in shell length can be a useful indicator of mussel growth (Stromgren & Cary, 1984).

4.2 Semibalanus balanoides test groups smaller than control

The results from the two-way ANOVA showed that the interaction between aquaria and diet type was significant, however when looking at each factor individually there is no significant difference in average size of *Semibalanus balanoides* based on diet. There was a significant difference in organism size between aquaria. When comparing the *Laminaria hyperborea* detritus group and the control, the interaction was determined to be significantly different between diet and aquaria. The factor of diet alone resulted in a significant difference between the *L. hyperborea* and control group's average organism size. The average size between aquaria was also significantly different. The control had a higher mean size of *S. balanoides* when compared to the *L. hyperborea* detritus group. The interaction between diet and aquaria was significant when comparing phytoplankton and control groups. The control group for *Semibalanus balanoides* had a greater average size than the group on the phytoplankton diet.

While there have been numerous experiments involving Semibalanus balanoides, more research is needed focusing on the relationship between this filter-feeder and kelp derived detritus. There are various studies done on the growth and settlement of this species when looking at other parameters. When examining the relationship between *Semibalanus* balanoides and fucoid canopy algae, it was found that S. balanoides organisms can be deterred from settling in heavily canopied algal forests (Jenkins et al., 1999). Some macroalgae species can act as a barrier to S. balanoides settlement and increase postsettlement mortality in the intertidal. The characteristics of barnacle feeding are of particular interest to researchers. For example, S. balanoides increases feeding activity with high flow speeds and food concentrations meaning that they feed when food availability is high (Sanford et al., 1994). Also, larger body size and higher temperatures resulted in a decrease in barnacle feeding. In this thesis experiment, the temperature of the artificial seawater was 10°C and while the flow was not measured, water pumps in the aquaria ensured that there was proper circulation. As an extension to this study, flow speeds and food concentrations could be monitored to see the effects on S. balanoides growth while comparing growth on a kelp detritus and phytoplankton diet. Bertness et al. (1991) also found that S. balanoides growth is

a direct function of water column food concentrations and the flow rate of food to organisms. The authors also determined that barnacles in exposed areas grew faster than those at sheltered areas.

Sanford et al. (1994) measured *Semibalanus balanoides* monthly in a field location with high flow and found that they grew from 2.5mm to more than 10mm in diameter over a 6-month period. In contrast, *S. balanoides* in the lab grew from $2.25\text{mm} \pm 0.42\text{mm}$ to $2.52\text{mm} \pm 0.43\text{mm}$ on the *L. hyperborea* detritus diet and $2.18\text{mm} \pm 0.42\text{ mm}$ to $2.54\text{mm} \pm 0.55\text{mm}$ on the phytoplankton diet over a 4-month period. Though the control did grow significantly better than both diet groups, the average final size was equally unimpressive at $3.05\text{mm} \pm 0.85\text{mm}$. Monitoring the flow rate and concentration of food might give a better explanation of why *S. balanoides* grew so poorly.

4.3 Conclusion

The *Mytilus edulis* organisms used in this experiment grew differently based on size group. While the large group fed the phytoplankton mixture experienced significantly higher growth than the Laminaria hyperborea detritus group, the smaller organisms grew equally well on the L. hyperborea diet. It is unknown why the smaller M. edulis organisms grew better in shell length than the large individuals. One would think that the smaller individuals would have to devote more energy to developmental processes than to secondary production. It can be that the larger organisms had a higher metabolic requirement and were not given an adequate amount of food to invest supplemental energy in shell growth. The results from the lipid analysis showed that M. edulis on the L. hyperborea detritus diet had a higher fat content in their tissues than the organisms on the phytoplankton diet. As mentioned earlier, L. hyperborea is relatively low in lipids so this was unexpected. When looking at the two size groups on the *L. hyperborea* diet, the larger *M. edulis* organisms had a higher fat content than the small M. edulis group. It could be that the small M. edulis organisms used most of their energy towards growth and therefore have a smaller storage capacity. A fatty acid profile should be used in future studies to confirm diet sources consumed by test organisms. Detritus from L. hyperborea had a higher carbon and nitrogen content than the phytoplankton mixture, which meant the organisms on the detritus diet were getting more nutrition at every feeding in comparison to the phytoplankton group. This could influence the results.

The *Semibalanus balanoides* test groups did not grow differently from each other when considering only the factor of diet. Nonetheless, the control had a significantly larger average size than both diet groups. Reasoning for the modest growth of the *S. balanoides* organisms could be that food concentration was too low, circulation in the aquaria weak or both factors (Bertness et al., 1991; Sanford et al., 1994). It could also be that detritus derived from *Laminaria hyperborea* does not provide this species with the nutrients required to thrive.

The results from this thesis show that there may be a stronger connection between *Mytilus edulis* and detritus derived from *Laminaria hyperborea* than with *Semibalanus balanoides* and this kelp species. More research needs to be done to fully understand this relationship. As kelp forests come under threat due to warming sea surface temperatures (Filbee-Dexter & Wernberg, 2018), dependent species may suffer if these forests continue to decrease worldwide. As these trophic relationships can be quite complex, more factors should be taken into consideration with future experiments.

4.4 Improvements and future work

As discussed throughout the thesis, there are a few areas of improvement to this experiment. The first problem encountered was the mistaken dismantling of the *Mytilus edulis* control. While a second control was set up with similarly sized organisms, this was done in May and the experiment began in February. This means that the control organisms were not monitored during the spring bloom and may have had different growth results. There were also problems with the artificial seawater system at the university. Despite replacement of the water in the system, there were growth of various organisms in the water, such as nematodes. Lastly the PSU took some time to adjust to a stable level as stated earlier.

Some further considerations for future work on a diet-growth experiment involving kelp detritus include a stable isotope analysis on the filter-feeder species to confirm the source of those species carbon and nitrogen. Temperature could be incorporated to see how much of an effect, warmer or colder temperatures could have on the filter-feeders growth while on different diets. Flow rate and concentration of particles are two factors which may play an important role on feeding behaviors and could be investigated.

References

- Abdullah, M. I., Fredriksen, S., & Christie, H. (2017). The impact of the kelp (*Laminaria hyperborea*) forest on the organic matter content in sediment of the west coast of Norway. *Marine Biology Research*, 13(2), 151-160. doi:10.1080/17451000.2016.1240369
- Araújo, R., Bárbara, I., Tibaldo, M., Berecibar, E., Tapia, P. D., Pereira, R., . . . Pinto, I. S. (2009). Checklist of benthic marine algae and cyanobacteria of northern Portugal. *Botanica Marina*, *52*(1). doi:10.1515/bot.2009.026
- Baalsrud, K., & Magnusson, J. (2002). *Indre Oslofjord : natur og miljø*. Oslo: Fagrådet for vann- og avløpsteknisk samarbeid i indre Oslofjord.
- Bayne, B. L. (1976). Marine mussels: their ecology and physiology (Vol. 10).
- Berge, J. A., Bjerkeng, B., Pettersen, O., Schaanning, M. T., & Oxnevad, S. (2006). Effects of increased sea water concentrations of CO2 on growth of the bivalve *Mytilus edulis* L. *Chemosphere*, 62(4), 681-687. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2005.04.111
- Bertness, M. D., Gaines, S. D., Bermudez, D., & Sanford, E. (1991). Extreme Spatial Variation in the Growth and Reproductive Output of the Acorn Barnacle *Semibalanus balanoides*. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 75(1), 91-100. doi:DOI 10.3354/meps075091
- Bourget, E., Martel, N., Lapointe, L., & Bussieres, D. (1990). Behavioural, morphological and genetic changes in some North Atlantic populations of the barnacle *Semibalanus balanoides*. *NATO ASI Series Geries G Ecological Sciences*, 22, 87-106.
- Brooks, S. J., & Farmen, E. (2013). The Distribution of the Mussel *Mytilus* Species Along the Norwegian Coast. *Journal of Shellfish Research*, 32(2), 265-270. doi:10.2983/035.032.0203
- Burrows, M. T., Jenkins, S. R., Robb, L., & Harvey, R. (2010). Spatial variation in size and density of adult and post-settlement *Semibalanus balanoides*: effects of oceanographic and local conditions. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, *398*, 207-219. doi:10.3354/meps08340
- Bustamante, R. H., & Branch, G. M. (1996). The dependence of intertidal consumers on kelp-derived organic matter on the west coast of South Africa. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, 196*(1-2), 1-28. doi:Doi 10.1016/0022-0981(95)00093-3
- Cebrian, J., & Valiela, I. (1999). Seasonal patterns in phytoplankton biomass in coastal ecosystems. *Journal of Plankton Research*, *21*(3), 429-444. doi:DOI 10.1093/plankt/21.3.429
- Cefali, M. E., Cebrian, E., Chappuis, E., Pinedo, S., Terradas, M., Mariani, S., & Ballesteros, E. (2016). Life on the boundary: Environmental factors as drivers of habitat distribution in the littoral zone. *Estuarine Coastal and Shelf Science*, *172*, 81-92. doi:10.1016/j.ecss.2016.01.043
- Chappuis, E., Terradas, M., Cefali, M. E., Mariani, S., & Ballesteros, E. (2014). Vertical zonation is the main distribution pattern of littoral assemblages on rocky shores at a regional scale. *Estuarine Coastal and Shelf Science*, *147*, 113-122. doi:10.1016/j.ecss.2014.05.031
- Coe, W. R., & Fox, D. L. (1944). Biology of the California sea-mussel (*Mytilus californianus*) III Environmental conditions and rate of growth. *Biological Bulletin*, 87(1), 59-72. doi:Doi 10.2307/1538129

- Crisp, D. J. (1959). Factors Influencing the Time of Breeding of *Balanus balanoides*. *Oikos*, 10(2), 275-289. doi:10.2307/3565151
- Crisp, D. J. (1964). Racial Differences between North American + European Forms of Balanus balanoides. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, 44(1), 33-&. doi:Doi 10.1017/S0025315400024644
- Davenport, J., Berggren, M. S., Brattegard, T., Brattenborg, N., Burrows, M., Jenkins, S., . . . Wilson, S. (2005). Doses of darkness control latitudinal differences in breeding date in the barnacle *Semibalanus balanoides*. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the UK*, 85(1), 59-63. doi:10.1017/S0025315405010829h
- Demers, S., Therriault, J. C., Bourget, E., & Desilets, H. (1989). Small-Scale Gradients of Phytoplankton Productivity in the Littoral Fringe. *Marine Biology*, *100*(3), 393-399. doi:Doi 10.1007/Bf00391155
- Duggins, D. O. (1989). Kelp Production Study. *Science*, 246(4935), 1237-1237. doi:DOI 10.1126/science.246.4935.1237
- Duggins, D. O., Simenstad, C. A., & Estes, J. A. (1989). Magnification of Secondary Production by Kelp Detritus in Coastal Marine Ecosystems. *Science*, *245*(4914), 170-173. doi:DOI 10.1126/science.245.4914.170
- Eilertsen, M., Norderhaug, K. M., & Sjøtun, K. (2011). Does the amphipod fauna associated with epiphytes on kelp (*Laminaria hyperborea*) change with depth? *Marine Biology Research*, 7(3), 224-234. doi:10.1080/17451000.2010.492592
- Eppley, R. W., Holmes, R. W., & Strickland, J. D. H. (1967). Sinking Rates of Marine Phytoplankton Measured with a Fluorometer. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, 1*, 191-208.
- Filbee-Dexter, K., & Wernberg, T. (2018). Rise of Turfs: A New Battlefront for Globally Declining Kelp Forests. *Bioscience*, 68(2), 64-76. doi:10.1093/biosci/bix147
- Fosså, J. H., & Havforskningsinstituttet. (1995). Forvaltning av stortare: prioriterte forskningsoppgaver = Management of kelp: prioritized research activities. Bergen: Havforskningsinstituttet.
- Geider, R., & La Roche, J. (2002). Redfield revisited: variability of C:N:P in marine microalgae and its biochemical basis. *European Journal of Phycology, 37*(1), 1-17. doi:10.1017/s0967026201003456
- Hegseth, E. N., Svendsen, H., & von Quillfeldt, C. H. (1995). Phytoplankton in fjords and coastal waters of northern Norway: Environmental conditions and dynamics of the spring bloom. *Ecology of Fjords and Coastal Waters*, 45-72.
- Jenkins, S. R., Norton, T. A., & Hawkins, S. J. (1999). Settlement and post-settlement interactions between *Semibalanus balanoides* (L.) (Crustacea: Cirripedia) and three species of fucoid canopy algae. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 236(1), 49-67. doi:Doi 10.1016/S0022-0981(98)00189-0
- Kain, J. M. (1962). Aspects of the Biology of *Laminaria hyperborea* I. Vertical distribution. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, 42*(02). doi:10.1017/s0025315400001363
- Kain, J. M. (1963). Aspects of the Biology of *Laminaria Hyperborea*: II. Age, Weight and Length. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, 43*(01). doi:10.1017/s0025315400005312
- Kain, J. M. (1967). Populations of *Laminaria hyperborea* at various latitudes *Helgoland Marine Research*, 15, 489-499.
- Kain, J. M. (1971). Synopsis of biological data on *Laminaria hyperborea FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations) Fisheries Synopsis*, 87, 1.

- Kristiansen, S. (1987). Nitrate Reductase-Activity in Phytoplankton from the Oslofjord, Norway. *Journal of Plankton Research*, *9*(4), 739-748. doi:DOI 10.1093/plankt/9.4.739
- Kristiansen, S., Farbrot, T., & Naustvoll, L. J. (2001). Spring bloom nutrient dynamics in the Oslofjord. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, *219*, 41-49. doi:DOI 10.3354/meps219041
- Krumhansl, K. A., & Scheibling, R. E. (2012). Production and fate of kelp detritus. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 467, 281-302. doi:10.3354/meps09940
- Labarbera, M. (1984). Feeding Currents and Particle Capture Mechanisms in Suspension Feeding Animals. *American Zoologist*, 24(1), 71-84.
- Leonardos, N., & Lucas, I. A. N. (2000). The nutritional value of algae grown under different culture conditions for *Mytilus edulis* L-larvae. *Aquaculture*, *182*(3-4), 301-315. doi:Doi 10.1016/S0044-8486(99)00269-0
- Lesser, M. P., Bailey, M. A., Merselis, D. G., & Morrison, J. R. (2010). Physiological response of the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis* to differences in food and temperature in the Gulf of Maine. *Comp Biochem Physiol A Mol Integr Physiol*, *156*(4), 541-551. doi:10.1016/j.cbpa.2010.04.012
- Maehre, H. K., Malde, M. K., Eilertsen, K. E., & Elvevoll, E. O. (2014). Characterization of protein, lipid and mineral contents in common Norwegian seaweeds and evaluation of their potential as food and feed. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 94(15), 3281-3290. doi:10.1002/jsfa.6681
- Malone, T. C., Conley, D. J., Fisher, T. R., Glibert, P. M., Harding, L. W., & Sellner, K. G. (1996). Scales of nutrient-limited phytoplankton productivity in Chesapeake Bay. *Estuaries*, *19*(2b), 371-385. doi:Doi 10.2307/1352457
- Marfenin, N. N., Bolshakov, F., & Mardashova, M. (2013). Fluctuations in settlement and survival of a barnacle *Semibalanus balanoides* in the White Sea intertidal. *Hydrobiologia*, 706(1), 51-68. doi:10.1007/s10750-012-1377-5
- Neely, J. G., Hartman, J. M., Forsen, J. W., & Wallace, M. S. (2003). Tutorials in clinical research: VII. Understanding comparative statistics (Contrast) Part B: Application of T-test, Mann-Whitney U, and chi-square. *Laryngoscope*, *113*(10), 1719-1725. doi:Doi 10.1097/00005537-200310000-00011
- Norderhaug, K. M., & Christie, H. (2011). Secondary production in a *Laminaria hyperborea* kelp forest and variation according to wave exposure. *Estuarine Coastal and Shelf Science*, 95(1), 135-144. doi:10.1016/j.ecss.2011.08.028
- Norderhaug, K. M., & Christie, H. C. (2009). Sea urchin grazing and kelp re-vegetation in the NE Atlantic. *Marine Biology Research*, *5*(6), 515-528. doi:10.1080/17451000902932985
- Norderhaug, K. M., Nygaard, K., & Fredriksen, S. (2006). Importance of phlorotannin content and C: N ratio of *Laminaria hyperborea* in determining its palatability as food for consumers. *Marine Biology Research*, *2*(6), 367-371. doi:10.1080/17451000600962789
- Pineda, J., Riebensahm, D., & Medeiros-Bergen, D. (2002). *Semibalanus balanoides* in winter and spring: larval concentration, settlement, and substrate occupancy. *Marine Biology*, 140(4), 789-800. doi:10.1007/s00227-001-0751-z
- Quinn, G. P., & Keough, M. J. (2002). *Experimental design and data analysis for biologists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Russell-Hunter, W. D. (1970). Aquatic productivity: an introduction to some basic aspects of biological oceanography and limnology. New York: Macmillan.

- Sanford, E., Bermudez, D., Bertness, M. D., & Gaines, S. D. (1994). Flow, Food-Supply and Acorn Barnacle Population-Dynamics. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 104(1-2), 49-62. doi:DOI 10.3354/meps104049
- Schoschina, E. V. (2012). On *Laminaria hyperborea* (Laminariales, phaeophyceae) on the murman coast of the barents sea. *Sarsia*, 82(4), 371-373. doi:10.1080/00364827.1997.10413663
- Seed, R. (1969a). Ecology of *Mytilus edulis* L (Lamellibranchiata) on Exposed Rocky Shores. 2. Growth and Mortality. *Oecologia*, *3*(3-4), 317-&. doi:Doi 10.1007/Bf00390381
- Seed, R. (1969b). Ecology of *Mytilus edulis* L (Lamellibranchiata) on Exposed Rocky Shores. I. Breeding and Settlement. *Oecologia*, *3*(3-4), 277-&. doi:Doi 10.1007/Bf00390380
- Sjøtun, K., Fredriksen, S., & Rueness, J. (1996). Seasonal growth and carbon and nitrogen content in canopy and first-year plants of *Laminaria hyperborea* (Laminariales, Phaeophyceae). *Phycologia*, 35(1), 1-8. doi:10.2216/i0031-8884-35-1-1.1
- Sorte, C. J., Davidson, V. E., Franklin, M. C., Benes, K. M., Doellman, M. M., Etter, R. J., . . . Menge, B. A. (2017). Long-term declines in an intertidal foundation species parallel shifts in community composition. *Glob Chang Biol*, *23*(1), 341-352. doi:10.1111/gcb.13425
- Stromgren, T., & Cary, C. (1984). Growth in Length of *Mytilus edulis* L Fed on Different Algal Diets. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 76(1), 23-34. doi:Doi 10.1016/0022-0981(84)90014-5
- Suchanek, T. H. (1978). Ecology of *Mytilus edulis* L in Exposed Rocky Inter-Tidal Communities. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, 31*(1), 105-120. doi:Doi 10.1016/0022-0981(78)90139-9
- Suchanek, T. H. (1992). Extreme Biodiversity in the Marine-Environment Mussel Bed Communities of *Mytilus californianus*. *Northwest Environmental Journal*, 8(1), 150-152.
- Sverdrup, H. U. (1953). On conditions for the vernal blooming of phytoplankton. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 18(3), 287-295. doi:10.1093/icesjms/18.3.287
- Ward, J. E., & Targett, N. M. (1989). Influence of Marine Microalgal Metabolites on the Feeding-Behavior of the Blue Mussel *Mytilus edulis*. *Marine Biology*, *101*(3), 313-321. doi:Doi 10.1007/Bf00428127

First glue - Clas Ohlson Universal Super Glue Water-resistant (3g)

Second glue - Loctite Power Glue Repair Extreme (20g)

Caliper model - Cocraft Digital Caliper 0-150mm (Serial number: C1604130215)

Water pump model - Fluval Nano Aquarium Filter (up to 55L) 6.8W Flow rate: 307

LPH (UPC: 015561104555)

Table 12: Raw data from carbon nitrogen analysis performed by the Toxicology lab at the Department of Biosciences. 'Phyto' refers to each of the samples of the phytoplankton blend (n = 5) and 'hyp' refers to the samples of detritus (n = 5) from Laminaria hyperborea.

Raw Data from Lab					
sample		weight mg	N %	C %	
phyto001	ph001	1.748	0.360	3.307	
phyto002	ph002	1.700	0.374	3.379	
phyto003	ph003	1.576	0.389	3.381	
phyto004	ph004	2.329	0.344	3.209	
phyto005	ph005	2.668	0.336	3.358	
hyp006	hy006	5.788	2.070	32.605	
hyp007	hy007	8.047	2.205	32.917	
hyp008	hy008	5.573	2.213	32.946	
hyp009	hy009	4.339	2.085	33.854	
hyp010	hy010	5.825	2.137	33.460	

Table 13: Percent nitrogen and percent carbon of the Laminaria hyperborea detritus used as food in the experiment.

Hyperborea						
Replicates	% Nitrogen	% Carbon	C:N ratio			
1	2.070	32.605	15.75121			
2	2.205	32.917	14.92834			
3	2.213	32.946	14.88748			
4	2.085	32.854	15.75731			
5	2.137	32.459	15.18905			
Average	2.142	32.756	15.29234			
STDEV 0.38						

Table 14: Percent nitrogen and percent carbon of the phytoplankton mixture as a food source in the experiment.

Phytoplankton						
Replicates	% Nitrogen	% Carbon	C:N ratio			
1	0.360	3.307	9.186111			
2	0.374	3.379	9.034759			
3	0.389	3.381	8.691517			
4	0.345	3.209	9.301449			
5	0.336	3.358	9.994048			
Average	0.361	3.327	9.220621			
		STDEV	0.428535			

Table 15: Data from the large Mytilus edulis group that was fed detritus from Laminaria hyperborea. These measurements were used for analysis in the Mann-Whitney U test.

Kelp Large Group (n =15)			t = 76 days	
First	Final	Kelp Difference in		Growth
Measurement	Measurement	Growth		rate/day
23.97	32.55		8.58	0.112894737
21.49	30.22		8.73	0.114868421
18.16	27.08		8.92	0.117368421
20.94	29.79		8.85	0.116447368
22.13	30.85		8.72	0.114736842
17.36	27.08		9.72	0.127894737
25.05	34.4		9.35	0.123026316
21.54	29.93		8.39	0.110394737
18.14	26.44		8.30	0.11
23.05	32.24		9.19	0.120921053
16.27	25.55		9.28	0.122105263
26.27	34.83		8.56	0.112631579
21.94	30.45		8.51	0.111973684
18.58	27.35		8.77	0.115394737
22.08	31.25		9.17	0.120657895
Average	difference	8.869333	3333	0.116701754
STI	DEV	0.385875	5052	0.005077303

Table 16: Data from the large Mytilus edulis group that was fed the phytoplankton mixture. These measurements were used for analysis in the Mann-Whitney U test.

Phytoplankton Large Group (n = 13)			t = 76 days
First	Final		Growth
Measurement	Measurement	Phytoplankton Difference in Growth	rate/day
22.49	31.4	8.91	0.117236842
19.14	29.18	10.04	0.132105263
20.73	Dead		0
17.18	28.76	11.58	0.152368421
23.31	33.22	9.91	0.130394737
25.82	35.22	9.4	0.123684211
19.75	29.1	9.35	0.123026316
23.73	32.81	9.08	0.119473684
21.09	31.3	10.21	0.134342105
20.69	29.28	8.59	0.113026316
24.88	34.44	9.56	0.125789474
25.48	Died		0
21.35	30.49	9.14	0.120263158
19.89	30.25	10.36	0.136315789
22	30.45	8.45	0.111184211
Average (difference	9.583076923	0.109280702
STI	DEV	0.811497994	0.044000936

Table 17: Control measurements for the large Mytilus edulis group.

Control Large Group (n = 15)		t = 128 days	
First	Final	Difference in	Growth
Measurement	Measurement	Growth	rate/day
28.83	41.37	12.54	0.09796875
25.75	34.79	9.04	0.070625
28.71	37.91	9.2	0.071875
24.74	31.62	6.88	0.05375
22.53	31.17	8.64	0.0675
25.55	36.09	10.54	0.08234375
26.5	35.57	9.07	0.070859375
27.99	37.31	9.32	0.0728125
24.21	33.77	9.56	0.0746875
23.86	32.9	9.04	0.070625
26.43	34.52	8.09	0.063203125
31.88	44.59	12.71	0.099296875
27.78	40.03	12.25	0.095703125
32.7	44.45	11.75	0.091796875
23.06	29.37	6.31	0.049296875
Average	difference	9.662666667	0.075489583
STI	DEV	1.886048662	0.014734755

Table 18: Summary data for the large Mytilus edulis test groups and control group growth rate.

Diet	Average difference in growth (mm)	Average growth/day (mm/day)
L. hyperborea detritus	8.87	0.12
Phytoplankton	9.58	0.13
Control	9.66	0.08

Table 19: Measurement data for the small Mytilus edulis group which received detritus from Laminaria hyperborea.

	Kelp Small Group (n = 15)				
First	Final		Growth		
Measurement	Measurement	Kelp Difference in Growth	rate/day		
7.43	16.83	9.4	0.123684211		
10.58	19.13	8.55	0.1125		
6.34	15.17	8.83	0.116184211		
10.69	20.4	9.71	0.127763158		
11.45	20.84	9.39	0.123552632		
12.03	20.64	8.61	0.113289474		
9.37	19.63	10.26	0.135		
9.11	17.56	8.45	0.111184211		
7.94	17.36	9.42	0.123947368		
7.95	17.52	9.57	0.125921053		
13.58	22.38	8.8	0.115789474		
12.61	22.04	9.43	0.124078947		
8.87	19.91	11.04	0.145263158		
8.48	17.35	8.87	0.116710526		
10.92	19.93	9.01	0.118552632		
Average	difference	9.289333333	0.12222807		
STI	DEV	0.670268271	0.008819319		

Table 20: Measurement data for the small Mytilus edulis group which received the phytoplankton mixture.

	t = 76 days		
First	Final		Growth
Measurement	Measurement	Phytoplankton Difference in Growth	rate/day
10.2	19.45	9.25	0.121710526
11.64	20.94	9.3	0.122368421
11.99	21.35	9.36	0.123157895
10.06	19.44	9.38	0.123421053
9.71	19.66	9.95	0.130921053
9.29	18.16	8.87	0.116710526
10.17	18.6	8.43	0.110921053
8.02	16.83	8.81	0.115921053
14.08	23.4	9.32	0.122631579
12.1	21.67	9.57	0.125921053
12.33	22.55	10.22	0.134473684
8.83	18.32	9.49	0.124868421
9.59	19.17	9.58	0.126052632
11.17	23.36	12.19	0.160394737
11.18	20.58	9.4	0.123684211
Average (difference	9.541333333	0.12554386
STI	DEV	0.822174894	0.010818091

Table 21: Measurement data for the small Mytilus edulis control group.

Control Small Group (n = 11)			t = 128 days
First	Final	Difference in	Growth
Measurement	Measurement	Growth	rate/day
9.92	missing		0
11.45	20.76	9.31	0.072734375
10.16	18.31	8.15	0.063671875
14.38	26.39	12.01	0.093828125
10.35	20.15	9.8	0.0765625
14.22	26.09	11.87	0.092734375
11.48	missing		0
13.39	died		0
11.18	15.11	3.93	0.030703125
13	died		0
13.08	25.69	12.61	0.098515625
17.41	21.91	4.5	0.03515625
11.69	23.53	11.84	0.0925
13.19	19.57	6.38	0.04984375
14.71	24.35	9.64	0.0753125
Average (difference	9.094545455	0.052104167
STI	DEV	2.907417985	0.036953598

Table 22: Summary data for the small Mytilus edulis test groups and control group growth rate.

Small Mussels						
	Average difference in growth	Average growth/day				
Diet	(mm)	(mm/day)		STDEV		
L. hyperborea						
detritus	9.29		0.12			
Phytoplankton	9.54		0.13			
Control	9.09		0.07			

Table 23: Two-factor ANOVA table for the Semibalanus balanoides test groups.

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication				
Repriestion				
SUMMARY	Aquarium 1	Aquarium 2	Aquarium 3	Total
Laminaria hyperborea				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	52.18639	44.55004	54.26551	151.00194
Average	2.6093195	2.227502	2.7132755	2.52
Variance	0.14727878	0.11888248	0.17521924	0.18649738
	5	4	5	
Standard deviation	0.38376918	0.34479339	0.41859197	0.43
	2	3	9	
Phytoplankton				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	59.05691	42.48557	50.86606	152.40854
Average	2.9528455	2.1242785	2.543303	2.54
Variance	0.35405278	0.09892539	0.13350669	0.30523296
	3	2		4
Standard deviation	0.59502334	0.31452407	0.36538567	0.55
	6	3	2	
Total				
Count	40	40	40	
Sum	111.2433	87.03561	105.13157	
Average	2.7810825	2.17589025	2.62828925	
Variance	0.27449745	0.10884360	0.15781280	
	9	4	1	

Table 24: Two-factor ANOVA table for the Semibalanus balanoides test group on the Laminaria hyperborea detritus diet and the control group.

Anova: Two-Factor With				
Replication				
SUMMARY	Aquarium 1	Aquarium 2	Aquarium 3	Total
Laminaria hyperborea				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	52.18639	44.55004	54.26551	151.00194
Average	2.6093195	2.227502	2.7132755	2.516699
Variance	0.14727878	0.11888248	0.17521924	0.18649738
	5	4	5	
Control				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	51.53057	63.14829	68.08617	182.76503
Average	2.5765285	3.1574145	3.4043085	3.05
Variance	0.17052358	0.89311905	0.77803529	0.71552395
	6	5	2	8
Standard deviation				0.85
Total				
Count	40	40	40	
Sum	103.71696	107.69833	122.35168	
Average	2.592924	2.69245825	3.058792	
Variance	0.15510250	0.71475389	0.58684877	
	1	3	6	

Table 25: Two-factor ANOVA table for the Semibalanus balanoides test group on the phytoplankton diet and the control group.

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication				
SUMMARY	Aquarium 1	Aquarium 2	Aquarium 3	Total
Phytoplankton				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	59.05691	42.48557	50.86606	152.40854
Average	2.9528455	2.1242785	2.543303	2.54014233 3
Variance	0.35405278 3	0.09892539	0.13350669	0.30523296 4
Control				
Count	20	20	20	60
Sum	51.53057	63.14829	68.08617	182.76503
Average	2.5765285	3.1574145	3.4043085	3.04608383 3
Variance	0.17052358	0.89311905	0.77803529	0.71552395
	6	5	2	8
Total				
Count	40	40	40	
Sum	110.58748	105.63386	118.95223	
Average	2.764687	2.6408465	2.97380575	
Variance	0.29187425 2	0.75698831 9	0.63416929 1	

Table 26: The lipid analysis results for the large Mytilus edulis *organisms*.

Large Mussel Groups				
	Fat content			
Diet	(g/100g)			
Control		0.5		
Phytoplankton		0.2		
L. hyperborea				
detritus		0.6		

Table 27: The lipid analysis results for the small Mytilus edulis organisms.

Small Mussel Groups		
	Fat content	
Diet	(g/100g)	
Control		0.6
Phytoplankton		0.2
L. hyperborea		
detritus		0.3