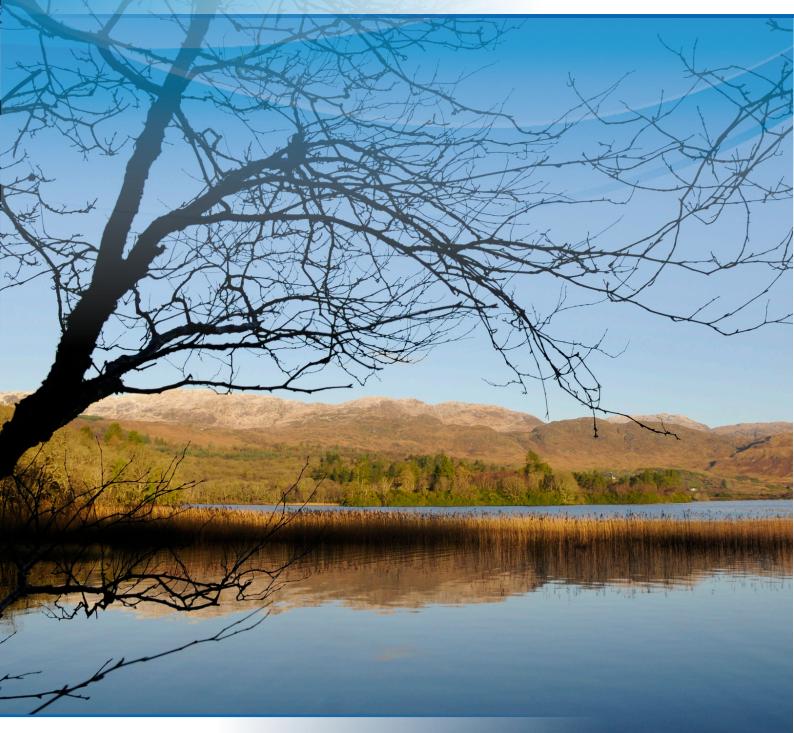# Freshwater Pearl Mussel Sub-Basin Management Plans

Background Documentation
Literature Review

May 2010-05-17

INTRODUCTION TO THE FRESHWATER PEARL MUSSEL MARGARITIFERA MARGARITIFERA

Background

1.1 Current status

Margaritifera margaritifera

1.1.1 The family *Margaritiferidae* (Bivalvia : Unionoida) consists of a number of different genera with a disjunct relictar distribution in the holarctic, east and south-eastern Asia (Baranescu, 1990). The largest genus is *Margaritifera* which is circumpolar in distribution.

1.1.2 Within the genus *Margaritifera*, the most widely distributed species is *Margaritifera margaritifera.* Populations are known from North America, northern and central Europe and Russia. The species is very seriously declining throughout its range and is listed in the IUCN red data book as endangered worldwide (Baillie & Groombridge, 1996). In a recent review of conservation status of Irish molluscs, *Margaritifera margaritifera* was found to be "critically endangered" in Ireland (Moorkens, 2006a).

1.1.3 The freshwater pearl mussel is protected under Annex II and V of the European Community Council Directive on Conservation of Natural Habitats and of Wild Fauna and Flora (92/43/EEC). It is listed on Appendix 3 of the Bern Convention. Under Irish law, it is illegal to interfere with *M. margaritifera* (Statutory Instrument No. 112, 1990). This in turn conferred protected faunal species status for the species under the fifth schedule of the Wildlife Act (1976), and other subsequent protections under the Wildlife (Amendment) Act 2000.

1.1.4 It is estimated that 90% of individuals of this species died out within Europe during the 20th Century (Bauer 1986). In the EU, most countries' pearl mussel populations are considered to be completely extinct (e.g. Poland), almost extinct (e.g. Denmark) or have small senescent populations which, in the absence of major river habitat recovery, will become extinct by the end of the lives of the current generation (e.g. Austria, Latvia, Luxembourg, Belgium) (Araujo & Ramos, 2001). A few countries have populations with some juvenile recruitment (Scotland, Finland, Sweden), but recruitment in most cases is found to be inadequate to replace existing adults.

1.1.5 Freshwater pearl mussels are flagship, indicator, keystone and umbrella species (Geist, 2005).

1.1.6 Greater than 70% of Unionidae and Margaritiferidae taxa are listed as endangered or threatened, making them one of the most endangered faunal groups throughout the world. Of the 300 species of freshwater mussels living in North America, where this

faunal group has reached its peak of radiation, 210 species are imperilled (Bringolf *et al.*, 2007b).

1.1.7   In Ireland, *M. margaritifera* is geographically widespread in rivers of low pH, and the Republic of Ireland has an estimated 12 million individuals, or approximately 46% of the EU population (Geist, 2005).

1.1.8   The high number of individuals belies the seriousness of the status of *M. margaritifera* in Ireland, as most populations have experienced a dramatic decline in recent years (Moorkens, 1999; Moorkens & Costello, 1994, Moorkens *et al.*, 1992). Deterioration in river bed and river water quality has resulted in the majority of mussel populations failing to recruit young mussels over the last 30 year period, and widespread extinction of mussel populations is predicted if causal factors of decline remain in place.

1.2 *Margaritifera durrovensis* (*Margaritifera margaritifera*)

1.2.1   In 1926, B.B. Woodward found an unusual shell in the P.B. Mason collection which was labelled from the river Nore at Durrow (Phillips, 1928). He wrote to R.A. Phillips, who went to look for further specimens. In October 1926, Phillips, along with A.W. Stelfox, R.J. Welch and C. Oldham found the population. Five specimens from this expedition are preserved in spirit in the Dublin museum, labelled from the river Nore below Abbeyleix. Descriptions of the Nore mussels were given (Bloomer, 1927, 1928). Anatomical distinctions were based on a furrow present in the *M. durrovensis* foot and differences in muscle scarring patterns on the *M. durrovensis* shell compared with *M. margaritifera* (Bloomer, 1928). This was followed by Phillips (1928) paper naming *M. durrovensis* as a species new to science.

1.2.2   The taxonomic status of *M. durrovensis* has been argued ever since Phillips first published his species description. A year after Phillips' paper, Stelfox (1929) published additions to his Irish list. He included *M. durrovensis*, but compared its thickened form with the forms of *Pisidia* found in hard water, and stated, in his opinion, that the Nore mussel was a variety of *M. margaritifera* which had become acclimatised to hard water. However, he stated that "considerable research work will be necessary before these problems can be settled", thereby showing his uncertainty.

1.2.3   Haas (1948) concurred with Stelfox, and called *M. durrovensis* the "lime-phase" of *M. margaritifera*. His investigation was limited to one Nore specimen, which he thought was similar in form to *Unio brunneus* Bonhomme, 1840, of which he had also seen only one specimen.

1.2.4   The dismissal of the species and subspecies classification of *M. durrovensis* was supported by Chesney *et al.* (1993), who formed their conclusions on the basis of shell, anatomical and enzyme polymorphism comparisons of *M. durrovensis* with a number of *M. margaritifera* populations. Subsequently, Moorkens (1996) looked at morphometric taxonomical differences between shell sets from various rivers and different species within the *Margaritifera* genus. While it was evident that there were large "within species" differences among populations of *M. margaritifera*, it was

shown in the study that *M. durrovensis* demonstrated greater morphometric differences to *M. margaritifera* than *M. falcata* and *M. auricularia* do.

1.2.5   Holmes *et al.* (2001) found good genetic separation between *M. durrovensis* and *M. margaritifera* populations.

1.2.6   Machordom *et al.* (2003) found that Ireland had populations linked genetically to two separate lineages. Two mitochondrial lineages (albeit very closely related) were identified: a northern lineage extending from Ireland to the Kola Peninsula including the western Atlantic coast, and a second cluster distributed from Ireland to the Iberian Peninsula.

1.2.7   Geist & Kuehn (2005) studied the genetics of 24 European pearl mussel populations. The analyses of nine microsatellite loci with different levels of polymorphism revealed a high degree of fragmented population structure and very different levels of genetic diversity within populations. These patterns were explained by historical and demographic effects and have been enforced by anthropogenic activities. Even within drainages, distinct conservation units were detected.

1.2.8   Early indications from examination of *M. durrovensis* genetic material by Geist (pers. comm.) suggest that this genetic population fits in to this fragmented population model.

1.2.9   Recent work by Geist *et al.* (2008) suggests that recently dead shells may be a good source of DNA for future genetic work. The genetic material is derived in this case from periostracum.

1.2.10   The taxonomic status of *Margaritifera durrovensis* remains inconclusive but is probably best described as a rare ecophenotype of *M. margaritifera*, a status which concurs with Machordom *et al.* (2003) and Chesney *et al.* (1993), the most recent bivalve guide to the region (Killeen *et al.*, 2004), and the most recent published Irish list of Molluscs (Anderson, 2005).

1.2.11   *Margaritifera durrovensis* was known from the Barrow, Nore and Suir main channels, but living specimens have not been found outside the Nore since 1993 (Moorkens, 1996).

1.2.12   Some rivers with hardness levels that are intermediate between the Nore and the typically acid stream habitats of *Margaritifera* have been found, e.g. the varieties known as *Unio brunneus* from the River Viaur, France (Haas, 1948) and *M. margaritifera var. siluriana*, from the River Wye, Wales (Ellis, 1962). However, none have the distinctive slender shape that is particular to *M. durrovensis*.

1.2.13   The taxon that relates to *Margaritifera durrovensis* is considered to be restricted to the River Nore in the Republic of Ireland.

1.2.14   The Council Directive 97/62/EC of 27 October 1997 adapting to technical and
          scientific progress Directive 92/43/EEC on the conservation of natural habitats and of
          wild fauna placed *Margaritifera durrovensis* on Annex II and Annex V as a separate
          taxon.

1.2.15   The most recent monitoring surveys for *M. durrovensis* indicate that, while there may
          be outliers downstream, its main population is now restricted to approximately 10km
          length of river and 500 individuals, and that there is no evidence of reproduction
          (Moorkens, 2004a, 2005a).

1.2.16   *Margaritifera durrovensis* is listed by the IUCN as "Critically endangered" (Baillie &
          Groombridge, 1996). It clearly also falls into this category in an Irish context
          (Moorkens, 2006a).

2.0 CURRENT FACTORS CAUSING LOSS OR DECLINE

2.1 *Margaritifera margaritifera*

2.1.1   There are a number of factors leading to the decline and loss of pearl mussel
          populations internationally and most of those are evident in Ireland and are outlined
          below.

2.1.2   The loss of pearl mussel populations mostly occurs from continuous failure to
          produce a new generation of mussels due to loss of clean gravel beds, which have
          become infiltrated by fine sediment. This blocks the required levels of oxygen from
          reaching young mussels. Juvenile mussels spend their first five years buried within
          the river bed substrate.

2.1.3   Other losses that lead to unsustainable populations are from untimely deaths of adult
          mussels through kills from major pollution incidents, such as toxic poisoning (e.g.
          from sheep dip), eutrophication (through smothering of adult mussels by filamentous
          algae or macrophyte growth).

2.1.4   Losses of adult mussels typically begin in the central channel of the river where the
          effects of pollution are most seriously manifested, leaving residual surviving mussels
          lying close to river banks. The *Margaritifera* life strategy relies on the production of
          very large numbers of early life stages due to the high percentage of losses over time
          (Young & Williams, 1984). Sustainable *Margaritifera* populations require the
          prevention of both chronic pollution and once-off pollution incidents from their
          freshwater habitat.

3.0 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO LOSS OR DECLINE

3.1 Sediment quality

3.1.1   In the field, sediment quality can be measured using redox potential differences
          between various depths in the stream bed. Redox potential at sites without juvenile
          mussel recruitment differ significantly from those with juvenile recruitment (Geist &

Auerswald, 2007). The latter has no detectable differences between the redox potential (Eh) of the open water and the interstitial water at 5 or 10 cm depth.

3.1.2   Excessive siltation to river beds can lead to compaction or concretion of the river bed, which further lowers the chances of oxygen exchange at depth. Compaction can be measured by penetration resistance using commercial penetrometers. Stream beds where pearl mussel recruitment is absent were found to have a more variable and higher penetration resistance, indicating unfavourable compaction is a problem (Geist & Auerswald, 2007).

3.1.3   Changes of river bank vegetation from more natural to more unnatural vegetation and hydrogeology are considered to have a negative impact on *Margaritifera*. Juvenile mussels can gain early nutrition through movement of water from *Carex*-dominated vegetation from the river bank rhizosphere into the hyporheic zone (Hruska, 1999).

3.1.4   Other ways in which mussel populations can decline and be lost is through adult mussel kills, or loss of host fish which are essential to the life cycle of *Margaritifera*. Further details of the life cycle can be found in Moorkens (1999).

3.1.5   The Republic of Ireland currently has approximately 120 rivers with *Margaritifera*. A small number of *Margaritifera* populations were extirpated in the 19th Century by chronic pollution (e.g. mine waste, Avoca River). Many other rivers ceased recruitment in the 1970's, which is thought to be linked with the intensification of agricultural practices, in particular the introduction of artificial fertilisers and the change from hay to silage management of fields in mussel catchments following Ireland's entry into the then European Economic Community.

3.1.6   Rivers that have retained large numbers and had successful recruitment in the 1990's were mainly found in remote small catchments with low intensity agriculture, often downstream of large water bodies i.e. one or more lakes.

3.1.7   Decline in these most important mussel rivers in recent years has been linked with the first intensive usage of the catchment, mainly clearfelling of coniferous forestry, overgrazing and housing development.

3.1.8   Physical siltation, once introduced to a pearl mussel river, can continue to cause very serious effects on a long term basis (Ellis, 1936, Marking & Bills, 1979, Naden *et al.*, 2003, Araujo & Ramos, 2001, Killeen *et al.*, 1998). Direct ingestion of silt by adult mussels can lead to rapid death. If, however, the mussels clam-up as a response to a siltation episode and if the siltation is prolonged, they will die from oxygen starvation over a period of several days. During a time of year when water temperatures are high, oxygen depletion in the body occurs more rapidly, and they will die more rapidly. The evolutionary primitive *Margaritifera* gills and the annual brooding of young in all four of the gills demand a continuous and high supply of oxygen. If the mussels survive the initial silt episode, the food/oxygen deprivation from clamming will cause them to become stressed from which they will take a long time to recover. If during that recovery period, there are further incidents of mobilisation of silt then the stressed mussels are more susceptible to death than mussels in a cold river in

unstressed conditions. Thus they may continue to die over a period of several months, particularly over a summer.

3.1.9   Once a silt load enters a river that holds a pearl mussel population, it can continue to cause harm. Silt causes river changes, which in turn change the dynamics of the river into the future (Curran & Wilcock, 2005; Colosimo & Wilcock, 2005; Dietrich *et al.*, 1989). Both bed and suspended materials, and subsequent changes in channel form associated with changes in sediment supply, may affect mussels in many ways at various stages in their life cycle. The direct kill to adults is only the first stage in the damage that silt causes to the population. Sediment that infiltrates the sediment decreases oxygen supply in the juvenile habitat, which prevents recruitment of the next generation. The sediment subsequently provides a medium for macrophyte growth, a negative indicator in pearl mussel habitats. Macrophytes then smother the juvenile habitat even further, and the macrophytes trap more sediment which exacerbates the problem in the long term. One of the most essential requirements for pearl mussel conservation is the removal of risk of any sediment reaching the river, as any one single incident has such long term ramifications.

3.1.10   Silt infiltration of river bed gravels can also have a negative effect on the essential species of fish that host the mussel glochidial stage (Levasseur *et al.*, 2006).

3.1.11   Major physical silt threats arise from land clearance for development, ploughing, coniferous forestry, overgrazing of land leading to loss of vegetation cover, road and bridge building and peat cutting, particularly mechanical peat extraction. Direct access of grazing animals to the river can lead to bank erosion and poaching.

3.1.12   Nutrient and organic pollution leading to eutrophication is associated with agriculture, coniferous clearfell forestry, industrial effluents and insufficient treatment of urban wastewater and wastewater from on-site systems.

3.1.13   The low levels of nutrient input that lead to damage are most important to note. In particular, the normal background ortho-phosphate level of 0.005mg/l P is considered to be essential to the maintenance of oligotrophic waters for reproducing pearl mussel rivers (Moorkens, 2006a).

3.1.14   Small increases in ortho-phosphate can lead to deleterious algal or macrophyte growth, so maintaining low levels at all times is considered to be essential. One large input of ortho-phosphate can lead to an algal bloom incident, which in turn leads to organic silt, causing adult and juvenile deaths and increased trophic status in the river on a long term basis.

3.1.15   An increase in trophic status can lead to a major habitat change, particularly a change from *Fontinalis*-dominated river bed to *Myriophyllum* and *Ranunculus*-dominated riverbed. These macrophytes are indicators of unfavourable condition in *Margaritifera* rivers and provide conditions for further silt trapping and continued loss of habitat due to changes of flow, sediment and nutrient dynamics (Clarke, 2002; Wood, 1997; Madsen *et al.*, 2001; Barko *et al.*, 1991). Phosphorus pollution events that have resulted in macrophyte growth result in phosphorus that continues to be released and mobilised by the macrophytes at later dates (Barko & Smart, 1980; Rooney *et al.*, 2003).

3.1.16　Fine silt arising from organic decay infiltrates juvenile gravel habitat in the same way that physical silt does. It also provides a further inappropriate nutrient source for the future and its decomposition leads to significant decreases in oxygen.

3.1.17　Habitat destruction can occur through canalisation, boulder removal, arterial drainage and other physical changes, replacing natural channel reach patterns of pools and riffles with more uniform runs that suit neither the pearl mussel nor its host fish (Valovirta, 2001; Moorkens, 1999, 1996; Hastie *et al*., 2000).

3.1.18　Bank reinforcement actions are a response to external damage to river banks at the site of reinforcement or elsewhere but has had ramifications at the site of reinforcement. The reinforcement structures in themselves can affect river dynamics both upstream and downstream of the works (Fischenick, 2003; O'Grady, 2006). Hard reinforcement measures are considered to be damaging activities in pearl mussel rivers.

3.1.19　Flow regulation can have serious negative effects on pearl mussel populations (Mc Allister *et al*., 1999; Araujo & Ramos, 2001). These manifest mainly in two ways. Firstly, consistent unnatural flows, particularly more prolonged low flows can cause stress to adult and juvenile mussels by raising temperature, reducing oxygen, concentrating pollutants and providing conditions for silt deposition. Secondly, rapid changes in flow regime such as where sluices or dams are opened and closed regularly, is damaging to pearl mussel populations by causing energy effort of individuals to be concentrated on digging into substrate or moving around leading to a state of continuous stress, and by disrupting natural stages of the life cycle due to regular flooding and spate flow. High losses of annual glochidial production or newly dropped juvenile mussels occur during flood conditions. Recent monitoring surveys of *Margaritifera* rivers with regulated flows in Ireland (Moorkens survey) and the UK (Killeen survey) have found reduced recruitment.

3.1.20　Fisheries activities have increased in rivers as a response to a lowering of river habitat quality. Fishing weirs, dams, croys, fishing platforms, pool dredging, footbridges and weed control all threaten the conservation status of *Margaritifera* populations during both their construction and operation stages (Hastie & Young, 2003).

3.1.21　While wood products are considered to be less harmful in bank protection than rock armouring (O'Grady, 2006), these wood products should not have been treated with preservatives including copper, chromium or other compounds that are toxic to unionids. Copper and chromium leaching from preserved wood into damp soil were shown to result in significant losses (5.34-15.6% Cu; 1.85-2.35% Cr) to the environment (García-Valcárcel & Tadeo, 2007).

3.1.22　Liming of land has a negative effect on *Margaritifera* populations, through direct toxic effects, and through increased growth rates leading to shortened life expectancy and, thus, loss of reproductive years (Bauer *et al*., 1991; Skinner *et al*., 2003). In some countries, acidification problems are so severe that liming is considered to have a more positive than negative effect (Henrikson *et al*., 1995). However, environmental water chemistry analysis in declining Irish pearl mussel rivers are associated with high peaks of calcium and conductivity levels.

3.1.23 Toxic pollution can have very serious and long term effects on a pearl mussel river. Juvenile and adult pearl mussels, being benthic suspension feeders, are exposed to pollutants in surface water, sediment, interstitial water and through ingestion of filtered particles with sorbed contaminants. Associations between mussel decline and upstream reduced water quality have been documented for decades (Augspurger *et al.,* 2007; Fuller, 1974).

3.1.24 Early life stages of mussels were shown to be among the most sensitive aquatic organisms in toxicity testing with copper and ammonia, and this led to the development of captive breeding of mussels of various species for glochidial production for toxicity testing (Augspurger *et al.,* 2007; Keller *et al.*, 2006; Milam *et al.*, 2005; Augspurger *et al.*, 2003). There is now a standard guide for methodologies for reliable toxicity testing of freshwater mussels (American Society for Testing and Materials, 2006).

3.1.25 Unionid mussels are considered to be among the most sensitive of all invertebrates to water pollution, and of these, *Margaritifera* is considered to be particularly sensitive, so much so that it is difficult to breed adequate numbers of glochidia for toxicity testing. Results from other species of unionids are considered to be relevant to *Margaritifera*, but may perhaps underestimate their further sensitivity to some pollutants. Nevertheless, recent advances in Unionid toxicity testing has determined that reviews are needed for US EPA water quality criteria (WQC) in order to bring them up to standards that will be protective of freshwater mussels (Augspurger *et al.,* 2007).

3.1.26 The EC (Quality of Salmonid Waters) Regulations 1988 state that at a water hardness level of 50mg/l the copper levels should be less than 0.022 mg/l Cu. Glochidial testing of a variety of unionid mussels in the USA found copper 48hour EC50 values at a water hardness level of 50mg/l of as low as 0.0065 mg/l Cu, with six out of eight species tested with lower EC50 levels than the Salmonid Regulation values (Wang *et al.*, 2007). The results of juvenile mussel toxicity testing were even more serious, with ten day EC50 values at a water hardness level of 50 mg/l of as low as 0.0048 mg/l Cu, with all newly transformed juveniles of 6 species tested with lower EC50 levels than the Salmonid Regulation values.

3.1.27 Glochidia and juvenile mussels of a range of unionid species were found to be much more sensitive than typical surrogate species (*Daphnia magna, Ceriodaphnia dubia, Hyalella aztaca*, fathead minnow, and rainbow trout) in acute toxicity responses to ammonia (Wang *et al.,* 2007). Lethal and sub-lethal effects of ammonia were seen on juvenile unionids (Newton & Bartsch, 2007).

3.1.28 Standardised chronic toxicity tests with two month old juvenile mussels indicate that the early life stages of freshwater mussels are chronically sensitive to copper and ammonia, and may not be adequately protected by U.S. EPA levels (March *et al.*, 2007).

3.1.29 The use of median levels in standard water quality requirements and in water quality reporting can be unhelpful to species that are highly sensitive to acute effects of rare events. A risk assessment of water quality in three streams supporting endangered

freshwater mussels found that chlorine concentrations exceeded regulatory standards up to 17-fold upstream of endangered mussel beds, and that in some habitat areas the levels rapidly decreased with distance from the source, in other areas with little turbulence elevated chlorine levels were found up to 300m from an outfall (Ward *et al.,* 2007). Outfalls with even slightly elevated copper, chlorine and ammonia can be a limiting factor in mussel survival and recovery.

3.1.30   A significant threat is agricultural and forestry pesticides, and chemical sheep dip is considered to be a very serious risk to pearl mussel populations, and the most likely cause of a number of major mussel kills (Moorkens, 1999; Skinner *et al*., 2003; Young, 2005; Cosgrove & Young, 1998). Organophosphates and synthetic pyrethroides used in sheep dipping are highly toxic to species that are a lot less sensitive to pollution than *Margaritifera*. The pearl mussel is too endangered to justify specific laboratory toxicity testing, but this should not be used as a reason to be ambiguous about the threat such pesticides present to *Margaritifera*. Pesticides present the greatest risk when used in a form that requires mixing in large quantities of water, which is why sheep dip is the most obvious threat. However, there are also a number of pesticides that are used in a concentrated state for spraying and prolonged or large scale use close to water courses, or spillage into watercourses also presents a risk. The most common example is permethrin but there are likely to be others. Other substances which have been shown to be directly toxic to *Margaritifera* are rotenone, methylmercury chloride and mercuric nitrate (Mellinger, 1973; Dolmen *et al*., 1995). Negative effects of diffuse and direct sources of heavy metals zinc, lead, cadmium, copper, nickel, silver, mercury, persistent organic pollutants (POPs), such as DDT and its metabolite DDE, and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) on other bivalve species have led to the conclusion that *Margaritifera* would be also at risk from these substances. Given the sensitivity of the pearl mussel, exact quantities below which risks from these substances are removed is not known and a precautionary approach should be used to ensure such products do not enter watercourses inhabited by *Margaritifera*. Chronic toxicity testing suggests that juvenile mussels may be at risk from prolonged exposure to environmentally relevant concentrations of chlorpyrifos and permithrin and their formulations (Bringolf *et al.,* 2007c).

3.1.31   The technical grade fungicides chlorothalonil, pyraclostrobin and propiconazole were found to be highly deleterious to glochidia and juvenile unionid mussels (Bringolf *et al.,* 2007a).

3.1.32   Glyphosate, alone and in combination with surfactant blends that allow penetration of the waxy surfaces of plant leaves, is in widespread use, and are expected to increase further with the spread of genetically modified strains of crop (Monsanto Roundup and variations). Roundup was found to be acutely toxic to glochidia and juvenile mussels, and toxicity testing found that the surfactant was the most toxic component, and likely to be responsible for much of the toxicity of the overall product (Bringolf *et al.,* 2007b).

3.1.33   Road wash and surface drainage is a source of diffuse pollution, of nutrients, silt and toxic substances on an ongoing basis, as well as the severe siltation risks during construction (Araujo & Ramos, 2001; Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, 2004). As the road network development in Ireland is still actively underway, road development as well as ongoing risks from roads that are proximal to pearl mussel rivers are considered to present a significant threat to this species.

3.1.34   Other sources of contaminants from surface drainage, particularly in more urban sections of mussel rivers, are domestic household and garden activities, and intermittent release of sewage during periods of malfunction, where such a pathway exists.

3.1.35   Loss of host fish is regularly cited as a potential reason for pearl mussel decline (Araujo & Ramos, 2001; Anon, 2005). A study on the status of host fish populations and on fish species richness in European pearl mussel populations (Geist *et al*., 2005) characterised typical fish communities in pearl mussel streams and revealed that a lack of host fish only seems to be limiting pearl mussel reproduction in specific areas. It has also been found that the most genetically diverse pearl mussel populations are associated with postglacially colonised rivers that retain oligotrophic status and high numbers of individuals (Geist & Kuehn, 2008). The host fish from these rivers displayed low genetic diversity. Intact and functional pearl mussel populations were found to occur under extremely oligotrophic conditions with lower host fish densities and biomasses than in disturbed central European populations without juvenile recruitment. In Ireland, adequate numbers of host fish occur in at least some rivers with inadequate *Margaritifera* recruitment, however, where nutrient levels have increased, more host fish may be required as compensation. A comparison of trout versus salmon dominated rivers of Ireland quickly shows that 100% of pearl mussel rivers are salmon and sea trout rivers, thus while brown trout make an effective host fish, the natural home of *Margaritifera* in Ireland is within low productivity rivers dominated by salmonids that go to sea to get nutrition. Salmon and *Margaritifera* have been cited as symbiotic in their relationship, with both species providing a beneficial role for the other (Ziuganov & Nezlin, 1988; Ziuganov *et al*., 1994). Pearl mussels filter the river water and increase its purity, and salmon gills host mussels during their glochidial stage. Pearl mussels have also been shown to prevent early senility in salmon and thus extend their life expectancy (Ziuganov, 2005). It is likely that host fish numbers need not be very high due to the natural adaptation of pearl mussels to live in rivers with low food levels and very low productivity (Bauer *et al*., 1991), but an unnatural decline in host fish will inevitably threaten *Margaritifera*. As well as habitat decline and acidification (see below), impediments to fish movement from artificial barriers can result in losses of mussel populations (Bogan, 1993).

3.1.36   Acidification has been well documented as a threat to salmonid populations both internationally (e.g. Maitland *et al*., 1987; Henrikson *et al*., 1995; Lacroix, 1989) and in Ireland (Bowman & Bracken1993; Allott *et al*., 1990; Kelly Quinn *et al*., 1997). In Ireland, acidification is linked with coniferous plantations in acid-sensitive areas rather than industrial pollution. As salmonid hosts can come from anywhere within the pearl mussel catchment, protection for the entire catchment from acidification is essential.

3.1.37   Acidification has also been noted a direct threat to *Margaritifera* from the first international IUCN red data book for invertebrates (Wells *et al*., 1983). Work carried out in Scandinavia has provided evidence for pearl mussel decline from acidification (Okland & Okland, 1986; Eriksson *et al*., 1981, 1982, 1983; Henriksen *et al*., 1995; Raddum & Fjellheim, 2004). A lowering of pH directly influences pearl mussels through a gradual destruction of their calcareous shell, and also their genital organs (causing infertility), and through problems with regulation of acid-base mantle fluid homeostasis (Vinogradov *et al*., 1987).

3.1.38   Climate change is likely to contribute to the serious threat to survival of *Margaritifera*. It is unlikely (in the foreseeable future) that Irish habitats will be outside the temperature range of the species, but increased temperatures will lead to a

faster metabolic rate and consequently a shorter life expectancy and thus reduced reproductive episodes per individual, that may exacerbate an already lowered recruitment level. The likely scenario of increased summer droughts and winter storm and flood events may negatively affect the species by increasing the frequency of stressful "natural" events. These may result in increased siltation incidents during flooding. Habitat space may be reduced due to loss of river bed in drought conditions, or instability of gravel beds that are currently stable, through frequent flooding. Climate change may have an as yet unforeseen affect on the salmonid host species or on the food web that they rely on. Changes in sea level may increase the salinity of a higher percentage of the lower reaches of some mussel rivers, and this would have particularly serious ramifications for populations that have now become restricted to the bottom end of rivers. Hastie et al. (2003) predict that a number of Scottish populations may be lost due to climate change.

3.1.39   *Margaritifera margaritifera* has been exploited for its pearls since Roman times, and Ireland's mussels were well known sources of pearls for many years (Lucey, 2006; Cranbrook, 1976). Pearl fishing has been cited as a threat to pearl mussels across most of its range, and in countries with very low numbers of individuals such as Germany, there are historical records of pearl fishing causing population decline. Recent records of pearl fishing in Ireland are anecdotal, and generally involve Scottish visitors, some of whom come from families that traditionally made a visit to known haunts at periodic intervals. The decline in pearl mussels and the lack of sufficient recruitment has made any pearl fishing unsustainable and the use of tongs to open mussels for pearls has been shown to be damaging (Moorkens & Costello, 2004). Thus pearl fishing is outlawed in Ireland and any illegal fishing is considered to pose a threat to that population.