UNIONIDAE IN THE CUYAHOGA RIVER: AN UPDATE ON POPULATION

HEALTH

RACHEL ANDRIKANICH

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We hereby approve this thesis for

RACHEL ANDRIKANICH

Candidate for the Master of Science in Biology degree for the

Department of Biology

and the CLEVELAND STATE UNIVERSITY

College of Graduate Studies

Thesis Chairperson, Dr. Robert Krebs

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Thesis Committee Member, Dr. Bernard Walton

Department & Date

Thesis Committee Member, Dr. Emily Rauschert

Department & Date

Student's Date of Defense: June 7, 2019

DEDICATION

 The completion of this thesis has been one of the most incredible and taxing experiences of my life. I would like to dedicate this work to those individuals that have both inspired and supported me during this journey. First, I would like to thank my family. To my parents I love you, you have listened to hours of mussel information without too much complaint and have supported me, even when that meant lighting a fire under me to complete my work. I would also like to dedicate this work to my siblings: Sara, Chris, and Becca who have been my biggest cheerleaders and allowed me to vent and laugh throughout the completion of my study. I love you and cannot wait to see you all soon!

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UNIONIDAE IN THE CUYAHOGA RIVER: UPDATE ON POPULATION HEALTH RACHEL ANDRIKANICH

ABSTRACT

Inspiration for the Clean Water Act (1972), the Cuyahoga River has been one of the most protected rivers in the country since the 1970s. Water quality is now within acceptable limits outlined by the Ohio Environmental Protection Agency, shoreline integrity has improved, and sediments mostly test free from toxins and heavy metals. With recovery, various faunal communities, such as freshwater mussels (family Unionidae), are expected to re-establish; no previous surveys of the Cuyahoga focus on this issue.

To better understand whether mussel populations recovered as water quality improved within the Cuyahoga Watershed, surveys were completed by two-person teams for one hour each. Sites were selected to compare either with earlier surveys in the 1990s within the Upper Cuyahoga or with possible dam removal sites within the Middle and Lower regions of the River. Site choice depended upon access.

Surveys of in 2012 were consistent with trends observed in the 1990s in species richness and population size within the upper portions of the Cuyahoga. However, when resurveyed in 2016 at the same sites, both abundance and species richness declined even in generalist species, as live individuals counted declined from 389 to 111. Species richness declined from the original eight species to four found in the 2012 survey. No previous work existed to provide comparison to our 2015 survey of 20 sites. In all, only 37 live individuals, representing three species, were located. One live individual was located within the Lower Cuyahoga in 2016, after teams surveyed 15 sites, representing a significant decline in abundance and diversity as the Cuyahoga flows from Geauga County, Ohio to the Cuyahoga Valley National Park and into Lake Erie.

The loss of freshwater mussels is a complex problem resulting from the building and release of impoundments, pollution, and flow dynamics, challenging the ability to isolate a single cause. Removal of dams has increased complexity of this problem in the lower portions of the river. As continued decline is expected, further work must be completed to understand how to restore this imperiled fauna.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Mussels in the family Unionidae comprise a diverse group of pseudo-sessile bivalve mollusks found throughout aquatic ecosystems. Currently, 837 species are recognized (Graf & Cummings, 2007), and taxonomic classifications continue to be heavily debated. Species morphology varies considerably among unionid mussels, though most species of unionids measure 3-25 cm at maturity (Watters et al., 2009). Environmental factors, including sediment type, dissolved oxygen levels, and nutrient availability, contribute to other morphological traits such as coloration and body shape (Graf & Cummings, 2007). Unionid mussels in suitable ecosystems are often long-lived, exceeding 25 years.

Globally they are most common in permanent freshwater systems in low to moderate altitudes, as higher altitude systems lack necessary fish and nutrients required by the family Unionidae for survival (Watters et al., 2009). Unionids are prevalent throughout the Northern Hemisphere, and they have thrived in freshwater ecosystems within North America, especially east of the Rocky Mountains (Watters et al., 2009). Unionid mussels

are more diverse and abundant within the waters of the United States than any other country in the world, boasting approximately 292 individual species 30 years ago (Turgeon et al., 1988). In recent years, however, the species richness and abundance of unionid mussel assemblages have declined at alarming rates, with two-thirds of these species presumed extinct, imperiled, or vulnerable (Stein & Flack, 1997). This proportion makes unionid mussels the most threatened large family of animals on the planet (Stein & Flack, 1997). To compound this problem, many species of unionid mussels are considered functionally extinct, a phenomenon that occurs when a group of animals is present but no longer able to reproduce at sustainable abundance (Bogan, 1993).

This great decline is unlikely to result from a single factor: A variety of causes appear to create unsuitable habitat for the Unionidae, including anthropogenic disturbance, water fouling, inbreeding depression, competition, and host fish loss. It is challenging to understand the impacts of each of these factors, as they are difficult to study in isolation. Many factors are interrelated and vary in severity seasonally, geographically, and in the degree of anthropogenic interference. This introduction focuses both on the ecosystem services provided by unionid mussels and on the various environmental threats facing this imperiled fauna.

Ecosystem Services Provided by Unionid Mussels in Freshwater Systems

Unionid mussels provide a wide array of ecosystem services (Vaughn, 2017), including offering ecological advantages to freshwater systems as well as social and economic opportunities for humans. The breadth of these services increases with mussel abundance and decreases with extirpation. The Unionidae are robust filter feeders that aid in nutrient cycling in the water column and in interstitial spaces within the sediment

(Vaughn, 2017). They filter water for nutrients and consume bacteria, algae, and phytoplankton (Vaughn et al., 2004). As a result, areas dense in individuals have lower rates of biofouling and significant reductions in toxins harmful to humans, especially microcystins (Nicklin & Balas, 2007).

Unionid mussels also contribute to the reduction of inorganic material and pollutants throughout the water column (Vaughn et al., 2004). Calcium carbonate, phosphorus, and nitrogen are often sequestered in the tissues of the mussel for growth, repair, shell formation, and reproduction (Vaughn, 2017). Death within mussel assemblages also has the capacity to create large amounts of inorganic influx into the substrate of freshwater systems, as the decomposition of mussel valves release these materials back into the water column (Vaughn et al., 2004).

Unionid mussels perform diverse roles in aquatic food webs, with each life stage of the Unionidae possessing unique predators (Vaughn, 2017). Juvenile unionid mussels are consumed primarily by fish species including pumpkin-seed fish, freshwater drum, and short-nosed sturgeon (Smith, 2001). Adult unionid mussels are prey for a variety of faunal groups, including birds, muskrats, river otters, mink, racoons and larger fish species such as Lake sturgeon (Watters et al., 2009). Mammalian predators will eat multiple mussels in each locale, forming piles of valves referred to as middens near the entrances of their respective dens (Owen et al., 2011). These middens, composed of decomposing valves, create a type of slow-release fertilizer in shoreline ecosystems, providing a nutritional breeding ground for insect species and allowing for reproductive opportunities for terrestrial organisms (Vaughn, 2017).

Mussel assemblages produce nutrients for algae and phytoplankton communities by expelling nitrogen- and phosphorus-rich inorganic molecules as a result of catabolism as feces or pseudofeces (Nicklin & Balas, 2007; Vaughn et al., 2004). An influx of primary producers increases food resources for fish, insects, and other macroinvertebrates (Howard & Cuffey, 2006), sustaining increased species diversity throughout the entire aquatic ecosystem (Vaughn et al., 2004). Aquatic systems boasting higher numbers of unionid mussels often contain higher levels of bacteria and phytoplankton, as nutrients expelled from unionids create approximately 40% of the nutrient requirements for these microbes (Vaughn, 2017).

With such a variety of ecosystem services provided by unionids, decreases in abundance can be problematic for freshwater systems throughout the United States (Vaughn, 2017). Additionally, study of the reasons of decline can be difficult, as they often interoperate to create many multifaceted issues. However, the main contributors of unionid decline can be categorized as issues with impoundments, competition, and environmental pollution.

Impoundment and the Unionidae

Dams throughout the United States have been constructed for hundreds of years for a variety of social and economic reasons. Many communities receive their drinking water from reservoirs, and dams help mitigate flooding throughout areas downstream of rivers and large streams. Moreover, many communities and businesses receive power from hydroelectric plants. Although beneficial to human populations in the short-term, the changes made to these watersheds can be catastrophic to native mussel fauna.

The number of dams throughout the watersheds of the United States is estimated at approximately 80,000, although this estimate only includes dams taller than 7 meters (U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 2005). The impact of smaller dams on river health is more difficult to assess, as approximately 90% of these dams are privately owned or are found in water with little access (Singer & Gangloff, 2011). Throughout North America, it is estimated that as few as 40 rivers remain without any man-made dams or impoundments (Benke, 1990).

When dams are constructed, a lacustrine environment is created where water was previously free-flowing. Most species acclimated to flowing water are unable to survive in the greatly stilled water created by dams. If mortality does not occur from the sudden change in flow dynamics, populations in impounded areas become affected by the increased prominence of suspended solids in the water column. For most species of unionid mussels, inpoundments are detrimental to metabolic rates and interfere with their ability to filter feed properly (Watters, 1996), as the lacustrine environment changes planktonic food supply and may clog incurrent and excurrent siphons (Sethi et al., 2004). Increased sedimentation hinders recruitment of shell components, especially calcium carbonate (Vaughn & Taylor, 1999), and Unionidae to have more difficulty successfully secreting and maintaining shell layers.

Fish assemblages also struggle to be sustained in the transformation between lotic and lacustrine systems. Unionid mussels rely on host fish to successfully complete their life cycle, and therefore the fitness of fish populations is paramount. The presence of host fish within a watershed can account for approximately 44% of the variation in unionid mussel

assemblages of the same area when environmental variables are similar (Schwalb et al., 2013).

Many species of freshwater fish are disappearing at a rate almost as alarming as the Unionidae: Recent reports estimate that approximately 39% of freshwater fish species known in North America are currently in serious decline or extinct (Jelks et al., 2008). Almost 75% of North American freshwater fish decline may be caused by physically altering habitat (Richter et al., 1997). When dams are erected, fish must reside within the geographical boundaries created by these impoundments, often restricting access to suitable habitat for spawning and decreasing interaction with unionids (Watters, 1996).

Dams also create numerous alterations to the hydrology within mussel habitat. Water collected behind dams reduces the prevalence of the Unionidae to the shallow water ecosystems to which many are accustomed (Watters, 1996). Shallow water habitat is necessary for the phytoplankton, a primary food source for most species of Unionidae (Ricciardi et al., 1998).

Areas downstream of dams display profound and unpredictable increases or decreases in water temperature of up to 5 degrees Celsius (Singer & Gangloff, 2011), the effects of which can be observed up to 25 miles downstream of even small dams (Maheu et al., 2016). Flux in water temperature often stresses the thermal tolerance limits (TRLs) of both unionid mussels and their corresponding host fish (Singer & Gangloff, 2011). When the TRLs of these animals are stressed at the irregular intervals associated with dam regulation, especially dams that impart a cold hypolimnetic release, common to many reservoir dams, mussel populations may become sterile in downstream areas. Moreover, larger adults may survive for years, masking species decline (Maheu et al., 2016).

Dams concurrently diminish the ability of native mussel populations to remain contiguous and form larger communities, fragmenting larger assemblages. This discontinuous distribution creates increased levels of genetic homogenization and constricts the ability to recruit genetic diversity, contributing to inbreeding depression, although trouble rearing mussels in laboratory conditions has left gaps in the understanding of potential long-term consequences. What is understood, however, is that discontinuous unionid populations limits local adaptation, which is detrimental in combatting disease (Watters, 1996).

Studies previously completed on dams and the Unionidae suggest that an association between dam size and the health of the overall Unionid population: the larger the dam, the more adverse the effects (Gangloff et al., 2011). With the severe and varied complications dams create for freshwater biota, it is imperative to most wildlife management teams to restore freshwater systems to natural conditions (Watters, 1996). Though admirable in purpose, dam removals create complex and interrelated issues of their own.

Short-Term Issues of Dam Removal

When dams are removed, substantial amounts of sediment are released from behind the impoundment, lowering water levels considerably throughout the area. When this occurs often, extant mussel assemblages are exposed to air, and desiccation can occur. Even if desiccation is avoided, populations are exposed to elevated water temperatures and flux in dissolved oxygen levels (Maheu et al., 2016). Mortality rates as high as 95% have been observed in watersheds after dams are removed (Cope et al., 2003).

Dam removal may also inadvertently pollute the watershed (Doyle et al., 2003). One famous example of this phenomenon was the Edwards Dam on the Hudson River. When this dam was removed in 1973, substantial amounts of pollutants, including oil runoff and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), filled the downstream areas after release from the polluted reservoir and devastated faunal breeding grounds. The increase in sedimentation also altered flow patterns, and the now heavily polluted water was unable to freely flow down the river, causing large patches of toxic still-water. It was not until the Edwards community instituted a costly clean-up effort that the problem was mitigated (Doyle et al., 2003).

Supersaturation of the oxygen in water is another problem for the Unionidae and host fish (Doyle et al., 2003). The sudden increase in pressure and velocity directly following dam removal increases dissolved oxygen levels, creating more dissolved oxygen $(2.100%)$ than the water can normally accommodate. Thus, dam removal increase chances for fish to contract gas-bubble disease, an acute condition that can occur rapidly when fish filter supersaturated water through their gills. The increased oxygen leaves the bloodstream, creating bubbles around the gills, eyes and swim bladder (Rodeles et al., 2017), which is can be fatal for fish in a short time (Rodeles et al., 2017) and detrimental to unionid reproduction (Tuckerman, 2006).

Long-Term Issues of Dam Removal

Long-term effects of dam removal are far less understood than short-term effects, for which monitoring is often mandated as part of many restoration projects (Bednarek $\&$ Hart, 2005; Foley et al., 2017). Changes in river flow regime are the best understood consequences of dam removal. After several weeks, regulation of water flow rates is often less dynamic than in impounded watersheds (Bednarek & Hart, 2005; Major et al., 2017). Without humans periodically releasing water downstream, the downstream biota are less subjected to damaging influxes of water and the release of suspended sediments as reservoir maintenance occurs (Doyle et al., 2003). In response to the less regulated water flow, downstream biota often become more abundant and diverse than are flora and fauna associated with impoundments, though recovery is often slow (Bednarek & Hart, 2005).

However, not all effects of dam removal are positive. Various unionid mussels, such as *L. siliquoidea, L. fragilis*, and *L. complanata* species, were extirpated with the removal of a dam in the Illinois River in the early 1900s (Tiemann et al., 2016). It was not until the early 1980s that the discernible recovery of any invertebrate species was recorded within the Illinois River downstream from where the dam was removed (Sietman et al., 2001). Recovery of extirpated unionid populations are heavily influenced both by the availability of source populations after the flood event following impoundment removal and by proximity to high quality host fish (Sethi et al., 2004).

Interspecific Competition

Dreissena Polymorpha

Dreissena polymorpha, or zebra mussels, became a main competitor of the Unionidae in many lentic systems within the United States. Zebra mussels are small relative to unionid species, with average size not exceeding 50 mm (Schloesser et al., 1997). Zebra mussels, as well as another dressinid invader *Dreissena rostriformis bugensis*, or quagga mussel, were likely introduced from Northern Europe in the mid 1980s through contaminated shipping ballast (McMahon, 1996). Their numbers have since exploded through the freshwater systems of the United States. It is estimated that there are more than

200,000 dressinid mussels per square meter throughout the Great Lakes (Gillis & Mackie, 1994), and countless numbers of dressinid mussels now inhabit the waters of the Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois, and Hudson Rivers (McMahon, 1996).

Dreissena polymorpha and *D. rostriformis bugensis* share habitat preferences (Quinn et al., 2013) and compete directly with unionid mussels for nutrients in a variety of ways. Dressinid abundance depletes the water of nutrients available for unionid mussels, as dressinids are exponentially more abundant than unionids (Mackie & Schloesser, 1996). Secondly, juvenile dressinids grow easily on the hard substrate of adult unionids and drastically interfere with the ability of the unionids to obtain nutrients from the water (Schloesser et al., 1997). *Dreissena polymorpha* and *D. bugensis* outcompete all species of unionid mussels throughout the United States (Ricciardi et al., 1998), especially within large rivers like the Ohio, Mississippi, and Illinois and within all Great Lakes (Dzierżyńska‐Białończyk et al., 2018; Schloesser et al., 1997).

Zebra and quagga mussels attach themselves near the incurrent and excurrent siphons of the unionids using thread-like structures referred to as byssal threads; sometimes these dressinids number in the thousands. One study counted over 10,000 zebra mussels attached to one unionid host (Gillis & Mackie, 1994). Once attached, the byssal threads of attached dressinids act like anchors, which makes it very difficult for unionid mussels to detach themselves from these parasites (Dzierżyńska‐Białończyk et al., 2018). Zebra mussels then feed on the nutrients obtained near the siphons of the Unionidae. Zebra mussels that colonize a unionid often outweigh their host by an average of fourfold, though an eightfold increase in weight has been observed, especially earlier in the colonization period (Schloesser et al. 1997).

Quagga Mussels

Quagga mussels also parasitize unionids; however, parasitic activity is much less successful, as byssal threads within this species are often weaker and more brittle (Peyer et al., 2009), resulting in anchoring that is easily disrupted by the unionids. Byssal threads within quagga mussel species are also slower to attach and less rigid, creating a decreased number of successful anchoring events (Karatayev et al., 2014)

Unionid mussels that are parasitized often have physical abnormalities that affect their valves and interferes with the shell's ability to close completely (Schloesser et al., 1997; Strayer & Malcom, 2018). The inability to completely close their valves interferes with the burrowing capabilities of unionids, making it virtually impossible for unionids to find shelter when water conditions become unfavorable (McMahon, 1996; Strayer $\&$ Malcom, 2018).

Dressinid assemblages excrete large amounts of waste material (Mackie, 1991). The fecal matter of the abundant zebra mussel creates intolerable water conditions for endemic unionid mussel populations. Colonies of dressinids create such a poor benthic environment that unionid mussel assembleges often die of anoxia, a condition created when adequate oxygen is unable to reach tissue (Gillis & Mackie, 1994).

Successful invasion of *D. polymorpha* into the watersheds of North America is further explained by higher tolerance levels expressed within populations of zebra mussel. *D. polymorpha* can establish populations in a wider range of habitats than even the generalist species of the Unionidae, such as *P. grandis* and *L. siliquoidea*. Thermal tolerances of zebra mussels are often greater in range than those of unionid mussels. In laboratory conditions, *D. polymorpha* possesses thermal tolerances at an average of +/- 5°C

wider than generalist species of the Unionidae, including both *P.grandis* and *L. siliquoidea* (Mackie,1991; McMahon, 2015). This allows zebra mussels to grow and reproduce in a wider range of aquatic environments. Moreover, the thermal regime of *D. polymorpha* allows zebra mussels to continue to filter water and reproduce even when environmental cues suppress those behaviors within the Unionidae (Gillis & Mackie, 1994). As their large populations filter water indiscriminately, irrespective of temperature cues, *D. polymorpha* exhibit higher tolerances to environmental stressors, such as pollutants and heavy metal toxicity, than do their unionid counterparts (Ricciardi et al., 1998).

Calcium, necessary for shell growth and fortification, is required in far lower quantities in *D. polymorpha* (approximately 40 mg/L) than is required by most unionid mussels (approximately 50 mg/L; Gillis & Mackie, 1994). As anthropogenic remediation efforts mitigate centuries of pollution, calcium levels within the Great Lakes have decreased from approximately 60 mg/L to 35.7 mg/L within Lake Erie and 39.9 mg/L in Lake Ontario (Cohen & Weinstein, 2001). As calcium levels are anticipated to decline further, the discrepancy in calcium requirements between unionids and zebra mussels may become increasingly important.

Anthropogenic disturbances, such as damming, also do not limit dressinid populations, as these species thrive in slow moving water. Moreover, unlike unionid mussels, they do not require host fish to complete their metamorphoses from larvae to adulthood, instead relying primarily on water current and boat movement for dispersal, provided currents are slow-moving (Ricciardi, 1998). It is estimated that, once zebra mussels invade a unionid habitat, the population of unionid mussels is extirpated within 4-8 years (Ricciardi, 1998). Moreover, it is believed that the introduction of zebra mussels into

the home range of endemic unionid mussels increases the likelihood of native mussel extinction tenfold (Ricciardi et al., 1998).

Asian Clams

 In addition to *D. polymorpha*, native Unionidae must also compete with another bivalve invader, the Asian clam, *Corbicula fluminea*. Smaller than most native unionids, they do not typically exceed 50 mm and are brown and yellow in color (Pigneur et al., 2014). Introduced to the Western United States from Asia as a food source in the mid 1930s (Pigneur et al., 2014), Asian clam populations spread easily and have been found throughout the United States.

Corbicula fluminea is hermaphroditic, and one individual can create populations over 100,000 individuals in one year (USGS, 2005). This productivity allows rapid colonization of a variety of watersheds, and *C. fluminea* can thus overtake unionid mussel populations in much the same way as dressinid mussels. Asian clam populations are so numerous that they can often exceed 10,000 individuals per square meter (Pigneur et al., 2014). This population density is catastrophic for native mussel fauna, as unionids are unable to sequester nutrients or filter effectively as *C. fluminea* (French & Schloesser, 1996). According to laboratory studies, each Asian clam can filter as much as 1370 ml/hr/individual compared to a filtration rate of approximately 490 ml/hr/individual for unionids (Lauritsen, 1986)

Unlike *D. polymorpha* and the Unionidae, however, *C. fluminea* is considerably less tolerant of environmental variability. Colonies of Asian clams are prone to massive extirpation events (Scheller, 1997) when shifts in temperature or pH occur (Pigneur et al., 2014). Mortality rates for both the Unionidae and Asian clam are positively correlated with

the density of Asian clams within a watershed. As *C. fluminea* decompose, ammonia levels within the freshwater system increase (Scheller, 1997). As ammonia levels increase, dissolved oxygen levels decrease, creating an ever more anoxic environment for extant unionid populations (Scheller, 1997).

Environmental Pollution and Unionid Decline

Dissolved oxygen, pollutants such as ammonia, and heavy metal toxicity comprise another set of interrelated environmental stressors placed on the Unionidae, as communities in freshwater systems located within industrial, commercial, or agricultural lands experience higher levels of exposure to environmental contaminants (Nickel et al., 2019). These types of land usage introduce many pollutants into the water column and sediment through runoff and waste materials (Nickel et al., 2019; Villella et al., 2004). Increases in sedimentation often occur in these areas, which lead to an increase in the amounts of sediment and contaminants within the substrate (Diamond et al., 2002; Prochazka et al., 2017). Sedimentation influx from industrial and agricultural endeavors also may make the sediment less porous for unionids, creating difficulty for burrowing and movement as the sediment becomes increasingly harder to manipulate (Sparks & Strayer, 1998). Fertilizers also can destroy mussel populations.

Often, mussel assemblages located within highly developed land experience habitat destruction. According to Diamond et al. (2002) and Nobles and Zhang (2011), anthropogenic disturbance is positively associated with levels of hydrologic regime alteration. Additionally, there is a positive correlation between increased incidences of shoreline disturbances and degradation and unionid decline (Diamond et al., 2002), which complicates unionid survival. In addition to the impact of thermal pollution on unionid

assemblages, mussels are affected by inhabitation near pollution sources. Proximity to pollution sources is paramount, as mussel assemblages located downstream from point source pollution experience more acute symptoms of pollution toxicity than do mussel assemblages located farther from point source pollution (Naimo, 1995). Unionids proximal to this pollution experience increased mortality as nutrient inputs, turbidity, and water levels are consistently in flux and as water temperatures consistently exceed most naturally occurring regime cycles (Villella et al., 2004).

Commercial and industrial entities greatly affect water temperature, causing a phenomenon known as thermal pollution. Most thermal pollution is caused by an extreme rise in temperatures at the point of industrial or commercial discharge (Bobat, 2015). This substantial increase in temperature affects levels of dissolved oxygen within the water as well as above normal growth of algal blooms and harmful bacterial colonies (Vaughn $\&$ Taylor, 1999). Moreover, temperature can compound the effects of the above environmental stressors, as an increase in temperature often corresponds with a more potent variation of most pollutants (Vaughn, 1999). The impact of these exposures on unionid mussels increases drastically with elevated water temperature and lower water levels (Viarengo & Canesi, 1991).

Dissolved Oxygen and Anoxia

Levels of dissolved oxygen are vital for mussel health. Lower levels affect larval and juvenile mussels most severely, ceasing recruitment (Sparks & Strayer, 1998). In adults, short-term exposure to anoxic environments slows growth rates and metabolic functions, causing various health and growth issues; exposure in excess of a few weeks and will often lead to death (United States Environmental Protection Agency [EPA], 2003).

Young mussels can tolerate anoxic conditions for only short periods of time and will perish in a few days if conditions persist (Vaughn & Taylor, 1999).

Behavioral changes prior to death have been observed in juvenile unionids in anoxic conditions, including opening of the valves and extension of the incurrent and excurrent siphons, making juveniles even more susceptible to predation and pollution in such conditions (Sparks & Strayer, 1998). Moreover, as habitat becomes anoxic, host fish species will avoid the area in which the affected mussel assemblage is located, making dispersal of glochidia impossible (Sparks & Strayer, 1998).

In 2000, the EPA reported that, although the levels of dissolved oxygen have risen to adequate levels (approximately 5-6 mg/L) within most freshwater systems in the previous decade, dissolved oxygen levels are still problematic around water treatment plants and in areas that experience low water flow (EPA, 2003). In addition to water treatment facilities, nitrogen and phosphorous found in fertilizers and other commercial chemicals can cause rapid growth of harmful algal blooms within the water, depleting oxygen and often creating anoxic conditions even in highly developed watersheds (Vaughn & Taylor, 1999).

Unionids and Ammonia

Exposure to ammonia, a nitrogenous byproduct of decomposition found most fertilizers and industrial chemicals, affects both young and adult unionids in varied ways (Newton, 2003). In laboratory experiments, ammonia sequestered in the mantle tissue of adult unionid mussel may register with concentrations as high as 127 µg NH3/L, levels lethal to adult mussels, like *P. grandis* and *L. siliquoidea*, after only a few days of exposure. Smaller concentrations of 93 µg NH3/L can be lethal to adult mussels after

prolonged exposure of approximately 10 days (USGS, 2005). While not fatal, a concentration of approximately 31 µg NH3/L may prevent unionids, especially juveniles, from growing or sequestering materials at (Augspurger et al., 2003).

Currently, all three of these measurements fall into current legally acceptable levels for ammonia concentrations within the freshwater systems of the United States: The EPA requires that ammonia concentrations remain between 2.0 mg/L and 3.0 mg/L during the months of May through October; between 5.0 mg/L and 7.5 mg/L in March, April, and November; and between 8 mg/L and 12 mg/L in December, January, and February to meet CWA standards. As such, protective efforts for unionid mussels are relatively ineffective (USGS, 2005).

Heavy Metal Toxicity

Heavy metals such as cadmium, copper, and mercury are found in both the water column and upper layers of sediment. The distributions of these materials cause unionid mussels to sequester high levels of heavy metals following prolonged low level exposure (Naimo, 1995). Different areas of unionid anatomy bioaccumulate and retain compounds at different rates, with most sequestration occurring in the gills, kidney, and mantle (Besada et al., 2011).

Each metal affects mussels differently, causing disruptions in growth, physiological functions such as filtration and reproduction, and behavior (Naimo, 1995). Toxicity varies by species, with smaller species being more affected, and by surroundings, as point source pollution and warmer climates create higher incidences of toxicity (Besada et al., 2011). Heavy metals create biophysical abnormalities of both shape and functionality in the major organ systems in addition to degradation of valve shape integrity (Watters et al., 2009).

Copper is known to stay suspended in the water column and lowers the critical thermal maximum of adult mussels 2° C in only two days at only 10 ppb. Quantities of copper at 25 ppb are lethal to adult mussels after prolonged or repeated exposure (Havlik & Marking, 1987). Copper is even more lethal for glochidia, as they are unable to sequester heavy metals within their tissue and have lower overall tolerance limits (Havlik & Marking, 1987). There is also at least circumstantial evidence that elevated copper levels within the water column and sediment create higher levels of susceptibility to disease in some mussel species by disrupting innate immunology (Parry & Pipe, 2004)

As a result of dam removal, competition, anthropogenic impact, and environmental pollution, the family Unionidae is experiencing decline throughout freshwater systems of the United States. These declines in abundance are illustrated by not only the rare or endangered species but also within even the populations of generalist mussels. With reduction in mussel assemblages,

Utilizing the Cuyahoga River in Northeast Ohio as a model to illustrate current Unionid health in small river systems, this project focused on the assemblage dynamics of the family Unionidae within this heritage river. Generalist species such as *Pyganadon grandis*, *Lampsilis siliquoidea,* and *Lasmigona complanata* were utilized to illustrate trends that threaten unionid species broadly while the state-endangered unionid, *Ligumia nasuta*, will reflect the decline witnessed within the specialist species. These mussels were selected, as they are common throughout numerous watersheds within the Central and Eastern United States and, although research is still emerging on what are causing catastrophic declines, comparisons can be made between conditions within the Cuyahoga River and impacts against these same mussels in other watersheds. Moreover, a more integrated

approach to explaining unionids' persistent decline will be examined utilizing multiple surveys of my own work, historical data on the unionid mussels of the Cuyahoga River, and other environmental reports from the Ohio Environmental Protection Agency (OEPA) and the Northeast Ohio Regional Sewer District (NEORSD).

The next chapter will provide information on the Cuyahoga River, as knowledge of the study site is imperative to understanding mussel decline within this watershed. Then, Chapter 3 will provide detailed information on the methodological approach of the study. Subsequently, Chapter 4 will provide the raw data collected during surveys, as well as brief descriptions of context. The final portion of this project will be dedicated to the significance of unionid mussel decline to the overall health of the Cuyahoga watershed, as well as ways to mitigate the loss of the ecosystem services provided by this imperiled faunal group.

CHAPTER II

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY SETTING

The Cuyahoga River is 161 km long and begins in Geauga County, Ohio, only 70 km east of Cleveland proper, where the mouth opens at Lake Erie. The river flows southwest, entering Portage County, until the upper mainstem terminates at Lake Rockwell. Below a dam, the Middle Cuyahoga River forms a U shape around Akron and proceeds westward through Summit County before turning northward in Cuyahoga County. The Middle portion of the river ends at a gorge located in Cuyahoga Falls. The Lower Cuyahoga River includes the portion that flows through the Cuyahoga Valley National Park and Cleveland Metroparks, and northward to downtown Cleveland (OEPA, 2017). A map of the river appears in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Upper, Middle, and Lower Zones of the Cuyahoga River

The Cuyahoga River contains a fall line at the gorge that completely separates two distinct historical faunal group. The Upper and Middle Cuyahoga have also become separated by Lake Rockwell, which forms a distinct barrier to dispersal. As such, the faunal communities of the Lower Cuyahoga River are thought to be largely introduced through Lake Erie, not the Middle section of the Cuyahoga (Tevesz et al., 2002).

Each section of the river has unique characteristics. Within each zone, the Cuyahoga River has differing flow dynamics, sediment composition, topography, and surrounding land usage. As such, the designations into Upper, Middle, and Lower Cuyahoga River are maintained here to simplify and explain phenomena unique to each part of the Cuyahoga River.

Observations on Hydrology and Substrates within the Cuyahoga Watershed

The headwaters of the river are found within the Upper portion of the Cuyahoga river and are composed of the Eastern and Western Branches. The East Branch of the

Upper Cuyahoga River is approximately 7.5 meters wide at most points and generally shallow in comparison to the other portions of the West Branch. This part of the Cuyahoga River is comprised primarily of sand, silt, and clay, creating a sturdier substrate than is found in the Western Branch. The Eastern Branch possesses large pockets of detritus and fallen sticks throughout the sediment, creating the most variable substrate within the Cuyahoga River.

The West Branch of the Upper Cuyahoga is, on average, 4.5 meters wide and mostly marshland and softer muddy substrate, as compared to other portions of the Upper Cuyahoga River (Huehner, 1985). Water depth varies between approximately 1 meter in the upper portions of the Upper Cuyahoga river to approximately 3 meters around Hiram, Ohio during normal flows (Olive, 1975). It is near Hiram, Ohio that the Eastern and Western Branches converge and the mainstem of Cuyahoga River officially begins.

The mainstem of the Upper Cuyahoga River deepens, and as flow increases, sand is replaced by a rocky, clay substrate except for some riffles that become more common within this stretch of river than upstream. Riffles here often boast aquatic vegetation in stable, but not compact, sand. The Middle Cuyahoga River is often slower moving than the mainstem of the Upper Cuyahoga, and though typically shallower, it is interspersed with stretches of relatively deep water. Agriculture and residential housing is more prevalent along the shoreline, as fields often replace much of the forest present in the Upper Cuyahoga River.

The Lower Cuyahoga, which widens as it traverses the Cuyahoga Valley, is both the slowest moving and the shallowest portion of the river outside of the East Branch of the Upper Cuyahoga River. Sediment is composed mostly of pebbles and rock with

intermittent sand bars. Aquatic vegetation is sparse when compared to the other portions of the Cuyahoga and is found primarily within the stretches of sand located among the rocky bottom (Watters, 1999).

Water Quality in Cuyahoga River

The OEPA, in conjunction with the NEORSD, has monitored the Cuyahoga River watershed since the implementation of the Clean Water Act in 1977, as it was this burning river that thrust the need for cleaner water criteria into national attention (EPA, 2017). In 2000, the OEPA surveyed over 100 sites along the Cuyahoga River for water quality, including chemical, physical, and biological integrity within the watershed. In 2000, the OEPA reported, for the first time in its history, that most (> 95%) of the Cuyahoga River and its tributaries exceeded established water quality standards.

In studies completed in the upper portion of the Cuyahoga River, water conditions indicate slightly alkaline conditions, with an average pH of approximately 7.2 to 7.5 (EPA, 2017). This slight alkalinity is attributed primarily to forest runoff and sedimentation from shoreline habitat (Olive, 1975). As the shoreline possesses dense vegetation, decomposition rates of organic matter are higher than in other portions of the Cuyahoga (OEPA, 1999). In response to greater decomposition, ammonia levels within this portion of river are elevated, with average levels of approximately 0.9 to 2.1 mg/L (EPA, 2017). Within the same stretch of river, dissolved oxygen levels range from 10 to 14 mg/L (USGS, 2014).

Tributaries of the Cuyahoga River

There are approximately 26 tributaries known to contribute to the flow rate, water depth, and turbidity of the Cuyahoga River (Service et al., 2008). The largest, Tinkers Creek, enters within the Lower Cuyahoga and is responsible for over one-third of the water deposition in this stretch of the river (See Appendix Table 1). Changes in water depth, turbidity, shoreline morphology, and sedimentation rates in rivers are all positively correlated with the size of the contributing tributary (Benda et al., 2004), with some hydrological effects such as sedimentation and flow rates observed up to 25 km downstream of the confluence (Mosley, 1985). Figure 2 provides identification of all major tributaries for the Cuyahoga River.

Figure 2

Labelled Tributaries of the Cuyahoga River Watershed

In addition to contributing to the hydrology of the Cuyahoga River, tributaries also impact river fauna. Tributaries are important introduction pathways of fauna into larger freshwater systems, as they create important dispersal avenues between watersheds (White, 2007). Many fish species will spawn in smaller streams that act as tributaries for larger rivers. Once juvenile fish mature, they enter larger freshwater systems through the confluence and disperse downstream (White, 2007).

As fish populations spawn and disperse, so do the invertebrate faunal communities (Clay et al., 2015). Although less correlation is observed between tributaries and direct dispersal of arthropod and mollusk phyla, tributaries aid in dispersal by increasing the amount of suitable habitat through nutrient inputs and oxygen recycling (Clay et al., 2015). Macroinvertebrate communities are able to disperse farther in watersheds containing tributaries than within systems without well-defined tributaries (Mosley, 1985).

Land Usage of the Cuyahoga River Watershed

The Upper Cuyahoga River has a long history of agricultural use, beginning with the settlement of European settlers in the late 18th century (Dubelko, 2015), flourishing in the nineteenth century, and persisting today (USGS, 2005). Because of this history, sedimentation is problematic. Increased erosion rates, common with farm land, leads to higher levels of particulates within the water column, especially following storm events (Diamond et al., 2002).

As agricultural processes became industrialized, more fertilizers and pesticides were applied to crops that leach into the soil. With increased runoff associated with long term agricultural use, elevated levels of phosphorus and nitrogen, common in commercial fertilizers, are introduced into the watershed (Diamond et al., 2002) creating an environment ideal for rapid bacterial and algal growth (Zeitler, 2001). This exponential growth depletes available oxygen within the water column, creating anoxic habitat unsuitable for many floral and faunal groups.

When assessed in the latter portion of the 1960s, the Upper Cuyahoga faced an even more challenging problem to river health than increased agricultural pollutants: the impoundments created by Lake Rockwell, LaDue, and East Branch reservoirs (Zeitler,
2001). These impoundments service the areas around the mainstem of the Cuyahoga, providing drinking water to almost 200,000 people (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). These reservoirs also reduce waterflow throughout this stretch of the river, which can reduce turbidity and dissolved oxygen in the water in downstream areas (Hornbach et al., 2014). Figure 3 below illustrates the differences in land usage amongst the three zones of the Cuyahoga River.

Figure 3

Land Usage in the Cuyahoga River Watershed (USGS, 2018)

Akron, Ohio, the fifth largest city in the state, flanks the Cuyahoga throughout the lower portions of the Upper Cuyahoga as well as much of the Middle Cuyahoga River.

Adjacent areas are part of the "Rust Belt" and possess a rich history of industry and heavy manufacturing (Teaford, 2017; Zeitler, 2001).

The development of the Rust Belt began in the middle of the 19th century. The area between Akron and Cleveland, Ohio was well known for the mining of copper and iron ore (Stradling & Stradling, 2008), from which waste materials were thrown indiscriminately into the middle and lower portions of the Cuyahoga River (Adler, 2002). These waste disposal practices created problems for residents who found the river polluted with foul odors and odd taste as early as the 1860s (Dubelko, 2015).

 As the 20th century began, mining endeavors in this portion of the watershed were replaced with steel and paper mills and rubber factories (Adler, 2002). Waste from these industries were also released into the Cuyahoga River, creating a consistent influx of heavy metals, such as lead and iron, into the water and polluting both the water column and the sediment. The severity of pollution led Cleveland to build water intake tunnels 5 km out into Lake Erie (Dubelko, 2015). Other problems arose in this portion of the river, as these industries created thermal pollution downstream of industrial complexes, leaching the river of available oxygen. Although much of the industrial pollution has since been regulated within the area, regions of the Cuyahoga River are still recovering from the long history of industrial use (Dubelko, 2015).

Impoundments of the Cuyahoga River

Each zone of the Cuyahoga has impoundments, either manmade or naturally occurring, that impact the flow rates and water dynamics of the river. However, the Upper and Middle Cuyahoga have been subject to significant damming in the past. Any addition of impoundments (Figure 4) can affect water temperature and depth and reduce the

heterogeneity of the river, which is important for unionid diversity (Maheu et al, 2016; Ries et al., 2016).

Figure 4

Impoundments of the Upper Cuyahoga River

Lake Rockwell

Lake Rockwell (41.1945, -81.3095) is the southernmost of the large impoundments. It is Lake Rockwell that creates the geographic barrier that defines the Upper Cuyahoga River. Completed in 1915, this large impoundment is not only the oldest of the three major reservoirs of the upper river (Ohio Department of Natural Resources [ODNR], 2017) but also the most protected. Lake Rockwell is Akron's primary source of drinking water; thus, access to the public is strictly prohibited, as are recreational activities including fishing (City of Akron, 2016).

East Branch Reservoir

Completed in 1939, the East Branch Reservoir is the northernmost impoundment. Located in Geauga County, Ohio between OH-608 and OH-322, (41.3980, -73.5813), this reservoir is a secondary reservoir for the city of Akron, Ohio (ODNR, 2017). At 402 acres in size and at a maximum depth of 18 feet, the East Branch Reservoir regulates water flow through the Eastern Branch and the Cuyahoga River through cold water releases (ODNR, 2017).

LaDue Reservoir

LaDue Reservoir, completed in 1963, is located south of the East Branch Reservoir in lower Geauga County, Ohio (41.3960,-81.1940; ODNR, 2017). LaDue Reservoir was created by damming Black Brook and Bridge Creek (City of Akron, 2016). Much like the East Branch Reservoir, this impoundment supplies water to Akron and contributes to water flow regulation of the Cuyahoga River (ODNR, 2017).

Impoundments of the Middle Cuyahoga River

Below Lake Rockwell runs the Middle Cuyahoga River (ODNR, 2017). When compared to the Upper Cuyahoga River, the Middle Cuyahoga boasts a more free-flowing naturally occurring watershed. However, this has not always been the case: Over the past 15 years, county and state officials associated with Summit, Portage, and Stark Counties removed four of six dams (Figure 5) that once heavily impacted the river (Appendices 2, 3, and 4; Mann et al., 2013).

Figure 5

Impoundments of the Middle Cuyahoga River

Although the Kent, Monroe Falls, Sheraton, and LeFevre Dams have been removed within the Middle Cuyahoga River, two extant dams remain. These two dams are the Rockwell and Gorge Dams. Rockwell Dam remains responsible for providing continuity in river flow within the middle stretch of the Cuyahoga (OEPA, 2000), releasing water as necessary during the summer months each year when water levels are typically at their lowest (OEPA, 2001).

The second impoundment is the Gorge Dam (41.0723, -81.2950). Built in 1912, the Gorge Dam stands 18 m tall. This dam was used primarily to power and provide cooling to an adjacent coal burning power plant (OEPA, 2001). Summit Metro Parks is currently looking to remove this dam to finish the restoration of naturally occurring water patterns

within the Cuyahoga River; however, this dam will be more difficult to remove, as it is built amongst a large system of naturally occurring waterfalls (ODNR, 2017). This dam removal could cost upwards of 70 million dollars, more than the previous four dam removals combined (ODNR, 2017).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

As the purpose of this study was to survey the entirety of the Cuyahoga River in order to update records on unionid abundance and diversity, each section of the river was surveyed in different field seasons. The Upper Cuyahoga River was surveyed both in 2012 and 2016. The Middle Cuyahoga River was surveyed in 2015, and the Lower Cuyahoga River, represented by the expansive stretch of river throughout Cuyahoga Valley National Park (CVNP), was surveyed in 2016.

All surveys within the Cuyahoga River were completed in a similar manner. Surveys at each site were accomplished by two researchers for one hour and included primarily visual and tactile surveys of the benthos. When water levels were low, as at most field sites, hands and feet were used to locate unionid mussels. When water was deeper but still traversable (> 1 meter), mussel rakes were used to dredge the sediment and locate mussel populations. Boats were also used as portable field stations in deeper water. Live mussels were measured, identified, and summarily returned to suitable habitat. Valves were collected by site and were catalogued in the lab after proper cleaning, and length was measured.

In addition to tactile surveys, shoreline surveys were completed to establish the presence of mussel fauna, both live animals and valves. These shoreline surveys were also employed to ascertain possible sites of point source pollution and to record issues with embankments. Surveyors were instructed to indicate evidence of shell middens in field notes. Water quality conditions were assessed using data from both the USGS and OEPA.

Shell size of the four most abundant mussel species within the Upper Cuyahoga were analyzed after both the 2012 and 2016 surveys. Variance within shell size was compared within each species to ascertain the presence of any generational differences and indicate reproductive events, as larger variance would indicate the presence of young and mature individuals. If variance were low amongst valves, it could indicate that individuals are roughly the same age, and thus multiple reproduction events have probably not occurred (Begley & Krebs, 2017).

Site Selection

The first consideration in site selection was shoreline access, both pedestrian and boat, when necessary. In addition, the various parks associated with each county played a critical role in survey decisions. Survey sites were included within both the Middle and Lower Cuyahoga River summited by and for Summit County and the surveys aided the CVNP to attain clearance for upcoming dam removal projects.

 In 2012, 23 survey sites in the Upper Cuyahoga were selected based on the previous surveys of the same area completed by Martin K. Huehner (1985) and Michael Hoggarth (1990; Appendix B) and was funded by the Geauga Park Service. These sites were assessed for two main reasons. First, there was an extant record of these sites being

suitable habitat for unionid mussels, which allows for an assessment of change in unionid survival. Second, when resurveyed in 2016, these sites would allow for a more accurate comparison of fluctuations in population abundance and species richness over the past 30 years. Updated information on unionid abundance and species richness could indicate whether water remediation efforts have been effective in stabilizing mussel communities since the mid 1980s. A table of sites selected for surveys can be found in Appendix A.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Middle Cuyahoga River

In 2015, 20 sites were selected for the survey of Middle Cuyahoga River. Given the absence of historical data on unionid mussel populations anywhere in the middle portion of the river, sites were selected at regular distances to ensure adequate sampling. Sites were also selected by the ability to establish clearly defined and easily accessible sites for future surveys of unionid mussel populations. Sites near Camp Hi, upstream of the Middle Cuyahoga, were also revisited during the 2015 survey to ensure that all parts of the river were surveyed and to establish congruence enabling comparison with data collected in 2012 (Appendix A). Live individuals were counted, as were valves. Results of the Middle Cuyahoga River survey are detailed in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6

Live Individuals and Valves of the Middle Cuyahoga River (2015)

The survey of the Middle Cuyahoga yielded 37 live individuals found from Lake Rockwell to the gorge in Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio, and unionid abundances were low throughout the majority of the survey. Only four species were represented throughout the Middle Cuyahoga River: *L. siliquoidea*, *L. nasuta*, and *P. grandis*. The most represented species was *L. siliquoidea*, with 28 (76%) of the individuals found belonging to this species. Six *P. grandis* representing 16% of the abundance and three *L. nasuta* were located, comprising the remaining 8% of mussels found.

Valves collected throughout this survey were numerous in comparison to live individuals, with 476 collected. In addition to being more abundant, valves collected throughout the Middle Cuyahoga illustrated greater diversity than did live individuals. Valves collected from Lake Rockwell to the Gorge were from eight species. Although diversity was higher amongst valves, the majority of these were from three species: *P. grandis*, *L. siliquoidea*, and *L. nasuta*.

Most (*n* = 225) of the valves were of *P. grandis*. This result may be explained by the sudden removal of four impoundments, which are known to cause regional extirpation as river conditions change from still water to free flowing. Similar circumstances could explain the relatively high numbers of valves of *L. siliquoidea* (*n* = 128) and *L. nasuta* (*n* = 99). However, causes of population decline are difficult to establish with certainty as no prior historical records of mussel health in this area exist.

Lower Cuyahoga River

As a survey for unionid mussel populations was desired by the CVNP prior to dam removal, sites of interest in the Lower Cuyahoga River pertained primarily to areas impacted by the dam. Other sites were set equal distance from one another beginning in the southern portions of the park and ending in the northern part of the CVNP. Sites were also selected considering access availability and to avoid a nest full of newly hatched bald eagles, *Haliaeetus leucocephalus* (see Appendix A).

One live *L. complanata* was discovered above the dam near Vaughn Road. This mussel was the first live mussel found in the region. This *L.complanata* was fully exposed and appeared unable to keep valves together, as the left valve would separate almost entirely from the right. Thus, the specimen exhibited greatly diminished health and was mistaken as fresh dead when first uncovered.

Within the Lower Cuyahoga River, the eight valves found represented three species*: L. complanata*, *F. flava*, and *L. siliquoidea*. The majority of valve were that of *L. complananta*, which comprised approximately 63% of valves found within the Lower Cuyahoga. Both *F. flava* and *L. siliquoidea* were located with one valve per species. No valves recovered were recently dead and all appeared to be subfossils, as the

periostracum was highly degraded. As such, they offer poor indication of historic populations relevant to river health and provide little or no information as to where, or even when, these animals lived.

Upper Cuyahoga River

I surveyed the Upper Cuyahoga River twice, in 2012 and 2016. As stated previously, the sites selected for survey were established by a previous survey completed by Hoggarth (1990; Appendix B). As with the other surveys, live unionid mussels were counted and replaced in the river. Valves were collected, catalogued, and measured for variance. The number of live unionids and valves are displayed below in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Note. No *A. ferussacianus* or *L. compressa* were found in either the 2012 or 2016 survey of the Upper Cuyahoga River. Exact numbers of live specimens and valves are listed in the Appendix.

Data indicate an approximate 1:1 ratio between live individuals and valves found, representing eight species. Most live specimens of Unionidae were found within the mainstem of the Upper Cuyahoga, with 56% of live individual abundance and seven out of the eight species represented. As the survey progressed farther upstream, both species diversity and abundance decreased. The West Branch of the Cuyahoga had three times the abundance of Unionidae as did the East Branch; however, it should be noted that only three of eight species were represented. The lowest abundance was present in the Eastern Branch, representing approximately 11% of the live specimens found; however, five of the eight species were found here. *P. grandis and L. complanata,* Giant Floater and White Heelsplitter, respectively, comprised the majority of live unionid mussels surveyed in the Upper Cuyahoga River watershed—approximately 62% of all live animals found. The other six species found were in lesser abundance with greater relative distances between discrete populations.

Valves located in the upper portion of the Cuyahoga indicate an opposite pattern when compared to live individuals found in the survey of the same areas. Most shells were collected within the Eastern and Western Branches of the Cuyahoga River, with the Western Branch containing the majority of valves, approximately 67%. The Eastern Branch represents approximately 18% of valves collected, and 16% of valves collected were located in the Main Branch of the Upper Cuyahoga River. Approximately 78% of valves collected in the Upper Cuyahoga River belonged to two species, *P. grandis* and *L. complanata*, mimicking the same pattern of abundance seen in the live individuals.

In 2016, sites of the Upper Cuyahoga were reexamined to gather comparative data for unionid health present then and at the time of the 2012 survey. Live individuals $(n =$

111) were located, signifying a 71% reduction in abundance from 2012 and a 76% abundance decline since Hoggarth's 1990 survey (Appendix B). The results also suggest that three unionid species are at risk for extirpation from the Upper Cuyahoga River: *A. ferussacianus*, *U. imbecillis*, and *T. parvum,* the latter two species being located during the 2012 survey. Common mussels, such as *P. grandis* and *L. complanate*, were noticeably sparse in number, while *L. siliquoidea* was absent from the historic habitat.

The mainstem of the Upper Cuyahoga contained 63 live individuals representing five species: *L. siliquoidea, L. complanata L. nasuta, P. grandis*, and *S. undulatus.* The Eastern pondmussel was noticeably harder to locate, with numbers drastically reduced when compared to the 2012 survey. When sites which previously had high abundances were re-examined, only one site near Hiram, OH contained any live *L. nasuta*.

In the West Branch, 47 live individuals were located, with the same three species represented in the 2012 survey: *L. siliquoidea, L. complanata,* and *P. grandis.* When the Eastern Branch was resurveyed, only one live *P. grandis* was located, representing the only live mussel found there. This discovery indicated the possible loss of four species within the Eastern Branch, as a population of 47 individuals had dwindled to one individual.

Variance of Valves within the Upper Cuyahoga (2012, 2016)

Valves from the Upper Cuyahoga were measured for size variation within species. Wider variation for valve length indicates some juvenile or younger individuals within the population. Then variance was compared between the surveys in 2012 and 2016 (Table 1).

Table 1

Species						Mean N Std Range Variance Min Max Kurtosis Skewness
		Error				
<i>L. complanata</i> 14 71 0.386 13.4 10.6 5.1 18.5 0.215 -0.915						
<i>P. grandis</i> 11.7 159 0.178 10.7 5.02					5.8 16.5 -0.582 0.061	
L.nasuta 11.4 43 0.204 7.1 1.8				8.2 15.3 1.71		0.074
L. siliquoidea 10.2 58 0.285 9.5 4.72 5.1 14.6 -0.162 0.101						

Variance of Valves found in the Upper Cuyahoga River

The greatest size variance of valves occurred within *L. complanata,* which suggests the presence of at least small populations of reproductively successful adults. Out of all the species analyzed, reproduction seems most probable within this group, as this species has had a rather recent introduction into the Cuyahoga. Additionally, *L. complanata* is the most pollution tolerant of the four species, meaning reproduction could be successful in this group when environmental conditions make it impossible in other unionid species.

The smallest amount of size variance was observed in *L. nasuta, L. nasuta* has maintained a diminished presence within the Upper Cuyahoga, making potential reproduction more difficult than in other species of unionid mussels within the same area. The Eastern pondmussel is also not as tolerant to pollution or temperature as are the other species examined. Even if adult *L. nasuta* continue to survive in the Upper Cuyahoga, it is unlikely that successful reproduction events are occurring.

The other species, *P.grandis* and *L. siliquoidea*, exhibited relatively low variability in valve length, making it improbable that these populations are having much reproductive success, especially as no young individuals were found alive. As these mussel species have always been abundant in the Upper Cuyahoga River, it is possible

that the variance displayed is partly because, throughout the longevity of this species, reproduction was successful and thus a few smaller valves were located. These valves were often long dead and present a picture of historic reproductive success. However, as no smaller fresh dead valves were located in either the 2012 or 2016 survey, the likelihood of present successful reproduction events is minimal.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Mussel diversity and abundance is higher at the top of the watershed, within the Upper Cuyahoga River. Then, both mussel diversity and abundance declines in surveys that progressed farther downstream. Until almost no mussel diversity or abundance is observed within the Lower Cuyahoga River.

Middle Cuyahoga River

All live animals $(n = 37)$ were found in deciduous forested areas, where canopy cover was at its densest (Hogya et al., 2016). The sites with the greatest mussel abundance were located near Kent, Ohio, and an abundance of live individuals was observed most often in eastern survey sites. As eastern sites are primarily associated with agricultural and forested areas, it follows that mussel communities would mimic those populations found in the Upper Cuyahoga River, which boasts the same land usage.

As the survey proceeded westward, abundance dwindled. Land usage shifts from agricultural and forested areas to urbanized and industrial areas towards Akron, Ohio. Live individuals were located in sites associated with higher levels of riparian zones. Areas with increased riparian zones tend to offer greater resistance against agricultural

and commercial pollution and sediment degradation due to the abundance of vegetation within these areas (Morris & Corkum, 1996). In studies of habitat near riparian zones in smaller rivers, it was not uncommon for habitat to be dominated by a few main generalist species, especially *P. grandis* and *L. siliquoidea* (Morris & Corkum, 1996). Most of this abundance is explained in the tolerance limits of these generalist species to larger temperature and ammonia fluctuations also associated with riparian zones (Schwalb et al., 2013).

Notably, live individuals were often found partially or completely exposed on the river bottom. This is unusual for these species, which will often bury themselves, exposing only the siphons needed to filter feed. Burial like this is demonstrated in order to increase protection from predation and in response to temperature and toxin fluctuations within the water column (Watters et al., 2009). Observed departure from burying behavior may be explained as avoidance of contaminants released into the sediment with the removal of the dams throughout the Middle Cuyahoga River, as contaminants behind the impoundments would now be released downstream in large quantities (Sethi et al., 2004).

The Middle Cuyahoga historically possessed a series of impoundments—six dams, each over 3 meters in height (Tuckerman, 2006) With the construction of these numerous impoundments, mussel communities would have become increasingly more lentic, as the lotic mussel communities decreased after the construction of the dams. As expected, valves located in the Middle Cuyahoga suggest a once-lotic community*.* Valves recovered within this survey indicates once present populations of *L. complanata* $(n = 1)$, L. compressa $(n = 5)$, L. costata $(n = 5)$, S. undulatus $(n = 6)$, and *U. imbecilis* $(n = 1)$

= 2)*,* all of which are lotic species*.* Although abundance of these mussels was low, finding these valves reinforces the notion that lotic communities once existed in the area. Finding these valves could indicate small historic populations. However, sedimentation from the removal of the impoundments decreased the probability of locating numerous specimens.

The removal of the dams would have decimated established lentic populations. This was evidenced by the high number of both *P. grandis* and *L. complanata* valves located throughout the survey. As so many valves were found of these lentic species, populations were likely well established prior to dam removals.

With the removal of several impoundments, the Middle Cuyahoga River has been greatly restored to natural flow regimes, with increased heterogeneity throughout. River heterogeneity includes pockets of greater temperature variability, flow rate fluctuations, and increased variation in water depth, which allows for varied habitat suitable for a larger number of overall taxa. All of these restored conditions also reestablish the potential for successful reproductive events, as most unionid mussel species use environmental temperature cues to release gametes into the water column (Lefevre $\&$ Curtis, 1910).

Lower Cuyahoga River

In a previous survey of unionid populations throughout the CVNP, no live mussels were reported north of the 82 dam (Smith et al., 2002); however, one white heelsplitter was located in 2016, albeit in poor condition. As locating a live mussel above the dam was unexpected, it was remains apparent that unionid recovery is very poor within the Lower Cuyahoga River.

Upper Cuyahoga River

Site selection for the survey of the Upper Cuyahoga in 2012 was influenced by Hoggarth's survey in 1995 (Appendix B), and similar unionid mussel abundance and species richness between the two surveys was expected. Results indicated that both species diversity and richness in 2012 were similar to those found in the 1995 survey. For this reason, species abundance and richness in the 2016 survey were also expected to be similar to the 1995 and 2012 surveys. However, this new survey revealed that unionid mussel abundance and diversity had collapsed throughout the Upper Cuyahoga River. The Unionidae became overwhelmingly represented by only a few species—*L. siliquoidea, L. complanata*, and *P. grandis*—and no immature individuals of any species were located. Without the location of smaller individuals, it is expected that unionid reproductive events are largely unsuccessful in the upper portion of the river. With loss expected to continue within the these populations, probable causes of decline and extirpation were examined in the context of small river systems.

Probable Causes of Unionid Decline in the Cuyahoga River

Water and sediment quality was within full to fair attainment within all sites sampled for water quality in the Upper Cuyahoga with the exception of two sites around US 322 (EPA, 2000) in the West Branch. Although most pollutants of both organic and inorganic origins have been found within acceptable limits of federal and state regulations, there remains some concern over whether these attainments are sufficient for unionid health (Duncan et al., 2007). Throughout numerous studies of watersheds, values within EPA guidelines are actually outside the tolerance limits for various species of mussels. For instance, it is possible for amounts of heavy metal contaminants such as

copper to be well within acceptable standards for the EPA but also far outside the tolerance limits for even a generalist species like *P. grandis*.

The gap that results may be troublesome for unionid health. For instance, from 2012 to 2014, copper levels in the Cuyahoga River exceeded *P. grandis* tolerance levels three times (USGS, 2014). Often, these values far exceed LC50 for adult *P. grandis* (15 to > 100 ug Cu/L; Wang et al., 2007). Adult mussels are not the only life stage affected by this level of copper in the water column, with an LC_{50} reported at approximately 7 to 86 ug Cu/L for glochidia and from 6.8 to 60 ug/L for juvenile mussels (Wang et al., 2007). Evidence suggests that exposure to copper levels lowers the LT₅₀ of juvenile *L*. *siliquoidea* by 2 ºC in approximately 48 hours of exposure (Wang et al., 2007). To complicate this issue, copper has a unique chemical property that makes it largely unreactive in water. These unreactive copper ions may stay in the water column for longer than other compounds and do not settle out into the sediment like most heavy metal toxins (Parry & Pipe, 2004). As the EPA criterion for copper concentration is an average of 23 ug Cu/L at a hardness of 170 mg/L (OEPA, 2012), attaining this standard has negligible effect on the survivorship of young mussels and still creates problems for adult populations.

Impoundments

Impoundments also create obstacles for dispersal of unionid populations in the Cuyahoga. With the three large impoundments—LaDue Reservoir, East Branch Reservoir and Lake Roswell—dispersal becomes extremely unlikely west of Lake Rockwell. Host fish communities cannot navigate these impoundments, creating segregated populations of mussels above and below Lake Rockwell. These

impoundments also have created a series of lentic environments in which species such as *P. grandis, L. nasuta*, and *U. imbecillis* survive while lotic species *like L. compressa, L. costata, S. undulates*, and *L. complanate*, which prefer quicker moving riffles and stronger currents, have reduced suitable habitat (Watters et al., 2009). The only exception is *L. siliquoidea*, which appear to survive equally as well in either type of environment. This fact may explain its abundance throughout the entirety of the upper and middle regions of the Cuyahoga River (Watters et al., 2009).

Ammonia

In addition, the persistence of these impoundments continues to keep levels of ammonia elevated, especially in the summer months when temperatures are highest. Ammonia levels are also highest in this stretch of the river, as much organic matter is in decay within the forested and agricultural land here. When observed in laboratory conditions, *P. grandis* had a 40% reduction in population size when ammonia was present at 5 ppm for 7 days, an LC_{50} is present at approximately 23 ppm in acute exposures (Havlik & Marking, 1987). Although levels of 23 ppm are unlikely in the Upper Cuyahoga River, levels of approximately 5 ppm can occur, as ammonia levels are chronically elevated downstream from the East Branch Reservoir due to periodic water releases (EPA, 2000).

Ammonia levels of approximately 5 mg/ml, created by the decomposition of animals after even moderate extirpation events, far exceed the LC_{50} of generalist unionid species such as *P. grandis*, one of the most common unionid mussels throughout the watersheds of the United States. These same ammonia levels are far more problematic for

glochidia, with mortality rates reaching almost 100% after only a few days of exposure (Scheller, 1997).

Dissolved oxygen levels, according to the EPA, must have a minimal concentration level of 4-5 ppm to maintain macroinvertebrate communities. When measuring oxygen concentrations in the Upper Cuyahoga River, the EPA recorded average levels of approximately 8.5 ppm within the mainstem of the river. However, closer to the impoundments, dissolved oxygen levels plummeted, with average levels of 4.8 ppm within the East Branch and 5.8 ppm in the Western Branch (EPA, 2000). These levels are associated with average levels and often dissolved oxygen levels fall below life sustaining levels.

Figure 8

Zebra Mussels Parasite L. Nasuta

Note. Photo by Nikko Hogya

Interspecific Competition

Other stressors of unionid health are evident throughout the entirety of the Cuyahoga River. Parasitic species, such as *Dreissena polymorpha* were discovered infesting the Unionidae immediately downstream of Lake Rockwell in the middle portion

of the river. Until documented within the 2015 survey, no previous evidence indicated *D. polymorpha* had successfully invaded this area. In addition to *D. polymorpha,* vast numbers of *Corbicula fluminea* valves were found scattered throughout the middle and lower portions of the Cuyahoga River. Although no live *C. fluminea* were recorded, this abundant valve cache indicates an abundant population that would have competed directly with the Unionidae, as well as increased competition pressure in lotic zones. Benthic sampling was not within the scope of this project, and further studies must be conducted to explore deeper into the sediment to confirm the existence of an extant population of *C. fluminea*.

Predation

An introduction event occurred in 1986, when 123 river otters were introduced from Louisiana and Arkansas into the watersheds of Northeast Ohio, including the Cuyahoga River (CVNP, 2017). Since then, otter populations have exploded, with river otters numbering in the hundreds. Popular within the CVNP, especially near Beaver Creek, river otters are spotted periodically during the surveys of the Lower Cuyahoga River. River otters were also spotted by our surveyors within the Middle Cuyahoga; however, sightings were not as common and occurred mostly in the western portion of the river.

In both 2012 and 2016, fishermen were questioned during surveys of the Upper Cuyahoga regarding the presence of river otters. According to the fishermen, encounters were common especially near Hiram, OH. When asked, many fishermen were irate with the otters' decimation of fish species and considered them a pest species. Although unionid numbers are too low to be a primary food source for otter populations, it is likely

that the influx of this megafauna could disrupt unionid and host fish interactions, creating more pressure on unionid mussel populations (Owen et al., 2011).

Implications of Unionid Disappearance in the Cuyahoga River

In the past, literature emphasized trying to save unionid populations through water remediation and habitat restoration; however, efforts have seemed to accomplish little to mitigate decline within the Cuyahoga River. As population numbers are low, it is unlikely that the Unionidae adequately perform the ecosystem services associated with this taxon.

Results from surveys also suggest that there are too few unionids to adequately filter toxins or pollutants from the water column or sediment. Larger individual unionids are capable of filtering approximately 12 liters of water per day (Vaughn et al., 2004). However, these estimates are based on laboratory experiments, and studies suggest laboratory conditions are far more ideal than actual river conditions for mussel productivity (Vaughn, 2017). Evidence suggests that filtration rates are positively correlated with mussel size—and more specifically gill size—instead of species type or abundance, which was previously suspected but unsupported (Vaughn, 2017).

Filtration rates by unionid assemblages in natural systems can be estimated at far less than 12 L per day (Vaughn, 2017), and mussel abundance is low. These compounding factors indicate that unionid populations within the Cuyahoga River have done little to improve water quality. It is more likely that anthropogenic river remediation efforts, not unionid water filtration, are the causal agent for greatly improved water quality in the river.

Moreover, regarding filtration rates, diversity loss may be of little consequence. Recently, officials have suggested restoring unionid diversity and abundance within the Cuyahoga River. However, as filtration rates are correlated with mussel size, data suggest there is no need to increase diversity to fulfill the unionids' role as an ecosystem engineer (OEPA, 2012).

 In addition to losing the role of ecosystem engineer within the Cuyahoga, unionid mussels are too small a population to be an advantageous prey source for any megafaunal groups, such as otters or muskrats, within the watershed (Owen et al., 2011). Moreover, there is at least anecdotal evidence to support that, in at least this watershed, mammalian predators have replaced bivalves with fish in their diet. It is hypothesized that this switch was made because fish species in the Cuyahoga are more abundant than unionids and slow swimming, making them easy prey sources (McDonald, 1989).

Implications for Future Reintroduction Efforts

Reintroduction or augmentation is the terminal goal of most remediation projects, especially in the recent past. In order to reintroduce native species, relevant personnel must first create suitable habitat to ensure the survivability of the reintroduced species. However, to correct the multitude of stressors to acceptable standards for unionid survival would require a great deal of collaborative effort amongst multiple federal, state, and local agencies. Moreover, the provision of suitable habitat for unionid reproductive success would be tremendously complex, requiring the monitoring of host fish populations and changes in water quality standards and water flow dynamics. To accomplish reintroduction would require the interdisciplinary collaboration and the compliance of numerous governmental agencies, including the EPA, OEPA, and metro

parks from Geauga, Summit, Portage, and Cuyahoga counties, as well as the Cuyahoga Valley National Park. Results from surveys indicate that, although water quality and flow heterogeneity have improved, unionid populations remain imperiled throughout the Cuyahoga River. While historic water conditions have been greatly restored, all three areas of the Cuyahoga River exhibit either a significant decline or lack of recovery in species diversity and abundance.

The Cuyahoga River has historically been habitat for a variety of rare or stateendangered mussels. Though small in number, these species, such as *L. nasuta,* were represented as recently as 2012, and numbers of live individuals were expected to remain low. The significant loss of individuals of generalist unionid mussel species was unexpected, especially in the Upper and Middle Cuyahoga watersheds, as water quality in these area is suitable for human consumption and recreation. With numerous environmental impact studies completed by the EPA and the NEORSD, all levels of heavy metals, dissolved oxygen, and ammonia are well within federal and state standards. However, the species of interest for this project—*P. grandis, L. complanata*, and *L. siliquoidea—*continue to decline.

 Estimates of mussel abundance indicate that current unionid populations are incapable of contributing much to ecosystem services, and the services that unionids typically provide to watersheds has been replaced by human remediation efforts. As human agency has restored many of the waterways within the United States to acceptable levels, it becomes indicative that, currently, their disappearance is far less impactful to the Cuyahoga River watershed than previously estimated. Moreover, with little indication that the Unionidae fulfill their role of the ecosystem engineers as observed in other, larger

watersheds such as the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, reintroduction efforts should be explored within the Cuyahoga River. With no evidence to suggest that reintroduction efforts would be effective, as the causal agent of Unionid decline remains unknown, consideration should be given to whether reintroduction of unionids is appropriate until a collaborative framework is viable.

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APPENDIX A. SITE SELECTION INFORMATION FOR CUYAHOGA RIVER

SURVEYS

APPENDIX B: RESULTS OF UPPER CUYAHOGA RIVER SURVEY COMPLETED

BY HOGGARTH (1990)

