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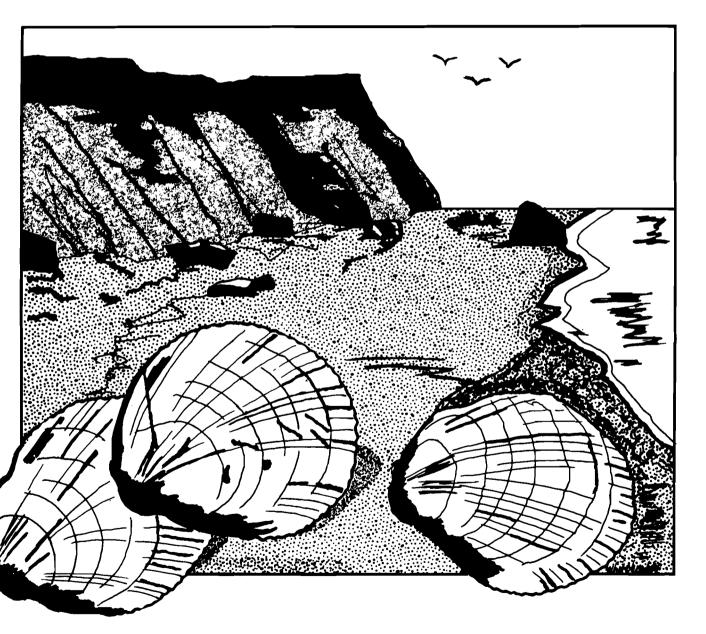
Biological Report 82(11.46) April 1986

National Wetlands Research Center 700 Cajun Dome Boulevard Lafayette, Louisiana 70506

TR EL-82-4

Species Profiles: Life Histories and Environmental Requirements of Coastal Fishes and Invertebrates (Pacific Southwest)

COMMON LITTLENECK CLAM



Fish and Wildlife Service

Coastal Ecology Group Waterways Experiment Station

U.S. Department of the Interior

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

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Species Profiles: Life Histories and Environmental Requirements of Coastal Fishes and Invertebrates (Pacific Southwest)

COMMON LITTLENECK CLAM

bу

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and

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PREFACE

This species profile is one of a series on coastal aquatic organisms, principally fish, of sport, commercial, or ecological importance. The profiles are designed to provide coastal managers, engineers, and biologists with a brief comprehensive sketch of the biological characteristics and environmental requirements of the species and to describe how populations of the species may be expected to react to environmental changes caused by coastal development. Each profile has sections on taxonomy, life history, ecological role, environmental requirements, and economic importance, if applicable. A three-ring binder is used for this series so that new profiles can be added as they are prepared. This project is jointly planned and financed by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

Suggestions or questions regarding this report should be directed to one of the following addresses.

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CONVERSION TABLE

Metric to U.S. Customary

<u>Multiply</u>	<u>By</u>	To Obtain			
millimeters (mm) centimeters (cm) meters (m) kilometers (km)	0.03937 0.3937 3.281 0.6214	inches inches feet miles			
square meters (m²) square kilometers (km²) hectares (ha)	10.76 0.3861 2.471	square feet square miles acres			
liters (1) cubic meters (m ³) cubic meters	0.2642 35.31 0.0008110	gallons cubic feet acre-feet			
milligrams (mg) grams (g) kilograms (kg) metric tons (t) metric tons kilocalories (kcal)	0.00003527 0.03527 2.205 2205.0 1.102 3.968	ounces ounces pounds pounds short tons British thermal units			
Celsius degrees	1.8(°C) + 32	Fahrenheit degrees			
U.S. Customary to Metric					
inches inches feet (ft) fathoms miles (mi) nautical miles (nmi)	25.40 2.54 0.3048 1.829 1.609 1.852	millimeters centimeters meters meters kilometers kilometers			
square feet (ft ²) acres square miles (mi ²)	0.0929 0.4047 2.590	square meters hectares square kilometers			
gallons (gal) cubic feet (ft ³) acre-feet	3.785 0.02831 1233.0	liters cubic meters cubic meters			
ounces (oz) pounds (1b) short tons (ton) British thermal units (Btu)	28.35 0.4536 0.9072	grams kilograms metric tons kilocalories			
	0.2520	Kilocatories			

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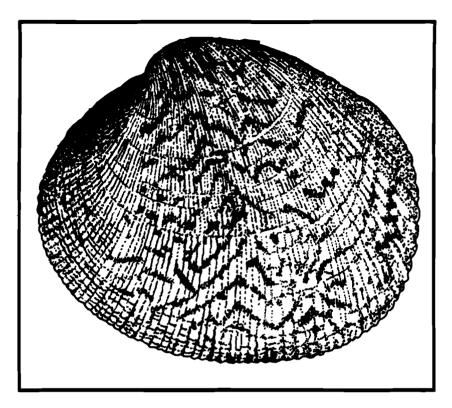


Figure 1. Common littleneck clam.

COMMON LITTLENECK CLAM

NOMENCLATURE/TAXONOMY/RANGE

Scientific name <u>Protothaca</u>
staminea (Conrad)
Preferred common name Common
littleneck clam (Figure 1)
Other common namesNative
littleneck clam, rock bay
cockle, hardshell clam, Tomales Bay
cockle, rock clam, ribbed carpet
shell, steamer
ClassPelecypoda
OrderVeneroida
FamilyVeneridae

Geographic range: Aleutian Islands, Alaska, south to Cape San Lucas, Baja California, Mexico; commercially abundant only north of Oregon. In California, the coastal waters near San Onofre, San Diego County (Figure 2), probably are the most productive area for clams in California (Frey 1971). Other concentrations are near Malibu Point and San Mateo Point south of San Clemente, California, and Bodega and Tomales Bays north of San Francisco. The clam is relatively scarce in northern California.

MORPHOLOGY/IDENTIFICATION AIDS

The following descriptions are extracted from Fitch (1953). The shell is oval and has inflated valves ornamented by well-defined, radiating ribs and less prominent, concentric ridges. Lunule (heart-shaped impression anterior to umbo) often is only faintly defined. The ventral margin is slightly crenulated. The pallial sinus (U-shaped indentation) extends

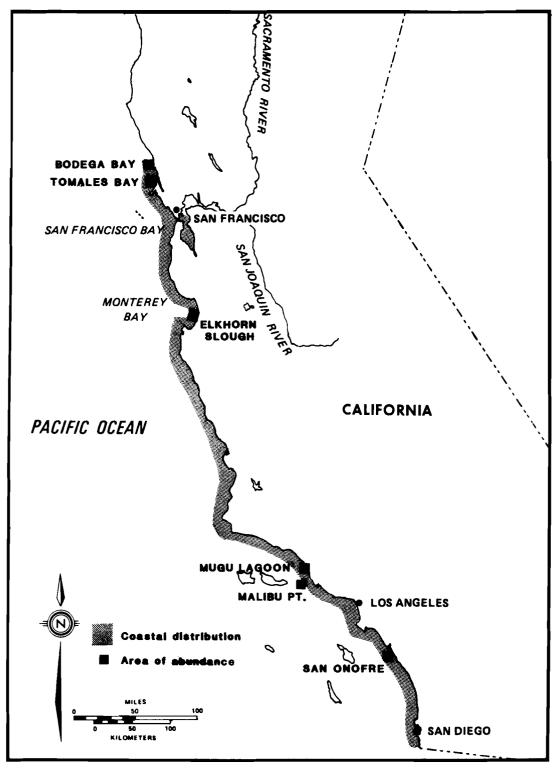


Figure 2. Distribution of the littleneck clam along the California coast. Greatest recorded abundance is at San Onofre, San Diego County (Frey 1971).

slightly more than half wav to anterior adductor muscle. Color is highly variable: yellowish grey or grey if in sloughs and bays; often whitish with geometric patterns of wavy brown lines or blotches on sides of specimens along the open coast. The clam attains a length of $6.4\ \mathrm{cm}.$ It differs from chione clams (Chione spp.) and Japanese littleneck clams (Tapes japonica) in having a pallial sinus extending more than half way to the anterior adductor muscle, and from (Protothaca rough-sided clam laciniata) and thin-shelled littleneck tenerrima) in radiating ribs more prominent than concentric ridges.

REASON FOR INCLUSION IN SERIES

The littleneck clam, relatively common in bays and estuaries and in cobble patches along the coast of California, supports an important sport shell fishery.

Because the littleneck clam lives in shallow bays with mud and sand bottoms, the habitat of this species in California is especially vulnerable to degradation because of harbor development, dredging, and pollution. For example, the waters of San Francisco Bay are so polluted in some areas that depuration is necessary before these and other clams can be eaten (Ritchie 1977).

The Japanese littleneck clam, apparently introduced with shipments of Pacific oyster seed, is rapidly replacing the common littleneck clam in San Francisco and Tomales Bays (Smith and Kato 1979; J.T. Carlston, William College, Mass., pers. comm.). A habitat suitability index model of the littleneck clam also has been prepared by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (Rodnick and Li 1983).

LIFE HISTORY

<u>Spawning</u>

sexes of the common littleneck clam are separate (Quayle 1943). The time of spawning varies throughout its range, depending largely on water temperature. studies in British Columbia report spawning in January (Fraser 1929) and in February and March (Fraser and Smith 1928). On Wood Island, British Columbia, the tubules of the ovary are follicular filled with cells December and January (Quayle 1943). The growth of gametes reaches a peak in March and spawning begins in April. Few spawn later than September. male spawning cycle parallels that of the female, but for unknown reasons lags behind that of the female by about 1 month. In British Columbia, most clams spawn in late spring but some may spawn off and on throughout the summer (Quayle and Bourne 1972).

In Alaska, spawning starts in mid-July when the water temperature is about 8°C (Glude 1978). In Prince William Sound, Alaska, spawning begins in late May to mid-June and continues into September (Nickerson 1977). In summer, water temperature fluctuations are unusually strong, so there may be two periods of high temperature and two corresponding spawning peaks. In a warmer than normal year, only one temperature and spawning peak may be expected.

Mugu Lagoon, California, In Peterson (1982) reported that June marks the beginning of the season of gamete release. He also observed that Protothaca's gonad weight sharply between June and December. indicating spawning between June and December. From studies conducted by (1982), Peterson and Quammen appears that initial setting may occur as early as mid-April.

During spawning, the eggs and sperm are discharged through the

siphon (Quayle and Bourne 1972) and mass fertilization takes place in the open water.

Eggs and Larval Stages

develop into The embryos trochophore larval stage (60-80 µm) about 12 h after fertilization (Quayle Bourne 1972). The veliger (straight-hinge stage) develops in the next 24 h. A ciliated velum develops and helps the larva swim and maintain itself in the upper part of the water column. Larvae feed on phytoplankton and are about 0.15 mm long after 1 The veligers develop an umbo week. (prodissoconch) and may reach a length of 0.26 to 0.28 mm in 2 weeks. Fraser (1929) found larvae up to 0.5 mm long British Columbia. Prior metamorphosis, the veligers develop a foot and an eye spot, move to the bottom, and search for a suitable surface on which to settle. Once a suitable surface is found, the larvae undergo metamorphosis and attach to surface by secreting byssal threads. Depending on food supply and temperature, the planktonic larval stage generally lasts about 3 weeks (Quayle and Bourne 1972).

The larval stage is a critical one and breeding success or failure is frequently determined at this time (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Larvae are at the mercy of currents and may be carried away from settling areas and perish.

Postlarvae and Recruitment

Postlarvae are epifaunal and mortality may be high (Paul and Feder 1973). After settlement, mortality is highest during or at the end of the first year (Schmidt and Warme 1969). Highest mortality is in the winter.

In Mugu Lagoon, California, clams that had set in mid-April in sand were 7.6 mm long by mid-June whereas those in mud were 8.3 mm long by mid-June (Peterson 1982). Unlike

the Washington clams, Saxidomus, which remain permanently at site of settlement, young littleneck clams can crawl, using their foot, to other areas.

The extent of annual recruitment littleneck clams varies greatly Peterson (1975) found between areas. hiahest Protothaca had the variance in numbers of all species collected in 10 sampling periods over a 3-year period, suggesting a high variability in recruitment. In sand, experimentally adult increased densities had no significant effect on recruitment, whereas in mud, hiah adult densities reduced recruitment up In Prince William Sound, to 60%. the clam's northern limit. recruitment was erratic and there was little recruitment from 1967 to 1971. probably due to poor spawning conditions (Paul and Feder 1973; Paul et al. 1976a).

Maturity and Life-Span

The only data on maturity are from north Pacific populations. Ladysmith Harbor, Woods Island. British Columbia, sexual differentiation was apparent when clams were 15 to 35 mm long or during their second or third year of life (Quayle 1943). Mature clams were usually 22 to 35 mm Prince William Sound, At Alaska, the youngest sexual mature clam was 3 years old and 13 mm long 1977). British In (Nickerson Columbia. Fraser and Smith found some mature 2-year-old clams: about one-half of the clams spawned for the first time at the end of the second year of life (25 mm long).

The life span of the littleneck clam varies among different locations. Their life span in years, their lengths, their location, and the authors are as follows: 13 years (62 mm), Porpoise Island, Alaska (Paul et al. 1976b); 10 years (54 to 63 mm), British Columbia, Canada (Frager and Smith 1928; Quayle and Bourne 1972);

16 years (42 to 50 mm), Olson Bay, Prince William Sound, Alaska (Paul et al. 1976a); 15 years, Galena Bay, Prince William Sound, Alaska (Paul and Feder 1973; Nickerson 1977); and 7 years, Mugu Lagoon, California (Schmidt and Warme 1969).

GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS

Some scientists believe littleneck clams can be accurately aged by counting the rings on the shell (see Figure 1). The rings are much closer together when growth slows the winter because ٥f low metabolism. Hughes and Clausen (1980), however, expressed caution about aging littleneck clams by shell rings. They observed excessive variation in ring patterns specimens in the same population from Newport Bay, Oregon. Fraser and Smith (1928)also reported that disturbance that interrupts growth can cause ring formation. Rings can be evaluated as an aging tool by marking the shell and then recovering the clams for examination at a later date (Paul and Feder 1973).

The growth of littleneck clams varies throughout its range. curves are available for clam populations from Alaska, British Columbia, and California (Figure 3) and for an experimental plot in Oregon (Figure In Prince William Sound, 4). Alaska, clams reach the marketable length of 30 mm in 8 years (Feder and Paul 1973; Paul and Feder 1973), but at Porpoise Island, southeast Alaska, clams reach this length in 4 to 5 years (Paul et al. 1976b). In waters near Sidney, British Columbia, the range of length of the clams for each year of life was as follows: year, 11-17 mm; 2nd year, 22-33 mm; 3rd year, 36-51 mm; 4th year, 37-51 mm; 5th year, 43-55 mm; 6th year, 44-57 mm; 7th year, 47-60 mm; 8th year, 49-61 mm; 9th year, 51-62 mm; and 10th year, 54-63 mm (Fraser and Smith 1928). The authors reported

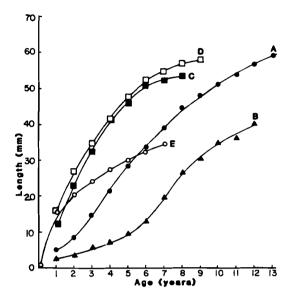


Figure 3. Ages and corresponding lengths shell. (mm) of the common littleneck clam from (A) Porpoise Island, southeast Alaska; (B) Galena Bay, Prince William Sound, Alaska; (C) Victoria, British Columbia, Canada (Paul et al. 1976b); (D) Strait of Columbia, Georgia, British (Quayle and Bourne 1972); and (E) Mugu Lagoon, California (Schmidt and Warme 1969).

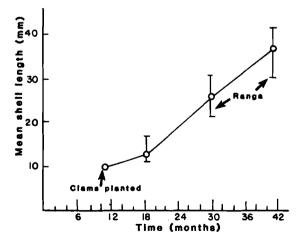


Figure 4. Growth curve of littleneck clams planted in an artificial substrate plot, Yaquina Bay, Oregon (Lukas 1973) over a period of 38 months (Sept. 30, 1970-April 12, 1973).

wide differences in growth rates among the years.

In Mugu Lagoon, California, the growth rate of littleneck clams was expericonsistently depressed at mentally induced high intraspecific densities. In mud the clam's linear growth declined more than in sand as density increased intraspecific In Alaska, clams at (Peterson 1982). the higher tide levels had the best At Kiket arowth (Nickerson 1977). Island, Washington, however, the best growth was near mean lower low water and less rapid at higher and lower tide levels. Growth was better on the north side of the island because of more stable water temperatures and salinities (Houghton 1977).

In British Columbia littleneck clams are 37 mm long in 3.5 to 4 years and 63 mm long in 10 years (Glude 1978). In the State of Washington, it takes 4 to 6 years for clams to reach commercial length (1.5 inches). Oregon, clams planted on artificial substrate (Figure 4) were 37 mm long months (Lukas 1973). 42 California, clams reach legal size (1.5 inches) in 2 years (Frey 1971), although in Mugu Lagoon (Figure 3) it appears to take up to 7 years to reach legal size.

COMMERCIAL AND SPORT FISHERIES

Littleneck clams are commercial importance only in British Columbia and Washington (Amos 1966). The U.S. catch on the west coast in 1963 produced 214,400 lb of meat worth In British Columbia, the \$107,194. annual commercial landings ranged from 21,300 to 521,900 lb in 1951-1969 (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Clams are either dug with long-tined rakes or with a hydraulic clam dredge. As many 2,500 clams per hour can be collected by a clam dredge in areas of high density (Nickerson 1977). clams are marketed fresh for steaming as far south as San Francisco.

California there commercial digging prior to World War II. but now most of the beds have been overexploited and only sport clamming is permitted. San Francisco Bay is the only large area in California with sufficient clam abundance to support a commercial fishery (Ritchie 1977), but because of pollution, all clams from San Francisco Bay would have to be depurated before sale. Because of daily catch limit of 50 clams, a commercial fishery is unlikely to develop. Littleneck clams are not harvested in Prince William Sound or elsewhere in Alaska as a consequence of paralytic shellfish poison of PSP (Anonymous Eating shellfish that have 1974). consumed large amounts of the poisonproducing microscopic dinoflagellate Gonyaulax catenella can cause serious illness (Nishitani and Chew 1983).

Sport clamming in California is done by hand with a rake or shovel (Frey 1971). Clam digging tends to be concentrated in the intertidal areas primarily during low tide. Fifty clams yield about 1.5 lb of edible meat.

The major problem of the sport clam fishery in California is the discharge of sewage and animal wastes into estuaries and nearshore marine waters (Ritchie 1977). Although there is a coastwide warning of the dangers of paralytic shellfish poison from May 1 to October 31, the poison is not a problem.

AQUACULTURE

Littleneck clams are not. cultured on the west coast. Ritchie (1977) concluded that clam farming should be permitted in California only in those areas where no other endemic species of clams are present. Culture under these restrictions would involve form of beach rehabilitation planting of hatcheryand/or the areas, produced seed. In many residents might object to using public

lands for private benefit (Ritchie 1977). As a result of stringent State laws (e.g., 50 clam limit/day) and economic considerations, the potential for littleneck clam culture in California is low.

ECOLOGICAL ROLE

clam The littleneck is feeder, collecting suspension everything in the plankton small enough to be ingested (Schmidt and The size of particle Warme 1969). ingested is controlled by the size of the mouth opening or the life stage. Clam postlarvae can feed only on particles under $10~\mu m$ in diameter, primarily benthic diatoms and perhaps sediment bacteria (Peterson 1982). Because most littleneck clams live in the intertidal zone, most feeding is at high tide.

Unlike many species of clams, littlenecks can move by using their foot (Peterson 1982) and reburrow (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Clams in heavily populated areas may move to less densely populated areas, and clams exposed by dredging can reburrow after dredging is completed. Over 88% of the clams less than legal size reburrowed in both "soft" and "hard" bottoms after exposure (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Feder and Paul (1973) demonstrated the littleneck's ability to reburrow through a mark and recapture study.

Epizoic growth on littleneck clams is rare; and Peterson (1982) stated that fouling organisms either scraped off in reburrowing or are smothered. No epidemic disease has been found in littleneck clams (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Two species of tetraphyllidian cestodes were found in littleneck clams in Humboldt Bay, California, and littleneck clams often contained large numbers of larval and Chew 1966: (Sparks tapeworms Warner and Katkansky 1969). These parasites are killed by cooking and cannot infect humans even when alive.

The littleneck clam has many predators. In Mugu Lagoon, California, Peterson (1982) observed caused by the fatalities snail Polinices reclusianus and the crab <u>Cancer</u> <u>anthonyi</u>. Littleneck clams make up 16% of the diet of the octopus Octopus <u>dofleini</u> (Hartwick et al. 1981). The clams eaten were 15 to 70 mm long, but most were 40 to 50 mm long. The intensity of predation was related to distance between the den of the octopus and the gravel beaches where the clams lived.

Two carnivorous gastropods. Forreria belcheri and Shaskyus festivus, prey on littleneck clams (Schmidt and Warme 1969). Sea stars (Pycnopodia helianthoides) prey on littleneck clams in Prince William Sound, Alaska (Paul and Feder 1975). The sea otter (Enhydra lutris) also is a major predator of clams (Feder and Paul, University of Alaska: pers. comm.). Other predators polychaetes, fishes, and ducks (Quayle and Bourne 1972). Small fishes have been found to nip on the siphons of littleneck clams, reducing clam growth (Peterson and Quammen 1982).

In transplant experiments in Mugu Lagoon, California, the deep-dwelling bivalve <u>Sanguinolaria</u> nuttallii has no discernible influence on the shallow-dwelling littleneck clam (Peterson and Andre 1980).

ENVIRONMENTAL REQUIREMENTS

Temperature and Salinity

Larval littleneck clams normally live in a relatively narrow range of temperature and salinity. Near Newport, Oregon, the optimum water temperature range is 10 to 15 °C and the optimum salinity range is 27 to 32 ppt (Phibbs 1971). Adult littleneck clams can withstand water

temperatures from near freezing to 25 °C, and the salinity tolerance for adults ranges from about 20 ppt or less, to 30 ppt in Prince William Sound, Alaska (Glude 1978).

Substrate

Littleneck clams live in the coarse, sand to mud sediments of bays, sloughs and estuaries in California (Fitch 1953). On the open coast, they live in nearly any area where there are rocky points or reefs made up of small cobbles over coarse sand. In southeastern and south-central Alaska, littleneck clams are common on sandy beaches. gravel In some coastal waters of California, there are wide fluctuations in clam abundance because runoff from creeks heavv causes extensive sanding-in of cobble beaches which decimates clam habitat (Frey 1971). Littleneck clam populations in those areas that have undergone sanding-in may require as many as 5 years to recover (Frey 1971).

Littleneck clams live often on small beaches that exist in pockets on rocky shorelines, or in small patches of larger beaches (Fraser and Smith 1928). The best beaches for littleneck clams are those with coarse sand or fine gravel mixed with mud, stones, or shells. Apparently littleneck clams do poorly in fine sand.

Depth

Littleneck clams are most abundant in the lower part of the intertidal zone and subtidally to a depth of 3 m (Glude 1978). Maximum burrowing depth is about 15 cm. Quayle and Bourne (1972) observed littleneck clams from the lower three quarters of the intertidal zone down to a depth of 13 m. They stated that clams burrow down to a maximum depth of 16 cm. In Alaska, clams live in the 1.5 to 1.0 m tidal range (Paul et al. 1976a; Nickerson 1977).

Other Environmental Factors

Heavy metals have been concentrated in littleneck clams because long-lived sedentary animals commonly concentrate such contaminants. Littleneck clams are highly sensitive to copper which is in antifouling boat used paints (Roesijadi 1980a. 1980b). mortality of clams was reported at copper concentrations of 7 and 18 µg/1 after 30 days of exposure. At 39 and 82 μ g/1, mortality was 86% and 97%, respectively, after 30 days exposure. Copper concentrates in the gills and disrupts regulation cellular sodium and potassium.

The uptake of heavy metals in littleneck clams has been monitored in Elkhorn Slough, California (Graham 1972). Shell concentrations (ppm dry weight) were as follows: Ag, 5.8; Cd, 2.9; Cr, <5.7; Cu, 11.5; Mn, 16.8; Pb, <9.0; and Zn, 9.2. The quantities (ppm) in the clam meat were as follows: Ag, 5.7; Cr, <1.5; Cu, 7.5; Mn, 11.5; Pb, 5.2; and Zn, The quantities of heavy metals in the littleneck clam generally were lower than those in other shellfish in California. Crabs consumed more clams from oiled than from unoiled sand because clams do not burrow as deep in oiled sand (Pearson et al. 1981). Slow reburrowing in oiled sand also led to increased predation. Small clams are far more vulnerable to crab predation than large ones.

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16. Abstract (Limit: 200 words)

Species profiles are literature summaries of the taxonomy, morphology, distribution, life history, and environmental requirements of coastal aquatic species. They are prepared to assist in environmental impact assessment. Common littleneck clam (Protothaca staminea) supports an important sport fishery in the Pacific Southwest Region, but has no commercial importance. The species is distributed from Alaska to Baja, California. The egg develops into the trochophore stage 12 h after fertilization, and the planktonic larval stage lasts about 3 weeks. Adults usually mature in the second or third year of life. Mortality is greatest early in life. Intraspecific competition among adults is more evident in mud than in sand. Most littleneck clams live in the lower intertidal zone. Littleneck clams concentrate heavy metals and are highly sensitive to copper.

17. Document Analysis a. Descriptors
Life cycles Feeding habits
Fisheries Growth
Sediments Competition
Clams Contaminants
Aquaculture
b. Identifiers/Open-Ended Terms

Protothaca staminea

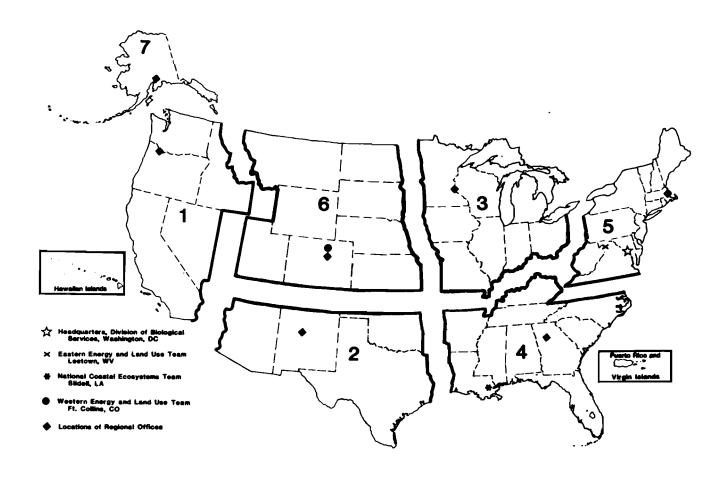
Ecological role Common littleneck clam Environmental requirements

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