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# Biodegradation of wood exposed in the marine environment: evaluation of the hazard posed by marine wood-borers in fifteen European sites

L M S Borges<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Institute of Marine Sciences, School of Biological Sciences, University of Portsmouth, Ferry Road, PO4 9LY, UK.

<sup>b</sup> Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht, Centre for Material and Coastal Research, Max-Planck-Straße 1, 21502, Germany

## Abstract

The activity of marine wood-borers causes great destruction in maritime wooden structures. Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate the hazard posed by marine wood-borers in fifteen European sites, to assist authorities and researchers concerned with the protection of wood in the sea. In northern Europe, *Teredo navalis* is the species that poses the highest borer hazard while in the Atlantic coast of southern Europe *Lyrodus pedicellatus* is the most destructive species, with the exception of two sites in Portugal. In these sites, *Limnoria tripunctata* was more destructive than *L. pedicellatus*. In the Mediterranean both *T. navalis* and *L. pedicellatus* pose a very high borer hazard to wooden structures.

Salinity and temperature emerged as the environmental conditions that best explain the occurrence and abundance of wood boring species in the sites surveyed. Three of the species highlighted in this study are warm water species. Therefore their activity might increase in the future, due to global warming. Considering that wood is still a very valuable material for construction, its use for maritime construction should be favoured. Thus research to improve the durability of wooden materials in the marine environment is of paramount importance.

**Keywords** biodegradation of wood; marine wood-borers; teredinids; shipworm; limnoriids; gribble borer hazard; European coastal waters.

## 1. Introduction

In human history, wood has been the material used for maritime construction, possibly due to its wide availability and relative ease of fabrication and repair (Eaton and Hale, 1993; Cragg, 1996). For centuries, it has been the sole resource used in the construction of rafts, boats, ships and harbour structures (Cragg *et al.*, 2001). In the past, the economy of seafaring nations depended upon their ability to maintain a sea-worthy fleet (Graham, 1973). Nowadays, wooden ships no longer play a major role in maritime commerce, but wood is still, a very important component of marine infrastructure in many countries (Love *et al.*, 2000). However, wooden structures in the marine environment are vulnerable to attack by a group of xylotrophic organisms, collectively known as marine wood-borers, which are voracious consumers of wood (Betcher *et al.*, 2012). This group includes Bivalvia (Teredinidae and Pholadidae), Isopoda (Limnoriidae and Sphaeromatidae), and Amphipoda (Cheluridae). In Europe most wood-boring bivalves belong to the Teredinidae, but species of the Pholadidae, such as *Xylophaga dorsalis* (Turton, 1819), also has been reported occurring in Europe (Santhakumaran and Sneli, 1978; Eaton *et al.*, 1989). Wood-boring Crustacea occurring in Europe belong to the Limnoriidae and Cheluridae.

The fight against wood-boring ravage has been going on since early historic times (Turner and Johnson, 1971). From the literature and wrecks, it is known that the ancient Egyptians and

48 Chinese, for instance, used protective coatings, such as resin, pitch or paint, and hull sheathing  
49 in their ships, in addition to regular beaching and drying (Steinmayer and Turfa, 1997). These  
50 methods probably provided a certain degree of protection to ships and boats. However, the  
51 advent of long exploration voyages that started in the 15<sup>th</sup> century, using large wooden ships,  
52 brought about new challenges. The destructive activity of wood borers was very problematic for  
53 sailors, but it was probably not felt as a vital problem for nations. This changed in 1730 in the  
54 Netherlands, when the country was under the threat of being flooded due to the huge  
55 destruction caused by wood borers in the wooden-faced dykes. The prospect of sudden  
56 calamity aroused a general interest in marine wood borers (Sellius, 1733; Vrolik, 1858). Since  
57 then, accounts of serious economic problems caused by the activity of wood borers have been  
58 documented in Europe (e.g. Schütz, 1961; Hoppe, 2002). Several methods have been  
59 developed with the aim of protecting wood exposed in the sea against marine borers. However,  
60 the control of marine wood borers remains an unresolved problem. In addition, the EU directive  
61 (European Commission, 2003) is now limiting the use of established and proven preservatives,  
62 such as creosote and copper-chrome-arsenic (CCA), in wood destined to be used in marine  
63 construction. Therefore, other approaches need to be explored to ensure an adequate service  
64 life for timber exposed in the sea. One approach has been to investigate the natural durability  
65 against marine wood borers of lesser utilised timber species using laboratory tests  
66 (Rosenbusch *et al.*, 2006; Borges *et al.*, 2008) or field trials (Edmondson, 1955; Southwell and  
67 Bultman, 1971; Jones *et al.*, 1972; Haderlie, 1983; Bultman *et al.*, 1988; Eaton *et al.*, 1989;  
68 Williams *et al.*, 2004). Another approach, which has been developed in recent years, is the  
69 chemical modification of wood for use in the marine environment (Borges *et al.*, 2005; Westin  
70 and Rapp, 2005; Lopes *et al.*, 2014).

71 The destruction caused by wood borers to wooden maritime structures has led to the choice of  
72 other materials, such as concrete and steel, for use in the marine environment. These materials  
73 are dominant in marine developments in countries such as the UK (Reynolds, 2004) and  
74 Portugal (Borges, pers. obsv.). Nevertheless, the properties of wood, such as resilience,  
75 favourable strength-to-weight ratio, relatively low energy costs of production and renewability,  
76 make it an attractive material to use for construction (Borges *et al.*, 2003). Wood also suffers  
77 much less from the effect of the salt in the seawater than for instance steel or concrete (Williams  
78 *et al.*, 2004), and a growing tree absorbs more carbon from the atmosphere than it emits and its  
79 processing also requires less energy than the production of concrete or steel (Burnett, 2006). In  
80 addition, the production of cement and steel alone accounts for over 10% of global annual  
81 greenhouse gas emissions (Burnett, 2006). Therefore, in line with the commitment of the  
82 European Union to reduce the emission of greenhouse gases, wooden materials, when the  
83 wood is obtained from sustainable sources, are more environmentally friendly and, therefore,  
84 should be favoured in marine construction. To this end, having knowledge on wood boring  
85 hazard in the area(s) is desirable to enable the choice of the most adequate wooden species or  
86 for future development of tailor-made treatments. However information on borer hazard in  
87 European waters is very scarce, although some sites have been used to test the durability of a  
88 number of potentially durable wooden species and treated wood. Thus the wood borer hazard to  
89 untreated non-resistant wood, Scots pine, used as a comparator, is known (e.g. Jones *et al.*,  
90 1972; Eaton *et al.*, 1989). However, according to EN 275 (1992) the sites chosen for these tests  
91 should have high borer hazard. Thus, the borer hazard from these sites is probably not  
92 representative of that in other sites in European coastal waters.

93 Therefore, the aims of the present study were to evaluate the borer hazard posed by teredinids  
94 and limnoriids to non-durable timber (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) using a standard methodology EN 275  
95 (1992) to give information on the maximum severity of attack in the sites surveyed; to make it  
96 possible to compare with results from other studies (e.g. Eaton *et al.*, 1989); to correlate the  
97 abundance of wood boring species in these sites with environmental factors. This information

98 may assist researchers and authorities concerned with service life and protection of wood in the  
99 marine environment.

## 100 **2- Materials and Methods**

### 101 **2.1- Experimental set-up and laboratory assessment of test panels**

102 To evaluate the severity of attack caused by wood borers in 15 sites in European waters (Fig.1),  
103 collaborators (see acknowledgements) exposed six panels of *Pinus sylvestris* L. (Scots pine) at  
104 each site. The number of replicates follows the standard EN 275 (1992), which advises the use  
105 of at least five replicates. The main aim of EN 275 is to evaluate the relative effectiveness of a  
106 wood preservative applied by vacuum/pressure impregnation in the marine environment. In the  
107 present study the method was modified to suit the aims of the study (see above) and therefore  
108 only untreated Scots pine was used. The wood was uniform, straight-grained and free of knots,  
109 cracks, stains or other defects (EN 275, 1992). For detailed methodology, please refer to  
110 Borges *et al.*, (2014). Data on monthly surface temperature and salinity at each site were  
111 provided by the collaborators for the majority of test sites (Table 1).

112 After one year's exposure, the panels were removed and the severity of attack by marine borers  
113 was assessed. The fouling community was carefully scraped off. The surface of the panels was  
114 then inspected for signs of limnoriid attack. To identify the limnoriid species present, specimens  
115 were extracted from the wood and identified using the keys in Menzies (1957), Kühne (1971),  
116 Cookson (1990) and Castelló (2011). The severity of attack caused by teredinids was visually  
117 assessed using X-rays of the panels, and by splitting the panels to reveal the extent of interior  
118 damage and extract the specimens or, in certain cases, just the shells and the pallets.  
119 Teredinids were identified on the basis of the morphology of the pallets, using the keys in Turner  
120 (1971), the illustrations in Turner (1966) and later using molecular markers (Borges *et al.*, 2012).  
121 To quantify the severity of wood boring damage in the test panels caused by limnoriids and  
122 teredinids, the ranking system described in EN 275 (1992) was used. This system varies from 0  
123 (no attack) to 4 (maximum attack, complete destruction of the wood). The abundance of  
124 teredinids and limnoriids was determined by counting the specimens found. In the case of  
125 teredinids the number of specimens was estimated also by counting the number of shells and  
126 pallets, when only these were found in the wood. In addition, the number of tunnels in X-rays of  
127 panels was counted whenever possible, but in some cases, due to heavy attack, it was not  
128 possible to differentiate individual tunnels.

### 129 **2.2- Statistical analysis**

130 Differences in species composition and abundance were compared using multivariate analysis  
131 in PRIMER V6 (Clarke and Gorley, 2006). The 'analysis of similarities' and species contribution  
132 ANOSIM was carried out to test the null hypothesis that there are no differences in the species  
133 composition between the sites tested. The data was square-root-transformed, prior to produce  
134 the Bray-Curtis similarity matrix (Clarke 1993). The following hierarchical design was used  
135 (orthogonal, fixed, 15 levels). The similarity percentage (SIMPER) routine was then used to  
136 identify the relative species contribution to the differences observed between test sites (pairwise  
137 comparison) (Clarke and Gorley, 2006).

138 The Bio-Env analysis on BEST routine, in the PRIMER package V6, was used to test how  
139 variability and abundance of species could be explained by environmental differences (Clarke  
140 and Gorley, 2006). Several environmental factors have been identified as having influence on  
141 marine wood-borers. Thus, the factors with the highest influence on the survival and activity of  
142 marine wood-borers were tested, including temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen and pH  
143 (Menzies, 1957; Turner, 1966; Nair and Saraswathy, 1971) (Table 1). The data on temperature  
144 salinity was obtained from the hybrid dataset compiled by Borges *et al.* (2014). Data on  
145 dissolved oxygen and pH was extracted from Tyberghein *et al.* (2012). The analysis was based  
146 on the high rank correlation between the similarity matrix generated using the Bray-Curtis  
147

148 similarity coefficient on square-root-transformed abundance data, and the similarity matrix  
149 constructed using the Euclidean distance on normalized temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen  
150 and pH data. Different combinations of variables were tested, and the group of variables that  
151 gave the highest correlation was taken as the variables that 'best' explained the biotic structure  
152 observed in test panels. The significance of the relationship was based on random permutations  
153 of the data (99).

154

### 155 3. Results

#### 156 3.1 Severity of wood boring attack at test site

157 In most test sites surveyed teredinids caused higher severity of attack than limnoriids (Figs. 2  
158 and 3). The high borer hazard in most northern European sites was caused mainly by *Teredo*  
159 *navalis* Linnaeus, 1758. Indeed, *T. navalis* caused complete destruction of test panels exposed  
160 near Kristineberg Marine Research Station, Sweden, Roskilde, Denmark (Fig. 2) and also in  
161 Bartın, northern Turkey, where it was the only species present (in all test sites the six replicate  
162 wooden panels scored 4). In other sites such as Kiel, Germany, Haren (Eemshaven) and  
163 Yerseke, The Netherlands, test panels were not completely destroyed but the destruction was  
164 still considered severe (high borer hazard) (Fig. 3). In these sites however the severity of attack  
165 varied among the replicate wooden panels. In Kiel, for example, 2 panels scored 1, two panels  
166 scored 2, and the last two scored 3 and 4. In Trondheim, Norway, the borer hazard was due  
167 mainly to *Psiloteredo megotara* (Hanley, 1848). Panels exposed in Trondheim, Norway showed  
168 a relatively high mean severity of attack by *Psiloteredo megotara* (2.8). Three out of the six test  
169 panels exposed in the area showed severe attack, two panels scored 4 and one 3. From the last  
170 three panels, two scored 2 and one scored 1. *Limnoria lignorum* also attacked the panels  
171 exposed in Trondheim, but the severity was lower than that caused by teredinids (3 panels  
172 scored 2 and 3 panels scored 1). The attack on wooden panels in Reykjavik, Iceland, was due  
173 only to *Limnoria lignorum* (Rathke, 1799) (Fig. 4). However, the severity of attack in the panels  
174 was low (all panels scored 1) (Fig 3). Panels exposed in Dunstaffnage Bay, Scotland, showed  
175 signs of limnoriid attack (vestigial), although no limnoriids were found (Fig.3), whereas panels  
176 exposed in the Gulf of Riga, Latvia, did not show signs of wood boring attack. Panels exposed  
177 in Portsmouth, England were also severely deteriorated (3.8) by the Atlantic form of *Lyrodus*  
178 *pedicellatus* (Quatrefages, 1849), which was the only teredinid species present in the first year  
179 of exposure (four panels scoring 4 and two scoring 3 and 3.5). *Limnoria quadripunctata*  
180 Holthuis, 1949 was also present but its activity was less destructive (five panels scoring 2.5 and  
181 one 3) than that of teredinids. In subsequent years, however, *Teredo navalis* was also present,  
182 but *L. pedicellatus* was more abundant and destructive than either *T. navalis* or *L.*  
183 *quadripunctata* (Borges, 2007). In the two sites tested in Portugal, Olhão and Terceira, Azores,  
184 the hazard posed by *Limnoria tripunctata* Menzies, 1951 was higher than that by *Lyrodus*  
185 *pedicellatus* (Fig. 3). There was very little variation in the severity of attack by *L. tripunctata* in  
186 the test panels in Olhão and in Terceira. The severity of attack by teredinids showed also little  
187 variation in Olhão, but in Terceira there was variation from panel to panel (scores varied  
188 between 2 and 3). In the two sites tested in the Mediterranean, six wood boring species  
189 occurred (see fig. 4), but the species that posed the highest hazard to the test panels was the  
190 Mediterranean form of *L. pedicellatus*. Species such as, *Nototeredo norvagica* (Spengler, 1792),  
191 *Teredo bartschi* Clapp, 1923, and *Bankia carinata* (Gray, 1827) occurred in low numbers and  
192 their severity of attack was negligible. *Limnoria tripunctata* attacked all test panels exposed in  
193 Mersin, but only in one panel the destruction was severe (3) in the other panels severity of  
194 attack was 2 or less. However, the severity of attack of limnoriids is usually less destructive as it  
195 occurs initially in the wood surface. Therefore the ratings of attack of limnoriids and teredinids  
196 are not, generally, equivalent. No sign of attack by limnoriids was observed in test panels  
197 exposed in Rovinj, Croatia.

#### 198 3.2 Statistical analysis

199 There were significant differences in the species composition and their abundance between test  
200 sites (ANOSIM:  $R=0.87$ ,  $P= 0.0001$ ), therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. SIMPER  
201 analysis indicates that these differences were the result of a greater abundance of *Teredo*  
202 *navalis* in northern European sites such as near Kristineberg Biological Station, Sweden,  
203 Roskilde, Denmark, and in Bartın, northern Turkey; *Lyrodus pedicellatus* in Rovinj, Croatia and  
204 Mersin, southern Turkey; and *Limnoria tripunctata* in Terceira (Azores) and Olhão, Portugal.  
205 Of the four environmental variables tested, the BEST procedure selected salinity and  
206 temperature as the variable combination that showed the highest correlation with the biotic  
207 structure present in the test panels (BIO-ENV:  $Rho=0.523$ ,  $P=0.001$ , Table 2).  
208

## 209 4. Discussion

### 210 4.1- Borer hazard in test sites

211 The results of the present study show significant differences in wood-boring species  
212 composition among the sites surveyed (ANOSIM,  $R=0.87$ ) (Fig. 5). In northern European sites,  
213 such as Kristineberg, Roskilde, Kiel, Haren (Eemshaven) and Yerseke (Fig. 3), *Teredo navalis*  
214 was the most abundant species, in some case the sole species present, causing the complete  
215 destruction of the panels in the period of one year in the first two sites. It caused also severe  
216 attack in the majority of the sites mentioned above. In these sites *Teredo navalis* had little or no  
217 competition with other wood boring species during the period of exposure of the panels, which  
218 may explain in part the high activity of this species in areas surveyed in the Baltic and North  
219 Sea. In addition, of all marine wood borers occurring in Europe *T. navalis* is the species with the  
220 widest tolerance for a range of temperature and salinity (Borges *et al.*, 2014). In Trondheim,  
221 however, *Psiloteredo megotara* was the most destructive species causing severe attack to the  
222 test panels (Fig. 3). Although *P. megotara* specimens were less abundant than *T. navalis*  
223 specimens in other sites, their large dimensions and continuous growth, even at temperatures  
224 as low as 5 °C (Norman,1977), makes them very destructive organisms.

225 The comparison of the severity of attack in test sites in the present study with previous studies,  
226 such as the studies carried out by Santhakumaran and Sneli (1978) and Eaton *et al.* (1989)  
227 shows year on year variability in the same site. Santhakumaran and Sneli (1978) observed  
228 changes in the composition and abundance of wood boring species in Trondheim fjord. They  
229 reported that *Xylophaga dorsalis*, were the most destructive wood-boring organisms attacking  
230 all wood species being tested, although *Psiloteredo megotara* was also present and also  
231 responsible for large destruction of test panels. However, Nair (1959) reported *Nototeredo*  
232 *norvagica* widely distributed along western Norway, and Dons (1946) also reported its presence  
233 in Trondheim fjord. In the present study, however, *X. dorsalis* did not recruit to the test panels  
234 and only one specimen of *N. norvagica* was found. In spite of this natural variation, *Teredo*  
235 *navalis* was never reported to occur in Trondheim, according to the many studies in the area. In  
236 the international study by Eaton *et al* (1989) two European sites were used in the trials to test  
237 the efficacy of CCA and CCB (copper-chrome-boron) wood preservatives. One of them,  
238 Kristineberg was also surveyed in the present study, but both the severity of attack in untreated  
239 panels of *Pinus sylvestris* and the wood-borers present were different. In the present study only  
240 *Teredo navalis* was present and the panels were completely destroyed after one year's  
241 exposure. In the study by Eaton *et al* (1989) three wood boring species were present,  
242 *Psiloteredo megotara*, *Teredo navalis* and *Xylophaga dorsalis*, but the borer hazard was lower  
243 than in the present study as untreated panels of *Pinus sylvestris* were destroyed only after 36  
244 months. These comparisons clearly show the year on year variation in the wood-boring  
245 community and borer hazard in the same area.

246 In southern Europe *Lyrodus pedicellatus* is the teredinid species that poses the greatest borer  
247 hazard to wooden maritime structures. In some areas along the Atlantic coast of Europe,  
248 including southern England, *T. navalis* and *L. pedicellatus* occur in sympatry, which may lead to  
249 competition between the two species (Borges *et al.*, 2014). The dominance of *L. pedicellatus* is

250 probably related to its life history strategy. The larvae of *L. pedicellatus* settle in the wood in just  
251 36 hours or less (Lebour, 1946) after being released. Their shorter permanence of in the  
252 plankton, compared to that of *T. navalis*, means that they are less exposed to adverse  
253 environmental conditions and predators, during the phase which is considered the weak link in  
254 the life cycle of teredinids (Turner, 1966). In addition, it is probable that many of the larvae of *L.*  
255 *pedicellatus* settle in the same piece of wood as the parents, making this a strong competitor  
256 species, which provokes great destruction to the wood. In the Mediterranean Sea, *L.*  
257 *pedicellatus* (Mediterranean form) was the most destructive species. However, in other studies,  
258 *Teredo navalis* seemed to dominate and was responsible for the high borer hazard observed in  
259 test panels (e.g. Sivrikaya *et al.*, 2009). Similarly to what occurs in the Atlantic coast, there is  
260 probably competition between the Mediterranean form of *L. pedicellatus* and *T. navalis* and,  
261 therefore, there is a natural variability in the hazard posed by these species to wooden  
262 structures in the area.

263 The hazard posed by *Limnoria lignorum* in northern European sites is comparatively smaller  
264 than that by teredinids (Fig. 3). The severity of attack caused *L. lignorum* to test panels exposed  
265 in Reykjavik was low (Fig 3), however this might not be always the case. Saemundsson, (1937)  
266 observed that the hazard posed *L. lignorum* in Iceland varied with site and environmental  
267 conditions. He observed that in certain areas around Iceland the destruction of wooden  
268 structures was severe. In Yerseke the activity of *L. lignorum* in test panels was also small  
269 compared to that of *T. navalis*. However in the past limnoriids were observed posing a high  
270 hazard to wooden structures in The Netherland (Hoek, 1893 in Clapp & Kenk, 1963). In the  
271 present study, *Limnoria quadripunctata* was found only in Portsmouth, England. The destruction  
272 caused by this species to the wooden panels was severe (Fig. 3). Furthermore, in several  
273 surveys of wooden structures around Portsmouth and other areas in southern England (Borges  
274 *et al.* in press) this species was very abundant causing great destruction, in sea defences in  
275 Southsea, Portsmouth, Swanage pier (Borges, 2007) and in in Yarmouth pier, Isle of Wight. The  
276 costs of repair of the later were ca £400,000 (Cragg, pers. com.). Later surveys revealed that  
277 this species is more widespread in southern Europe then previously reported (Borges *et al.*, in  
278 press) but the severity of its attack in these areas was not yet evaluated. In southern Europe,  
279 *Limnoria tripunctata* is also quite widespread. In the present study the test panels exposed in  
280 Olhão and Terceira (Azores), Portugal showed higher severity of attack caused by limnoriids  
281 than that by *Lyrodus pedicellatus*, the most abundant teredinid species present in both sites.  
282 These results seem to show that in spite of its life history strategy traits such as low fecundity  
283 and direct development (Cragg *et al.*, 1999), which may limit dispersion, *L. tripunctata* is a good  
284 competitor and poses a serious risk for wooden structures exposed in the sea. Recent work has  
285 shown that this species seems to be widespread in mainland Portugal and in the Azores (Lopes,  
286 2013; Borges and Costa, in press; Borges *et al.*, in press) in areas where it was not previously  
287 reported upon. In the Mediterranean, *L. tripunctata* occurred only in Mersin, Turkey, causing  
288 severe damage in one out of the six test panels exposed in the area. However in the remaining  
289 five panels, the Mediterranean form of *L. pedicellatus* was more destructive than *L. tripunctata*.  
290 However this species occurs probably in other areas such as the Venice lagoon, where wooden  
291 structures show the characteristic pencil-point shape and hour-glass shape characteristic of  
292 limnoriid attack (Borges, pers. obs.).

#### 293 **4.2- Factors affecting the hazard posed by marine wood-borers in the sites surveyed**

294 The higher hazard posed by teredinids to wooden structures compared to that of limnoriids in  
295 the majority of the sites surveyed, is probably related to the tolerance of teredinid species, such  
296 as *T. navalis* and *L. pedicellatus*, to a wider range of salinity and temperature than limnoriid  
297 species (Borges *et al.*, 2014; Borges *et al.*, in press). Indeed the results of the BIO-ENV (Table  
298 2) showed that temperature and salinity were the two variables that `best` explained the  
299 patterns of diversity and abundance of marine wood borers in the test sites surveyed. These  
300 results corroborate the findings of several studies on the influence of temperature and salinity

301 on the survival and activity of teredinid and limnoriid species (Roch, 1932; Beckman and  
302 Menzies, 1960; Eltringham, 1961; Kristensen, 1969; Eckelbarger and Reish, 1972; Borges *et al.*  
303 2014; Borges *et al.* in press).

304 The life history strategy of teredinids and limnoriids is also a very important factor explaining the  
305 differences in the hazard posed by the two groups in the sites surveyed. Teredinids have a  
306 larval phase while limnoriids have direct development. Oviparous teredinid species have a free  
307 swimming period of 3 to 4 weeks during the larval phase (Turner, 1966) and it was estimated  
308 that *Psiloteredo megotara*, and probably other oviparous species, may produce over 100 million  
309 eggs in one spawning (Sigerfoos, 1908). This long period of permanence in the plankton allow  
310 the larvae to be transported to considerable distances by currents (Scheltema, 1971). The  
311 permanence in the plankton of the larvae of long-term brooders is in contrast much shorter than  
312 those of oviparous species (Lebour 1946). Nevertheless, the free swimming period that the  
313 larvae stay in the plankton, allows their dispersion by currents or, in later years, also in ballast  
314 water (Gollasch, 2002; Shipway *et al.*, 2014). Limnoriids have in comparison with teredinids,  
315 much lower fecundity (Cragg *et al.*, 1999) and the number of fertilized eggs is much smaller (5-  
316 30 depending on species) than that in teredinids. However, the young develop in the brood  
317 pouch for 2-4 weeks and are thereafter released into the parental galleries (Eaton and Hale,  
318 1993). During this period, young limnoriids are protected from external adverse conditions by  
319 the parents (Thiel, 2003), which probably maximises survival rates. In addition, they can  
320 produce 1-3 clutches of eggs in a year, iteroparity, depending on the water temperature (Eaton  
321 and Hale, 1993) From the parents tunnels' they excavate their own perpendicular tunnels,  
322 provoking high biodeterioration to the infested wood. The main mean of dispersion of limnoriids  
323 in the past was probably in the hull of wooden ships (Carlton, 1999). Nowadays however their  
324 dispersal is probably achieved by rafting in floating wood, similarly to what was described by  
325 Miranda & Thiel (2008) for algae boring limnoriids. It is also possible that limnoriids can be  
326 transported in ships either in ballast water (Carlton, pers. com.) or in the sea-chests, although  
327 up to now they have never been observed either in ballast water or sea-chests (Borges *et al.*, in  
328 press),  
329

## 330 5. Conclusions

331 The adequate choice of wooden materials for maritime construction as well as the development  
332 of protection methods for wood destined to marine construction should, ideally, be based on  
333 knowledge on borer hazard, in the areas where the construction is going to take place. However  
334 it is well known that the activity of marine wood borers is spasmodic, showing year on year  
335 variation. To obtain a better marine-borer hazard 'resolution' in Europe, a more detailed survey  
336 is needed, particularly in the Mediterranean and Black Seas where only two and one site were  
337 surveyed, respectively. In addition, to obtain data that covers year on year variation on test  
338 sites, test panels should be deployed for a number of years. The present study, although limited  
339 to only one year can provide, nevertheless, an indication of the borer hazard in several sites  
340 covering a wide range of environments in European coastal waters.

341 The present results show that borer hazard varies with site, due to the type of bores present and  
342 with environmental conditions. In the majority of sites (nine) the borer hazard was very high  
343 (above 3) considered severe attack according to (EN 275, 1992). In most sites teredinids posed  
344 a higher hazard than limnoriids. However in the Terceira Azores and Olhão, Portugal the  
345 severity of attack of *Limnoria tripunctata* (4) was higher than that of teredinids. Therefore,  
346 limnoriids should not be underestimated as their activity can also be very destructive, as shown  
347 in this work.  
348

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