Expanding fish productivity in Tasmanian saltmarsh wetlands through tidal re-connection and habitat repair

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13 Abstract

14 Fish use of coastal saltmarsh wetlands has been documented for many parts of 15 Australia with the notable exception of Tasmania. An initial investigation to examine 16 the diversity, density and patterns of fish use in the Circular Head coast saltmarshes of north-west Tasmania was undertaken. To aid decision making in repair strategies, the 17 18 effect of saltmarsh condition on fish assemblages was studied using paired sites of predominantly unaltered and altered saltmarshes where levees were present. A total of 19 20 851 fish from 11 species were caught in 37 of the 48 pop nets. Three species, 21 Aldrichetta forsteri, Arripis truttaceous and Rhombosolea tapirina, are important to 22 commercial and recreational fisheries and contributed about 20% of the total catch numbers. The mean density of > 72 fish per 100 m² is the highest yet reported from 23 24 Australian studies and indicates that Tasmanian saltmarshes provide higher value 25 habitat for fish compared to elsewhere in Australia, likely due to more frequent and 26 prolonged flooding together with the lack of adjacent mangroves. There was no 27 significant difference in fish assemblages between unaltered and altered marshes. The 28 results suggest that restoring basic saltmarsh structure through tidal re-connection will 29 deliver substantial benefits for fish productivity through habitat expansion. 30 31 32 Additional key words: biodiversity, coastal management, ecological restoration, 33 ecosystem services, seascapes, salt marsh, temperate fish communities, wetland

- 34 conservation
- 35
- 36 Running head: Repairing saltmarsh wetlands for fish use

37 Introduction

38 Saltmarsh wetlands are well recognised as fish nurseries globally, with a growing 39 literature documenting the importance of these habitats for itinerant fish use (e.g. 40 Connolly 2009; Raposa and Talley 2012). The general expectation is that saltmarshes, 41 and their associated tidal channels, provide both secure and productive habitat and 42 food resources. For example, Kneib (1997), Deegan et al. (2000) and Valiela et al. 43 (2000) detail how fish utilise these seascapes at varying spatial and temporal scales. 44 In Australia, there is now an increasing number of studies to support this expectation, 45 with accounts of fish visiting and feeding in saltmarshes (Crinall and Hindell 2004; 46 Hollingsworth and Connolly 2006; Mazumder et al. 2006a; Platell and Freewater 47 2009; Mazumder et al. 2011; McPhee et al. 2015). As elsewhere, Australian 48 saltmarshes have also been documented to export food resources (plant and animal 49 matter) to coastal waters through tides, thereby improving overall seascape 50 productivity (Melville and Connolly 2003; Svensson et al. 2007). 51 52 While more research is being undertaken in Australia, the majority of research on 53 saltmarsh fish has been focused elsewhere, particularly in North America. A review 54 by Connolly (1999) indicates that, of literature published before 2000, 90% of studies 55 were from North America, 7% from Europe and 3% from the southern hemisphere 56 including Australia (although additional work has since been published). Contrasts 57 exist in habitat type between Australian and North American saltmarshes, including 58 differences in typical elevation, water depth and plant assemblages (Connolly 2009),

making comparisons problematic between international studies. Australian studies
have primarily been undertaken in tropical, subtropical and temperate waters in
Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia (Davis 1988; Connolly *et al.* 1997; Thomas and Connolly 2001; Crinall and Hindell 2004; Mazumder *et al.*2006b).

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65 Australian literature reporting on the fish use of temperate saltmarshes record up to 35 species with densities of up to 56 fish per 100 m⁻² (Connolly 2009; Wegscheidl *et al.* 66 67 2017). In terms of patterns of fish use, spatial and temporal differences between 68 regions are apparent, including varying effects of seasonality, tide cycle, water depth, 69 diel time, temperature and salinity on fish assemblages (Morton et al. 1987; Davis 70 1988; Connolly et al. 1997; Thomas and Connolly 2001; Crinall and Hindell 2004; 71 Mazumder et al. 2005a). Although a major focus of North American research has 72 explored differences in fish use between varying saltmarsh conditions (e.g. Raposa 73 and Talley 2012), there are few comparable studies from Australia (Connolly 2005; 74 Mazumder et al. 2006b). There still remains a lack of directed studies relating 75 saltmarsh condition to fish assemblages in Australia (Connolly 1999; Kelleway et al. 76 2017).

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78 To our knowledge, and certainly in the scientific literature, there have been no prior 79 studies of fish use of Tasmanian coastal saltmarshes, with no previous record of fish 80 species diversity, density, patterns of use and preference between varying habitat 81 conditions. As both saltmarshes and mangroves have been found to host many fish 82 species (Mazumder et al. 2005a; Saintilan et al. 2007), and given the absence of 83 mangroves in Tasmania, measuring the diversity, density and patterns of fish use of 84 saltmarshes (where no adjoining mangrove habitat is present) is important. As well as 85 the absence of mangroves, Tasmania's saltmarshes differ in their seascape context to 86 those found in mainland Australia. In comparison, Tasmanian saltmarshes are situated slightly lower on the tidal frame (thus being subject to a different flooding regime)
and contain different vegetation assemblages compared to many of their mainland

- counterparts (Boon *et al.* 2015; Saintilan *et al.* 2009; Mount *et al.* 2010).
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91 An understanding of fish use is particularly important where saltmarshes have

- 92 declined most rapidly due to tidal restriction as part of agricultural development, as in
- 93 the Circular Head coast saltmarshes of north-west Tasmania (Prahalad 2014). These
- 94 low lying agricultural areas that are affected by salinization and flooding could easily
- be repaired in terms of tidal ventilation. The benefits of re-connecting tidal flows inthe form of increased fish production through expanded habitat would potentially
- 96 the form of increased fish production through expanded habitat would potentially 97 offset any loss in agricultural outputs, as well as provide additional ecosystem
- 98 services (Creighton *et al.* 2015; Kelleway *et al.* 2017; Wegscheidl *et al.* 2017).
- Saltmarsh rehabilitation would also assist in building resilience to climate change and
- 100 relative sea level rise (Prahalad *et al.* 2015).
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102 The following questions underpinned our Circular Head study: (1) what is the 103 diversity and density of fish in the saltmarshes? (2) are there any observable patterns 104 of fish use relative to location, tide cycle, water depth, diel time, temperature and 105 salinity? (3) is there differences in fish use between saltmarshes of varying condition? 106 (4) what are the implications for biodiversity repair and coastal management, and 107 what additional research and on-ground activities might be required? In addressing 108 these questions, the study also explored whether Tasmanian saltmarshes supported 109 different assemblages and densities of fish taxa compared to lower latitude Australian 110 sites.

111

112 Materials and methods

113 Study area

114 The Circular Head coastal area is located in the far north-west of Tasmania, between 115 Woolnorth Point and the small town of Stanley (Fig. 1). The area is well sheltered 116 from the high-energy wave climate of Bass Strait and contains an expansive seascape 117 matrix of tidal flats, seagrass beds, saltmarshes and Melaleuca ericifolia swamp 118 forests on the landward margin (Mount et al. 2010; Prahalad et al. 2015). The 119 saltmarshes in the Circular Head coastal area occupy 1326 ha, as part of 23 distinct 120 clusters associated with creek/river mouths, embayments, sheltered passages or tidal 121 islands, and account for nearly a quarter of all saltmarsh mapped across Tasmania 122 (Prahalad 2016). The area has a semi-diurnal tidal cycle with a mesotidal range of up 123 to 3.1 m, the largest on the Tasmanian coast (Donaldson et al. 2012). Within the tidal 124 frame, saltmarshes occur over a 0.5 m range in elevation and are flooded partially 125 during neap tides and almost fully during high spring tides (Mount et al. 2010). The 126 low marsh is characterised by succulent mats of Sarcocornia quinqueflora often co-127 occurring with Samolus repens, and about 10-20 cm high (when flooded). The high 128 marsh and back marsh areas are dominated by the succulent shrub Tecticornia 129 arbuscula often mixed with halophilic grasses and sedges, about 50-150 cm high.

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- 131 132

Fig. 1

M. ericifolia swamp forests dominate the landward margins of the tidal frame
 occupying the low lying coastal floodplain areas and competing with saltmarsh at the
 upper limits of the tidal extent. A large part of the swamp forests and the adjoining
 saltmarsh has, however, been cleared and drained for agricultural purposes, with over

137 25 km of levees built to restrict tidal flooding (Prahalad 2014). Earliest evidence of

138 levee building was observed from old aerial imagery dating from the late 1960s, while 139 the most extensive period of clearing and draining was during the 1980s. The

140 estimated absolute loss of saltmarsh between 1952 and 2006 is 219 ha (16%), with

- 141 752 ha (65%) of the remaining saltmarshes subject to impacts including clearing,
- 142 drainage ditching, cattle grazing and buffer zone removal (Prahalad 2014). Levee
- 143 building has continued, for example, with a 2 ha area of saltmarsh lost between 2013 144 and 2016 (unpublished data). The Circular Head coastal area has been specifically
- 145 selected for this study for having the largest extent of saltmarsh with rehabilitation 146 potential in the State. The area is also of considerable importance to commercial and 147 recreational fishers (Mount et al. 2010). There are also oyster farms in the area which depend on good water quality as part of a healthy seascape.
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150 Sampling methods

151 Methods used to sample fish in saltmarshes include fyke nets, seine nets, pop nets, lift 152 nets, block nets, flume nets, flume weir, drop samplers, traps, dip nets and hand 153 trawls, and also poisoning (Connolly 1999, 2009). Of these, pop nets are now used in 154 Australia more than other techniques (e.g. Connolly 2005; Mazumder et al. 2005b; 155 Saintilan *et al.* 2007), as they are easily portable for sampling replications and provide a density measure (fish per m⁻²) that is directly comparable to other studies 156 157 (Wegscheidl et al. 2017). Although studies have used different pop net types and 158 sampling regimes, the general tendency has been to use a larger sample area ($\sim 25 \text{ m}^{-2}$) to avoid small scale patchiness, with a fine mesh size (~2 mm) to catch juvenile fish 159 160 and a remotely controlled release. In this study, we employed four custom made buoyant floorless pop nets, each covering an area of 25 m^{-2} (with 5 m long x 1 m high 161 162 walls) and with a mesh size of 2 mm. The bottom of the net walls contained a lead-163 core rope that was tucked under the saltmarsh substrate and pegged down by 10-12 164 weed mat pins on each side. This helped avoid excessive soil disturbance (cf. 165 Connolly 2005). The top of the net walls contained a sleeve suitable for a 20 mm PVC 166 pipe that was inserted in-situ and sealed for floatation. The net was neatly folded 167 under the PVC pipe so that the installation sat flat on the marsh surface as much as 168 possible. Weights were placed on the PVC pipe to keep it from floating with the 169 incoming tide until the nets were ready to be popped. The installation was completed 170 during low tide and took about 60 mins per net with two people working in tandem.

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172 The four nets were used concurrently at the nearby paired sites of unaltered and 173 altered saltmarshes, located in Robbins Passage, Big Bay and Perkins Passage (see 174 Fig. 1). The three locations were 2.5-10 km apart from each other and selected on the 175 basis of being representative of the saltmarshes of the Circular Head coast. Unaltered 176 saltmarshes had no hydrological alterations due to levees and other human impacts 177 (such as drainage ditches, clearing, grazing), were surrounded by a contiguous native 178 buffer vegetation zone, and were relatively unfragmented being part of a larger 179 saltmarsh cluster. Altered marshes had significant hydrological alterations due to 180 levees and other human impacts (such as drainage ditches, clearing, grazing), had a 181 little to no native buffer vegetation being juxtaposed to agricultural land used largely 182 for cattle grazing, and belonged to highly fragmented saltmarsh clusters of variable 183 size (Table 1.).

- 184
- 185 Table 1.
- 186

187 Sampling procedure

188 At slack high tide, the fully installed nets were released remotely (10-15 m) by two 189 field personnel pulling the strings connected to the weights at the same time. The nets 190 popped instantaneously (\sim 1 second) and were then surveyed for entrapped fish, mostly at the downstream side(s) into which they were channelled as the tide receded. 191 192 Fish were collected at regular intervals using hand-held dip nets to mitigate loss due 193 to predation by birds and crabs inside the net. Some of the larger and more active 194 crabs were evicted from the nets to prevent predation on fish when the water levels 195 were low. Depending on the tide height, it took between 1-2 hrs for the flood tide to 196 recede fully from the marsh surface. A thorough final inspection was made before 197 concluding each sampling effort by checking all four walls and tiny depressions 198 inside the net for camouflaged species. Collected fish were identified in the field, 199 recorded and released. A few representative samples of each species were taken to 200 confirm field identification by fish experts (following Gomon et al. 2008). These fish were terminally anesthetised in the field using a lethal dose of AQUI-S[®], a 201 commercially available derivative of clove oil. Specimens were preserved 202 immediately into a solution of 95% ethanol. Size range measurements of the fish from 203 204 both the preserved samples and photographic evidence collected during field work 205 helped in inferring the likely age of the fish.

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207 Fish were sampled from four nets concurrently released in both unaltered and altered 208 sites, at two replicate nets per site. The replicates were located randomly on the marsh 209 flats and spaced no further than 25 m apart (cf. Thomas and Connolly 2001). 210 Sampling was conducted during both high tides (night and day) of the semi-diurnal 211 tidal cycle. The same procedure was repeated on successive days at the three study 212 locations, yielding 24 samples during the neap tide cycle in April 2017. Sampling 213 effort was doubled to 48 net releases in the following spring tide cycle in May 2017 214 following the same procedure. The neap tidal cycle samples were located near the 215 seaward edge of the marsh expecting lower water levels and the spring tidal cvcle 216 samples were located slightly higher on the marsh platform expecting higher water 217 levels (with distance to seaward edge proportional to the paired unaltered and altered 218 marshes). Water temperature, salinity and time of net release (diel time) were 219 recorded at each sampling location on all 12 sampling occasions. Water depth was 220 recorded at each net as the mean of maximum and minimum depth, as the marsh 221 surface was sloped.

223 Data analysis

224 Summary statistics were used to gain an overall impression of the fish community. 225 To gauge the completeness of the sampling, a species accumulation curve (collector's 226 curve) was produced using *specaccum* in the *vegan* library (Oksanen *et al.* 2011). 227 Samples taken when the maximum water depth was less than 5 cm (mean water depth 228 < 3 cm) were excluded from further analysis as they yielded no fish due to lack of 229 access. To explore the relationship between the environmental variables and fish 230 species abundance within the overall assemblage, we related four response variables -231 fish species richness per sample, fish catch per sample and the abundance of the two 232 most common species - using generalised linear models (GLMs) to a suite of 233 predictor environmental variables - location, condition status, tide cycle (spring vs 234 neap), diel phase (night vs day), water salinity and mean water depth. Since the 235 response variables were based on count data, Poisson or quasi-Poisson models with a 236 log link function were applied as appropriate. We used a Wilcoxon Rank Sum test to

- explore for differences in total catch between diel phase, tide cycle and saltmarshcondition.
- 239

240 The multiple response permutation procedure (MRPP) in *vegan* was used to test for 241 any significant difference between the unaltered and altered sites based upon their fish 242 assemblages. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity measure and 999 permutations were 243 employed. The MRPP statistic delta is the overall weighted mean of within-group 244 means of the pairwise dissimilarities among the sampling units. A is a chance-245 corrected estimate of the proportion of the distances explained by group identity, a 246 value analogous to a coefficient of determination in a linear model (Oksanen et al. 247 2011). The degree to which the fish assemblages varied between unaltered and altered 248 sites was assessed using nMDS ordination based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity 249 measure (Clarke and Warwick 2001). Fish counts were not transformed since the 250 range of values was not extreme. The stress level of 0.1909 in 2 dimensions was 251 acceptable (Quinn and Keogh 2002). Analyses were carried out in the R statistical 252 environment (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

254 **Results**

A total of 851 fish of 11 species from 8 families were caught (Table 2.). All the individuals caught were either juveniles or sub-adults. The species accumulation curve (Fig. 2) estimates a total of 12 species and suggests the number of samples collected was satisfactory to reveal most of the fish taxa present at the sites.

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260 The profile of the saltmarsh fish fauna reflected strong differences in the relative abundance of particular species (Fig. 3). The family Atherinidae contributed 3 species 261 262 and 74% of the total catch numbers, of which Atherinosoma microstoma and 263 Leptatherina presbyteroides were most abundant (57% and 16% respectively). Two 264 members of the family Gobiidae, Pseudogobius sp. and Nesogobius maccullochi, 265 contributed 3% and 2% of the total respectively. Three species, Aldrichetta forsteri 266 (Mugilidae), Arripis truttaceous (Arripidae) and Rhombosolea tapirina 267 (Pleuronectidae) are of direct commercial and recreational value (Lyle et al. 2014). 268 These fishery valued species contributed about 20% of the total catch. A. forsteri was both common and dominant, present in 24 (65%) of the 37 nets that caught fish and 269 270 made up 19% of the total catch. Palaemonid shrimps (*Palaemon* sp.) were observed in 271 most of the nets, sometimes in large numbers (~ 200) but not censused as the study 272 was restricted to finfish. Crabs were also observed in all of the nets and have been 273 inventoried for the Circular Head saltmarshes by Richardson et al. (1997).

- 274275 Table 2.
- 276
- 277 Fig. 2.
- 278
- 279 Fig. 3.280

The pop nets were very effective at catching fish with 37 of the 48 net releases returning between 3 and 69 fish per net. One of the nets failed in the Robbins Passage unaltered saltmarsh during the neap tide night-time sample. The mean density of fish caught with the exception of one net that failed to set properly was 72.4 fish per 100 m^{-2} (Table 2.). Because the maximum water depth was less than 5 cm (average water depth < 3 cm) on 5 occasions where the high tide mark did not fully extend to the area

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covered by the nets our sampling of population density is probably an under-estimate. When corrected for these 5 samples, the mean density is 83 fish per 100 m⁻². In addition, it is likely that Gobiidae were probably undersampled on occasions where they were hiding in crab holes well after the marsh flat had drained after the spring high tide. Mugilidae may also have been undersampled given their ability to jump, however, our regular sampling regime would have mitigated against this risk. We conclude the mean density of fish caught to be > 72 fish per 100 m⁻².

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295 The mean catch and species richness \pm SE per net/sample was 18.11 ± 2.58 individual 296 fish and 2.60 \pm 0.22 taxa respectively. Both the catch (r = 0.6113, p < 0.01) and species 297 richness (r = 0.5131, p < 0.01) were positively correlated with mean water depth. 298 However, there was no correlation between water salinity and either catch (r =299 0.0842, p > 0.05) or species richness (r = -0.0249, p > 0.05). The range in salinity 300 level was modest across the samples (33.1 to 36.6 ppt). Temperature ranged from 9 to 301 18.9 °C (mean of 14.4 °C), however this was not a significant variable. Only two of 302 the environmental variables were significant in the generalised linear models (Table 303 3). Fewer fish and slightly lower species richness were apparent in the daylight 304 sampling compared to night-time of the diel phase. Similarly, mean water depth had a 305 strong positive effect on all four response variables. Notably, A. microstoma was 306 caught in greater numbers in night-time samples (p < 0.001), while A. forsteri catch 307 was slightly higher at night-time (p < 0.05), both species responding positively to 308 water depth (p < 0.001). The effect of location was only noticeable in the case of A. 309 *forsteri* with marginally greater numbers recorded at Perkins Passage (p < 0.10).

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311 The Wilcoxon test confirmed that total catch per sample was related to the diel phase 312 (W = 296, p = 0.001). However, although more fish were caught during the spring 313 tide cycle (n = 526) than neap tide (n = 325), tide cycle (W = 169, p = 0.215) was not 314 a significant factor on total catch per sample. Similarly, more fish were caught in 315 altered sites (n = 493) compared to unaltered sites (n = 358), yet saltmarsh condition 316 (W = 260, p = 0.319) did not significantly affect total catch per sample. Water depth 317 was able to better explain catch numbers for both spring and neap tide cycles and for 318 altered and unaltered sites examined separately (Fig. 4a-b). 319

320 **Table 3**.

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322 323

324

Fig. 4a-b.

325 MRPP showed there was no significant difference between the unaltered and altered 326 sites based upon their fish assemblages (chance corrected within-group agreement A =327 -0.0120, based on observed delta = 0.6353 and expected delta = 0.6278, the 328 significance of delta = 0.917). Ordination results further confirmed that there were no 329 discernible differences in the fish assemblages between unaltered and altered sites 330 (Fig. 5).

331 332 Fig. 5.

333

334 Discussion

335 Fish species composition and density

336 As the initial study of fish assemblages of Tasmanian saltmarshes it provides an 337 excellent baseline for further investigations. The species encountered in this study 338 largely overlap with those reported from other temperate Australian saltmarshes 339 (Connolly 2009). The fish assemblage is dominated by species from the families 340 Atherinidae, Gobiidae and Mugilidae. Of the other common fish families reported in temperate Victorian (Crinall and Hindell 2004) and New South Wales saltmarshes 341 342 (Mazumder et al. 2005a, Mazumder et al. 2006b), Ambassidae, Gerridae and 343 Sparidae were absent because their geographic range does not extend to Tasmania. 344 Local species of the families Sillaginidae and Tetraodontidae were also not 345 encountered in our study, although, the tetraodontid Tetractenos glaber (Smooth 346 Toadfish), was observed adjacent to the nets both in Robbins Passage and Big Bay. 347 Notably, our study provided a rare record in Australian saltmarshes of a member of 348 the commercially and recreationally valuable family Arripidae. The two other species 349 of commercial and recreational value. A. forsteri and R. tapirina, are also found in 350 other temperate Australian saltmarshes. The relative abundance of A. forsteri in our 351 total catch (19%) is, however, comparatively much higher for a member of the 352 Mugilidae (cf. 2-6% of total catch by Crinall and Hindell 2004 using fyke nets in 353 Victoria, and by Mazumder et al. 2005a, 2005b using pop nets and Mazumder et al. 354 2006b using fyke nets in New South Wales). The variable sizes (~ 4-20 cm total 355 length) of individuals caught suggest this abundance is not related to life history 356 phases based on inferred age (Chubb et al. 1981).

357

358 In terms of species richness, the 11 species recorded in our single season of sampling 359 compares well with other temperate Australian studies. Reports range from 10 species 360 collected from fyke nets in Victoria (Crinall and Hindell 2004) to 14-15 species 361 collected from pop nets in New South Wales (Mazumder et al. 2005a, 2005b; 362 Saintilan et al. 2007). Comparable pop net studies from Queensland have reported 23-363 19 species (Thomas and Connolly 2001; Connolly 2005), indicating a latitudinal trend 364 in diversity of saltmarsh fish along the east coast of Australia (Table 4.). Another 365 latitudinal trend is the marked change in A. *microstoma* as the most numerically 366 dominant species in higher temperate latitudes in Tasmania (present study), Victoria 367 (Crinall and Hindell 2004) and South Australia (Bloomfield and Gillanders 2005), to 368 the ambassid Ambassis jacksoniensis (Port Jackson Glassfish), in lower temperate 369 latitudes in New South Wales (Mazumder et al. 2005a, 2005b; Platell and Freewater 370 2009). The similarity in the relative abundance of these two species at different 371 latitudes indicates an equivalence of ecosystem structure whereby functionally related 372 species perform comparable roles. The minor component of Gobiidae and Mugilidae 373 is also reflected in other studies.

374

Our reported density of > 72 fish per 100 m⁻² is higher than from other Australian 375 376 saltmarshes, including subtropical locations (Table 4.). This could be a seasonal 377 outcome where sampling in autumn returned high fish catches, although there is little 378 evidence for significant seasonal variations in fish on temperate saltmarshes in 379 Australia. Mazumder et al. (2005a) showed seasonal variation in fish abundance in 380 mangroves near Sydney, peaking in summer, but not in the case of the adjoining saltmarshes. Bloomfield and Gillanders (2005) also reported no significant 381 382 differences in fish richness and abundance in saltmarshes from South Australia 383 between months. A more plausible explanation for the high fish density reported in 384 this study could be the unique position of Tasmanian coastal saltmarshes as part of 385 seascapes where mangroves are absent. Consequently, Tasmanian saltmarshes occur

slightly lower on the tidal frame. In our study area with a mesotidal range,
saltmarshes are partially flooded even during neap tides unlike most mainland
Australian counterparts which only flood in spring tides (Bloomfield and Gillanders
2005; Connolly 2009). Saltmarshes of Tasmania would seem to provide a higher
habitat value for fish per hectare, due to longer availability of flooded habitat together

- 391 with the lack of any complementary habitat such as mangroves.
- 392
- **Table 4**.
- 394

395 Patterns of fish use and implications for tidal restoration

396 It is well documented that coastal saltmarsh rehabilitation through restoring tidal 397 flows ensures benefits for fish through expanded habitat (Roman et al. 2002; Raposa 398 and Talley 2012). Our study reinforces this expectation, firstly through the strong 399 effect that water depth has on fish density and richness found in this and some other 400 studies (Thomas and Connolly 2001; Connolly 2005). When tide-restricted areas are 401 open to flooding, they can accommodate the spread of a given volume of water 402 (entering the embayment or sheltered passage) over a greater surface area. Tidal 403 restoration, therefore, opens up more shallow, sheltered environments, rich in food 404 sources, preferred by juvenile and sub-adult fish species (e.g. A. forsteri and Mugil 405 cephalus, Sea Mullet: Chubb et al. 1981). Secondly, there was only a minor effect of 406 the sampling location on both fish richness and density. Given that the study area has 407 in excess of 25 km of levees traversing multiple freehold properties, coastal 408 rehabilitation works could be initiated wherever site specific opportunities arise with 409 likely benefits for local fish productivity through expanded habitat. While the 410 saltmarsh area already lost to clearing was 221 ha, a further 629 ha (55% of current 411 extent) is affected by impaired tidal flows (Prahalad 2014). These areas can benefit 412 from simple on ground works (e.g. levee breaching) aimed at tidal restoration.

413

414 In a broader seascape context, an ongoing debate on fisheries centres on the relative 415 importance of different habitat types, including saltmarshes, to the marine food web 416 (Kelleway et al. 2017). Only a few Australian studies have simultaneously compared 417 saltmarsh with other nearby habitats (mangroves, seagrass and unvegetated/open 418 water) with respect to fish use. Bloomfield and Gillanders (2005) noted that saltmarsh 419 had the least number of fish (a solitary A. microstoma for a saltmarsh area of 270 m 420 2), compared to mangroves, seagrass and unvegetated habitats of a South Australian 421 estuary. Similarly, Saintilan et al. (2007) reported fewer fish in a New South Wales 422 saltmarsh compared to adjacent mangrove and seagrass. The latter study however 423 showed that fish moved between these habitats and that saltmarsh plays both a 424 complementary role in terms of additional food resource and also a refuge role for 425 smaller fish during spring tides (when the seagrass habitat is 'exposed' to larger 426 predatory fish). Mazumder et al. (2005a) also reported more fish in mangroves 427 bordering saltmarsh in the same New South Wales location, although, acknowledged 428 that fish density was higher in the saltmarsh when corrected for water volume. A 429 common emphasis of these and some overseas studies (e.g. Valiela et al. 2000), has 430 been on the role of a permeable seascape matrix of adjacent habitats for fish to access 431 at varying timescales. The value of saltmarsh for fish and the marine food web is very 432 likely higher in the Tasmanian context because of the absence of mangroves.

- 433
- 434 Difference in fish use between unaltered and altered saltmarshes

435 This study is also the first in Australia to document differences in fish use between 436 paired unaltered and altered saltmarshes (Connolly 1999, 2009). Our findings indicate 437 that altered marshes can support high densities of fish and of comparable species 438 richness to unaltered marshes. One of the known reasons for high fish numbers in our 439 altered marshes could be due to the greater marsh to edge ratio, a product of habitat 440 fragmentation, allowing greater access to fish (Minello et al. 1994). A more 441 substantive reason, however, could be just that altered marshes can provide similar 442 habitat functions for fish use if they are subject to a natural tidal regime comparable to 443 its unaltered counterparts. There is considerable evidence, such as from temperate 444 North America, of restoring saltmarshes having similar fish habitat value to reference 445 sites (Raposa and Talley 2012). Further, re-connection of tide-restricted marshes has 446 been shown to return fish richness and density to levels comparable to unaltered ones 447 within one year (Roman et al. 2002). Indeed, our spring tide samples from altered 448 sites in Robbins Passage and Perkins Passage were both located immediately behind 449 the breached levees, and still returned high fish density and species richness. It must 450 be noted though that these altered sites had a similar tidal regime, vegetation and 451 crustacean activity to their paired unaltered sites (an indication of some functional 452 equivalence). A comparative study of three saltmarshes of the Sydney region 453 indicated that one of the marshes reclaimed from dredge spoil had significantly lower 454 diversity and abundance of fish, possibly due to lack of functional equivalence 455 (Mazumder et al. 2006b). The contrasting results from these two studies indicate an 456 unexplored threshold effect in saltmarsh condition, likely context specific (e.g. with 457 and without fringing mangroves), which can help explain relative fish habitat value 458 and guide tidal restoration efforts.

459

460 Implications for coastal management

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462 The priority for management must be the conservation of existing saltmarshes and 463 their tidal connectivity (e.g. Boon et al. 2015). The Boullanger Bay and Robbins Passage areas which are least affected by levees and associated clearing and drainage 464 465 ditching activities (see Fig. 1 and Prahalad 2014) are particularly significant. Targeted tidal restoration can be undertaken in Big Bay, Perkins Passage, and other nearby 466 467 areas of Duck Bay and West Inlet. In addition, rehabilitation of the buffering M. 468 *ericifolia* swamp forests could benefit the broader functioning of the local seascape, 469 through enhanced detrital pathways (e.g. Svensson et al. 2007), or reduced nutrient 470 stress on the seascape from the nearby beef and dairy farms (Holz 2009). 471 Rehabilitation of saltmarsh and adjacent swamp forests would also assist in mitigating 472 the effects of climate change and relative sea level rise already affecting the Circular 473 Head coastal area (Prahalad et al. 2015). Science communication is also essential. 474 Public understanding of both the high fish density and species richness in the 475 saltmarsh and of the links to commercial and recreational fisheries, including oyster 476 farming, would increase broad community motivation for seascape conservation and 477 repair (Creighton et al. 2015). North-west Tasmania is renowned for its popular 478 fishing culture, and this may well be an important and locally unexploited avenue for 479 stakeholder engagement in tidal restoration and coastal management (Wegscheidl et 480 al. 2017). 481

...

482 Conclusion

483 This study reveals a hitherto unrecognised aspect of Tasmanian saltmarshes and provides a foundation for further research coupled with rehabilitation efforts. Clearly 484 485 Tasmanian saltmarshes are important for our coastal biodiversity, providing nursery 486 grounds and key food chain elements to Tasmania's coastal fisheries. Sampling across 487 the year and similar surveys of other sites would expand our knowledge substantially. 488 Our expectation is that such studies would reinforce and possibly increase the 489 fisheries and marine biodiversity values of these coastal wetland systems. From a 490 repair perspective, this study also provides evidence that re-connecting tidal flows and 491 re-establishing wetland function and vegetation would deliver benefits to coastal 492 fisheries. Re-connecting tidal flows to marshes isolated by levees would markedly 493 expand the habitat suitable for fish use. This is despite the historically 'altered' 494 condition due to tidal isolation, clearing, drainage ditching and rough grazing. Should 495 Tasmania seek to optimise ecosystems services, marine biodiversity, fisheries 496 productivity and flow on economic outcomes then a major program of saltmarsh 497 repair should be initiated. Fish remain a compelling subject with broad resonance and 498 can be used as a surrogate for the broader values of ecosystem services that these 499 seascapes provide. Additional studies to document fish use of saltmarshes and the 500 benefits of protection and repair could raise much needed public awareness and 501 material support for saltmarsh repair.

502

503 **Conflict of interest**

This manuscript is an edited version of the same study available in a report form (see Creighton *et al.* 2017).

506

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508

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- 518
- 519

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| 710 | Figures and tables |
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| 712 | Fig. 1. The three saltmarsh study locations and their paired unaltered and altered sites |
| 713 | used in the Circular Head coastal area of north-west Tasmania. Base data from |
| 714 | theLIST, © State of Tasmania. |
| 715 | |
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Fig. 2. Species accumulation curve (with SD) for fish species sampled on the Circular
Head coast saltmarshes of north-west Tasmania, during April-May 2017.



https://www.nespmarine.edu.au/document/expanding-fish-productivity-tasmanian-saltmarsh-wetlands-through-tidal-reconnection-and

Fig. 3. Boxplot of the fish taxa sampled from the Circular Head coast saltmarshes,
north-west Tasmania. The boxes contain 50% of the observations, the median is
shown by a vertical line, the circles show the range of values. Common name codes

vised are YEM: Yellow-eye Mullet, SMH: Smallmouth Hardyhead, SLF: Silver Fish,

- 734 SF: Soldierfish, PHH: Pikehead Hardyhead, GG: Girdled Goby, GBF: Greenback
- 735 Flounder, EBG: Eastern Bluespot Goby, CON: Congolli, CGA: Common Galaxias,
- 736 AS: Australian Salmon.



Fish per sample

Fig. 4a-b. Relationships between fish catch per sample and mean water depth: (a) neap (n = 19; $r^2 = 0.763$; p < 0.001) and spring tide samples (n = 23; $r^2 = 0.137$; p = 0.083); (b) altered (n = 22; $r^2 = 0.265$; p < 0.05) and unaltered status (n = 20; $r^2 =$ 0.298; p < 0.05).







746 Fig. 5. nMDS ordination of the pop net samples based upon their fish communities

from 37 of the 48 net releases which caught fish. Stress in 2D = 0. 1909. Samples

from unaltered sites by closed circles, altered sites are represented by open circles.

749 Status labels are plotted at their respective centroids.



| Site | Condition c | lass and variables | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Location | Class | Levees ¹ | Buffer zone ² | Saltmarsh fragmentation ³ | Saltmarsh area ⁴ |
| Robbins Passage | Unaltered | Absent | Present | Absent | 12.1 ha |
| | Altered | Broken levees | Present but limited | Medium | 35.5 ha |
| Perkins Passage | Unaltered | Absent | Present | Medium | 13.5 ha |
| | Altered | Broken levees | Absent | High | 18.9 ha |
| Big Bay | Unaltered | Absent | Present but limited | Medium | 15 ha |
| | Altered | Intact levees | Absent | High | 1.7 ha |

 Table 1
 Condition of saltmarshes used in the study. Sites pairs were selected primarily based on the presence and absence of levees.

¹Broken levees are regularly breached by incoming tide.

²Buffer zone, e.g. *Melaleuca ericifolia* swamp forest.

³Degree of fragmentation of marsh and associated tidal creeks by levees since 1960's.

⁴Area of saltmarsh, contiguous but spread along the coast with a high marsh area to edge ratio.

Table 2Fish caught using custom made buoyant floorless pop nets on saltmarsh flats on the Circular Head coast of north-west Tasmania, duringApril-May 2017. Species identification and naming follows Gomon *et al.* (2008).

| | | Common | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-----------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--------|---------|-----------------|-----------|-------|---------|---------|------|---------|------|-------|------|
| Family | Genus/species | name | Contr | Contribution to catch | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | Robbins Passage | | | | Perkins Passage | | | | Big Bay | | | | Total | |
| | | | Unaltered | | Altere | Altered | | Unaltered | | Altered | | ered | Altered | | | |
| | | | Total | % | Total | % | Total | % | Total | % | Total | % | Total | % | Total | % |
| | Atherinosoma microstoma | Smallmouth | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Atherinidae | (Günther, 1861) | Hardyhead | 37 | 55.2 | 129 | 64.2 | 21 | 34.4 | 47 | 34.8 | 146 | 63.5 | 102 | 65.0 | 482 | 56.6 |
| | Kestratherina esox | Pikehead | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Klunzinger, 1872) | Hardyhead | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1.5 | 3 | 4.9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 3.8 | 12 | 1.4 |
| | Leptatherina presbyteroides | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Richardson, 1843) | Silver Fish | 7 | 10.4 | 50 | 24.9 | 6 | 9.8 | 15 | 11.1 | 39 | 17.0 | 18 | 11.5 | 135 | 15.9 |

| Gobiidae | <i>Nesogobius maccullochi</i> (Hoese and Larson, 2006) | Girdled Goby Eastern | 2 | 3.0 | 2 | 1.0 | 2 | 3.3 | 7 | 5.2 | 5 | 2.2 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 2.1 |
|-------------------------------------|---|----------------------------|------|------|-------|-----|------|------|------|------|-----|------|-------|------|------|------|
| | Pseudogobius sp. | Bluespot Goby | 10 | 14.9 | 7 | 3.5 | 1 | 1.6 | 4 | 3.0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 3.8 | 28 | 3.3 |
| Mugilidae | Aldrichetta forsteri (Valenciennes, 1836) | Yellow-eye Mullet* | 10 | 14.9 | 10 | 5.0 | 27 | 44.3 | 50 | 37.0 | 40 | 17.4 | 23 | 14.6 | 160 | 18.8 |
| Pleuronectidae | Rhombosolea tapirina (Günther, 1862) | Greenback Flounder* | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Pseudaphritidae | <i>Pseudaphritis urvillii</i> (Valenciennes, 1832) | Congolli | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 3.7 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.6 | 6 | 0.7 |
| Tetrarogidae | Gymnapistes marmoratus (Cuvier, 1829) | Soldierfish | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.6 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Arripidae | Arripis truttaceus (Cuvier, 1829) | Australian Salmon* | 1 | 1.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Galaxiidae | Galaxias maculatus (Jenyns, 1842) | Common Galaxias | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1.6 | 6 | 4.4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0.8 |
| Total catch per sample type | | | 67 | | 201 | | 61 | | 135 | | 230 | | 157 | | 851 | |
| Fish density per 100m ⁻² | | | 38.3 | | 100.5 | | 30.5 | | 67.5 | | 115 | | 78.5 | | 72.4 | |
| Fish density per | 100m ⁻² (excluding nets with lea | ss than 5 cm | | | 100 5 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| water depth) | | | 44.7 | | 100.5 | | 40.7 | | 67.5 | | 115 | | 104.7 | | 83.0 | |
| The asterisk (*) i | ndicates species of recreationa | I and | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

commercial interest (Lyle *et al.* 2014).

Table 3. Coefficients for GLMs relating fish species richness, catch and the abundance of the two most common fish species to environmental variables. Values have not been exponentiated. The model for species richness uses Poisson regression, the other response variables follow a quasi-Poisson distribution. WDmean = mean water depth. Significance levels are indicated as: *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, . p < 0.10.

| | Estimate | SE | t value | Pr (> t) | signif. |
|---------------------------|----------|--------|---------|---------------------------|---------|
| Species Richness | | | | | |
| (Intercept) | -1.7124 | 8.7227 | -0.196 | 0.8444 | |
| Location: Perkins Passage | 0.0653 | 0.3400 | 0.192 | 0.8476 | |
| Location: Robbins Passage | 0.0750 | 0.3618 | 0.207 | 0.8357 | |
| Status: Unaltered | -0.0613 | 0.1858 | -0.330 | 0.7415 | |
| Tide: Spring | -0.0782 | 0.4972 | -0.157 | 0.8751 | |
| Phase: Light | -0.6144 | 0.2487 | -2.471 | 0.0135 | * |
| Salinity | 0.0660 | 0.2369 | 0.279 | 0.7806 | |
| WDmean | 0.0204 | 0.0077 | 2.639 | 0.0083 | ** |
| Catch Numbers | | | | | |
| (Intercept) | -7.5104 | 7.9607 | -0.943 | 0.3510 | |
| Location: Perkins Passage | 0.0757 | 0.3289 | 0.230 | 0.8190 | |
| Location: Robbins Passage | 0.1768 | 0.3317 | 0.533 | 0.5970 | |
| Status: Unaltered | -0.1332 | 0.1735 | -0.768 | 0.4470 | |
| Tide: Spring | 0.0933 | 0.4700 | 0.198 | 0.8440 | |
| Phase: Light | -1.4914 | 0.2993 | -4.983 | 0.0000 | *** |
| Salinity | 0.2643 | 0.2158 | 1.225 | 0.2280 | |
| WDmean | 0.0458 | 0.0080 | 5.719 | 0.0000 | *** |
| Smallmouth Hardyhead | | | | | |
| (Intercept) | -5.5752 | 9.0677 | -0.615 | 0.5420 | |
| Location: Perkins Passage | -0.5936 | 0.4059 | -1.462 | 0.1520 | |

| Location: Robbins Passage | -0.0056 | 0.3742 | -0.015 | 0.9880 | |
|---------------------------|----------|---------|--------|--------|-----|
| Status: Unaltered | -0.1959 | 0.2030 | -0.965 | 0.3410 | |
| Tide: Spring | -0.2365 | 0.5553 | -0.426 | 0.6730 | |
| Phase: Light | -1.5162 | 0.3424 | -4.429 | 0.0001 | *** |
| Salinity | 0.1989 | 0.2461 | 0.808 | 0.4240 | |
| WDmean | 0.0521 | 0.0097 | 5.395 | 0.0000 | *** |
| Yellow-eye Mullet | | | | | |
| (Intercept) | -10.0165 | 18.8957 | -0.530 | 0.5991 | |
| Location: Perkins Passage | 1.4328 | 0.7216 | 1.985 | 0.0542 | |
| Location: Robbins Passage | 0.1393 | 0.9812 | 0.142 | 0.8878 | |
| Status: Unaltered | 0.3963 | 0.3192 | 1.242 | 0.2218 | |
| Tide: Spring | 1.1728 | 0.9923 | 1.182 | 0.2444 | |
| Phase: Light | -3.5222 | 1.3271 | -2.654 | 0.0114 | * |
| Salinity | 0.2367 | 0.5092 | 0.465 | 0.6446 | |
| WDmean | 0.0576 | 0.0146 | 3.946 | 0.0003 | *** |

Table 4. Compilation of fish data and key study design attributes from existing literature that report using pop nets on saltmarsh flats in Australia (cf. Connolly 2009; Wegscheidl *et al.* 2017). Given all previous pop nets studies have been done only during spring tides, we report our spring tide samples separately to assist comparison.

| | | | No of | Fish caught in total | Diversity (number of | Mean density (fish per | Pop net size | Temporal context (sampling | Spatial context (with | Mean water depth (proxy for |
|-------------|-------|---------------|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Region | State | Reference | releases | numbers | species) | 100m2) | (m2) | month) | mangroves etc.) | volume) |
| | | Thomas and | | | | | | August, | | |
| Subtropical | QLD | Connolly 2001 | 134 | 577 | 23 | 17.2 | 5 x 5 | January | Flats | 4-72cm |
| | | Connolly 2005 | 88 | 1073 | 19 | 48.8 | 5 x 5 | May, | Flats, adjacent | 6-48cm |

| | | | | | | | | December | runnels and mangrove-lined creeks | |
|-----------|-----|------------------------------|----|------|----|------|-----------|---------------|---|--------------|
| | | Mazumder et al. | | | | | | Year round | Flats, adjacent | |
| Temperate | NSW | 2005a | 48 | 818 | 14 | 56 | 5.5 x 5.5 | (monthly) | mangroves | Not reported |
| | | Mazumder et al. | | | | | | Year round | Flats, adjacent | |
| | | 2005b | 48 | 766 | 15 | 52.8 | 5.5 x 5.5 | (monthly) | mangroves | Not reported |
| | | | | | | | | | Flats, adjacent | |
| | | | | | | | | Year round | mangroves and | |
| | | Saintilan et al. 2007 | 36 | ~568 | 14 | 52.2 | 5.5 x 5.5 | (monthly) | seagrass | Not reported |
| | | | | | | | | | Flats with | |
| | | | | | | | | | creeks, adjacent | |
| | ~ . | | | | | | | | mangroves and | |
| | SA | Connolly <i>et al</i> . 1997 | 48 | 19 | 2 | 4.4 | 3 x 3 | April-July | seagrass | 10-30cm |
| | | | | | | | | July, August, | Flats, adjacent | |
| | | Bloomfield and | | | | | | December- | mangroves and | |
| | | Gillanders 2005 | 30 | 1 | 1 | 0.4 | 3 x 3 | February | seagrass | >70cm |
| | TAS | Present study | 48 | 851 | 11 | 72.4 | 5 x 5 | April, May | Flats | 0-64cm |
| | | Present study (neap | | | | | | | | |
| | TAS | tide only) | 24 | 325 | 9 | 56.5 | 5 x 5 | April | Flats | 0-38cm |
| | | Present study (spring | | | | | | | | |
| | TAS | tide only) | 24 | 526 | 9 | 87.7 | 5 x 5 | May | Flats | 2-64cm |