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2 **Artificial coastal lagoons at solar salt-working sites: a network of habitats for**
3 **specialised, protected and alien biodiversity.**

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5 Roger J H Herbert¹, Lee G Broderick⁵, Kathryn Ross², Chris Moody³, Tamira Cruz⁴,
6 Leo Clarke¹ & Richard A Stillman¹

7
8 ¹Centre for Conservation Ecology and Environmental Science, Dept. Life and Environmental
9 Sciences, Faculty of Science and Technology, Bournemouth University, Dorset BH12 5BB,
10 UK.

11
12 ²British Trust for Ornithology, The Nunnery, Thetford, Norfolk, IP24 2PU, UK.

13
14 ³Dept. Animal & Plant Sciences, Alfred Denny Building, University of Sheffield, Western
15 Bank, Sheffield S10 2TN, UK.

16
17 ⁴Departamento de Biologia & CESAM, Universidade de Aveiro, Campus de Santiago, 3810-
18 193 Aveiro, Portugal.

19
20 ⁵Oxford Archaeology, Janus House, Osney Mead, Oxford. OX2 0ES, UK
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33 **Abstract**

34

35 There are concerns that novel structures might displace protected species, facilitate the spread
36 of non-indigenous species, or modify native habitats. It is also predicted that ocean warming
37 and the associated effects of climate change will significantly increase biodiversity loss
38 within coastal regions. Resilience is to a large extent influenced by the magnitude of dispersal
39 and level of connectivity within and between populations. Therefore it is important to
40 investigate the distribution and ecological significance of novel and artificial habitats, the
41 presence of protected and alien species and potential vectors of propagule dispersal. The
42 legacy of solar salt-making in tropical and warm temperate regions is regionally extensive
43 areas of artificial hypersaline ponds, canals and ditches. Yet the broad-scale contribution of
44 salt-working to a network of benthic biodiversity has not been fully established. Artisanal,
45 abandoned and historic salt-working sites were investigated along the Atlantic coast of
46 Europe between southern England (50°N) and Andalucía, Spain (36°N). Natural lagoons are
47 scarce along this macrotidal coast and are vulnerable to environmental change; however it is
48 suspected that avian propagule dispersal is important in maintaining population connectivity.
49 During bird migration periods, benthic cores were collected for infauna from 70 waterbodies
50 across 21 salt-working sites in 5 coastal regions. Bird ringing data were used to investigate
51 potential avian connectivity between locations. Lagoonal specialist species, some of
52 international conservation importance, were recorded across all regions in the storage
53 reservoirs and evaporation ponds of continental salinas, yet few non-indigenous species were
54 observed. Potential avian propagule transport and connectivity within and between extant
55 salt-working sites is high and these artificial habitats are likely to contribute significantly to a
56 network of coastal lagoon biodiversity in Europe.

57

58 **KEY WORDS**

59

60 Climate change, Transitional waters, Coastal lagoons, Artificial habitats, Avian connectivity,
61 Brackish lagoons, Structures, Environmental change, Non-indigenous species, Salinas. Ocean
62 Sprawl

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65 **1.0 Introduction**

66

67 It is predicted that ocean warming and the associated effects of climate change will
68 significantly increase biodiversity loss within coastal regions (Hawkins *et al.* 2012; 2016).
69 Transitional waters, which include estuaries, rias and lagoons, are highly productive and
70 extremely important ecosystems that support a wide range of vital services (Munari & Mistri,
71 2008; Basset *et al.* 2013). Resilience to biodiversity loss is, to a large extent, influenced by
72 the magnitude of dispersal and level of connectivity within and between populations. Yet
73 transitional waters are relatively closed environments and therefore particularly vulnerable
74 and exposed to environmental change. Associated with the development of coastal regions is
75 the creation of novel structures and artificial habitats that become colonised by species
76 assemblages that can differ with native populations. Interactions between native and artificial
77 habitats in coastal regions and their potential contribution to species population resilience are
78 poorly understood and mostly consider hard structures communities (Airoldi & Beck, 2007;
79 Buleri & Airoldi, 2008; Airoldi *et al.* 2009; Mineur *et al.* 2012; Herbert *et al.* 2017). Here we
80 consider the importance of soft-sediment benthic communities within artificial lagoons at
81 salt-working sites along the Atlantic European seaboard and whether they contain species of
82 biodiversity importance and contribute to a network of Coastal lagoon habitat.

83

84 *1.1.Coastal lagoons*

85

86 Coastal lagoons are important features and habitats within transitional water ecosystems
87 where connectivity is particularly constrained. They have been defined as ‘shallow bodies of
88 enclosed, brackish or salt water separated from an adjacent coastal sea by a barrier of
89 sedimentary material’ (Barnes, 1980, 1989a), and artificial coastal lagoons also occur
90 (Bamber *et al.* 1992). Globally, lagoons comprise 13% of the coastline, yet only 5% of the
91 European coast is lagoonal, the smallest proportion of any continent (Cromwell, 1971:
92 Barnes, 2000). In the Mediterranean region lagoons are relatively numerous and of significant
93 area (Chauvet, 1988; Tagliapietra & Volpi Ghirardini, 2006; Zaldivar *et al.* 2006). However,
94 in macrotidal regions, such as the North-east Atlantic, natural lagoons are unusual and
95 particularly restricted in distribution (Barnes, 1980, 1989a, 1995). In a changing climate,
96 coastal lagoons may experience significant variation in rainfall, temperature and fluctuations
97 in sea level that could change the salinity and thermal regime of the habitat. The rate of
98 colonisation and establishment of populations at new and potentially distant habitat will be
99 very low as water exchange between lagoons and with the open sea can be infrequent
100 (Ghezzeo *et al.* 2015) and propagule dispersal distance in the water column is small.
101 Establishing mechanisms of connectivity between lagoonal habitats is a conservation priority
102 (Barnes, 1988) and for isolated habitat generally has been an enduring problem in
103 biogeography (MacArthur & Wilson, 1967; Lomolino, 2000; Nolby *et al.* 2015).

104

105 There is variation in the degree of specialisation to transitional waters, with euryhaline and
106 eurythermal species being adapted to cope with a wide range of salinity and temperature,
107 respectively. Yet with increasing specialisation and adaptation to a narrower range of abiotic
108 conditions, such as those that can be experienced within lagoonal habitats, there is an

109 increasing risk of population decline and extinction. There has been much debate about the
110 existence of specialisation and diversity within transitional and brackish waters (Remane,
111 1934, 1940; Barnes, 1989ab, Bamber *et al.* 1992, Barnes, 1994; Cognetti & Maltagliati, 2000;
112 Telesh *et al.* 2011); however for coastal lagoons of the British Isles, Barnes (1989b)
113 recognised the presence of 38 specialist lagoonal species i.e. species more characteristic of
114 lagoon-like habitats than of freshwater, estuarine brackish waters or the sea. These comprise
115 a wide range of invertebrate groups, including insects, algae and plants belonging to the
116 charophyceae. In a survey of 166 British coastal lagoons, Bamber *et al.* (1992) found that
117 lagoons showed greater environmental variability than estuarine waters and the open sea and
118 identified six suites of species that included euryhaline lagoonal specialists, and stenohaline
119 marine lagoonal specialists common in southern Britain. Invertebrate and plant lagoonal
120 specialists differ from estuarine species in their adaptation to the stresses associated with
121 reduced tidal exchange, including hypoxia, thermal and pH stratification, and more extreme
122 temporal variation in temperature and salinity. Tolerance to these conditions ensures their
123 survival in these habitats where competition and predation from marine and estuarine species
124 is reduced (Bamber *et al.* 1992).

125

126 In the United Kingdom and Ireland, sites containing stenohaline marine lagoonal specialist
127 species are particularly scarce and given high conservation status (Barnes, 1989a; Bamber *et*
128 *al.* 1992 Gilliland & Sanderson, 2000; Joyce *et al.* 2005; Beer & Joyce, 2013; JNCC, 2015).
129 As these sites are vulnerable to being lost as a result of coastal development and climatic
130 changes there is an imperative to establish mechanisms of dispersal of lagoonal specialists
131 and the distribution of potential habitat to ensure adequate population connectivity. Many of
132 these lagoonal species may have found refugia in southern Europe and the Mediterranean
133 basin during the last glacial period (Barnes, 1994). Literature searches of the distribution of

134 six ‘specialised’ lagoonal invertebrate species of conservation importance in the UK (Table
135 1) indicated that they also primarily occupy lagoonal habitat and brackish waters throughout
136 their range, which extends from the Mediterranean and Baltic Sea north and west to the
137 British Isles. If larger source populations of these species are present on European coasts then
138 it is important to identify habitats and evidence of potential dispersal vectors that could
139 facilitate species colonisation, establishment and range expansion in a changing climate.

140

141 1.2. Potential avian mediated dispersal

142

143 It has been proposed that successful medium and long-distance dispersal of lagoonal
144 specialists must rely on avian and anthropogenic transport (Barnes, 1988). Several species
145 e.g. *Gammarus insensibilis*, juvenile *Cerastoderma glaucum*, *Nematostella vectensis* and
146 *Idotea chelipes* are found within floating masses of the filamentous algae *Cladophora* sp. and
147 *Chaetomorpha linum*, and dispersal could be enabled by its attachment to bird feet (Barnes,
148 1988; Sheader *et al.* 1997). The presence of internal and external invertebrate propagules and
149 their potential for long-distance dispersal has been demonstrated for several species of
150 migratory birds (Green & Figuerola 2005; Sánchez *et al.* 2007; Brochet *et al.* 2010; Casper *et*
151 *al.* 2012). Geographical discontinuities in the genetic structure of the lagoon cockle
152 (*Cerastoderma glaucum*) and experiments associated with its potential avian transportation
153 support long-distance dispersal by birds (Tarnowska *et al.* 2010; 2012ab; Sromek *et al.*
154 2016). Furthermore, there have been observations of migratory shorebirds flying with the
155 cockle *C. edule* clamped to their toes (Green & Figuerola, 2005). Indirect genetic evidence
156 supports avian long-distance dispersal of the lagoon mud snail *Ecrobia ventrosa* in Lake
157 Sawa, an inland brackish lake in Iraq (Haase *et al.* 2009). Viable eggs of both native
158 parthenogenetic brine shrimp (*Artemia*) and invasive North American *Artemia. franciscana*

159 were found within faeces of migratory wading birds feeding on salinas (salt-working ponds)
160 in the Algarve (Portugal) and Cadiz (Spain) (Green *et al.* 2005).

161

162 If waterfowl are a likely vector for the dispersal of these species, then along the Atlantic coast
163 of Europe, the spring and autumn migration of an estimated 15.5 million wading birds along
164 the East Atlantic flyway (Stroud *et al.* 2004) may provide opportunity for local, regional and
165 long-distance dispersal of specialist and non-specialist lagoonal species. There are few
166 natural lagoons along the macrotidal Atlantic coast of Europe and distances between
167 potentially suitable sites are large (Figure 1). However there remain extensive clusters of
168 active salt-working sites (salinas) around estuaries and bays that have saline ponds of varied
169 sizes and which are frequented by large numbers of water fowl. Smaller, artisanal salinas
170 occur in France, Portugal and Spain and more intensive industrial-scale salinas occur in
171 southern Iberia. Relatively little is known about the broad-scale patterns of benthic
172 invertebrate assemblages of continental Atlantic salinas and whether they harbour significant
173 populations of specialised lagoonal fauna and plants. With the demise of artisanal salt-
174 working, increasing abandonment and economic diversification, large areas of potential
175 habitat are threatened (Rodrigues *et al.* 2011). On the south coast of England, a few salt-
176 working ponds known as ‘salterns’ that fell in to disuse in the 19th Century, have been
177 modified by the creation of higher embankments where exchanges of sea water are managed
178 via sluices. These sites are now classified as coastal lagoons and harbour protected lagoonal
179 specialist species.

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184 *1.3.Hypothesis and Objectives*

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186 Our main research question is, given the paucity of natural lagoons along the European
187 Atlantic seaboard, is there a network of artificial lagoon habitat that could facilitate both
188 within and cross-regional colonisation of specialist lagoonal species? We hypothesise that
189 salt-working sites could provide this habitat as they are currently prevalent along this
190 coastline which is frequented by migratory wading birds that may act as dispersal vectors.

191

192 We have three main objectives:

193

194 (i) Characterise and compare habitats and benthic species assemblages at salt-working
195 sites in different locations and regions of the north-east Atlantic coast. It is important
196 to compare habitats to establish suitability of establishment of lagoonal specialist
197 species.

198

199 (ii) Compare the abundance of specialist lagoonal species between habitat types,
200 locations and regions. This is important as some habitats in salinas are in decline and
201 gaps in any regional network will impact on connectivity. Some of these species are
202 of international conservation importance, while the spread of non-native species is
203 also of concern and interest.

204

205 (iii) Evaluate evidence for potential avian long distance dispersal of lagoonal species that
206 could maintain connectivity, colonisation and persistence of populations within and
207 at the species range periphery.

208

209

210 **2.0 Materials and Methods**

211

212

213 *2.1 Study area and the salt-making process*

214

215

216 The study extended along the Atlantic coast of Europe (Figure 1) between southern England

217 (50° N) and Andalucía, Spain (36° N). This is a warm-temperate region, although the central

218 southern part of England is at a boundary with cooler Arctic-Boreal conditions that extend

219 from the North Sea (Forbes, 1858; Southward *et al.*1995). Along this coast, there are

220 historical salt-working sites in southern England, clusters of smaller, artisanal salinas in

221 France, Portugal and Spain and more intensive industrial-scale salinas occur in southern

222 Iberia. Coastal sites can consist of local yet sometimes large-scale interventions of intertidal

223 and maritime habitats that have created extensive areas of mud embankment, channels, canals

224 and saline ponds of various sizes. Although salt-making processes vary, in southern Europe it

225 typically involves three types of pond that are constructed in the ground at different levels to

226 enable the flow of water between them. The ponds and reservoirs of artisanal salinas are lined

227 with clay and separated by mud embankments. In the springtime, sea water either flows

228 through a sluice opened at high tide or is pumped into a large storage reservoir. During the

229 main salt making-season (April-September) water is channelled via sluices in to evaporation

230 pans and then finally into the crystallisation ponds, where the salt concentration increases to

231 near saturation point (Masero, 2003; Rodrigues *et al.* 2011). The brine is eventually

232 discharged or is pumped in to smaller crystallisation ponds where further evaporation occurs

233 and the salt is harvested. In the Bay of Cadiz, water from the main storage reservoir circulates

234 around narrow convoluted channels where it evaporates and is finally diverted in to the

235 crystallisation pans. Salinity in the storage reservoirs is typically between 30-60 ‰ and >200

236 ‰ in the crystallisation ponds (Amiral & Costa 1999; Masero, 2003). Diagrams of two

237 selected sites that illustrate the types and proximity of the different water bodies are shown in
238 Supplementary Information (S1). At active salinas, winter maintenance may involve
239 drainage, cleaning and repairs to the ponds, pans and reservoirs. In the British Isles, there is
240 no extant solar salt-making and the only legacy of a ‘partial-solar’ process is the remains of a
241 few ‘salterns’ on the south coast of England. At these sites, solar evaporation was attempted
242 in favourable summers prior to boiling the remainder of the brine to produce salt (Lloyd,
243 1967; Tubbs, 1999). This process was discontinued in the late 19th Century and many of the
244 remaining structures and embankments are modified or incorporated within coastal protection
245 schemes.

246

247 Samples were obtained from active and abandoned continental sites that were private
248 artisanal salinas or open salt-working museums (Table 2). One salina at Figueira da Foz
249 (Portugal) had diversified to grow *Salicornia*. Large industrial-scale salt-working sites in
250 Andalucía were excluded from the study due to access difficulties. On the south coast of
251 England, two artificial lagoons (Brownsea Island lagoon and Bembridge lagoon) are in very
252 close proximity to known historical salterns were included, but where salt-working has not
253 been confirmed. These sites are of comparable size and known to have similar physical
254 characteristics to the modified and enlarged historical salterns (Bamber et al. 1992; Herbert et
255 al. 2010). Photographs of selected sites illustrating types of water body are presented as
256 Supplementary Information (S2)

257

258 2.2 *Field sampling*

259

260 The survey period coincided with shorebird migration to ensure that sampled species or
261 smaller propagules could potentially be attached to or ingested by birds and potentially be
262 dispersed to other areas. Sites in southern England, France and northern Portugal were

263 sampled in March and April 2011 whereas southern Portugal and Andalucía (Spain) was
264 sampled in April 2012. For seasonal comparison, samples from the English and French sites
265 were also sampled in September 2011.

266

267 To characterise species assemblages, seven water bodies (ponds) were sampled in each of
268 two locations within five regions along the European coast (Table 2). At each location, the
269 seven accessible water bodies were sampled across two salinas; however in location ‘Solent
270 South’ a third site was sampled to ensure an equivalent number of ponds from the location.
271 Ponds sampled were storage reservoirs, abandoned reservoirs, the 1st evaporation pans at
272 salinas and the modified salterns and artificial lagoons on the south coast of England. At
273 active salinas, sampling of storage reservoirs was prioritised as they are the largest water
274 bodies with a salinity range most likely to be similar to natural lagoons. However, at any
275 active salina, storage reservoirs are the least numerous type of water body, so 1st evaporation
276 pans and abandoned reservoirs were also sampled to ensure adequate replication of
277 potentially suitable habitat. Crystallisation ponds at active salinas were not sampled as these
278 were too small and hypersaline in summer for a meaningful comparison with other larger
279 lagoonal habitats and had often been drained over the winter.

280

281 At each pond, three benthic core samples were obtained for invertebrates using a 10cm
282 diameter hand-held suction-corer to a sediment depth of 15 cm; (a total of 210 cores were
283 taken across the 70 ponds). The number of cores was limited to 21 per location as there were
284 restrictions on the number of cores permitted at protected and privately owned sites. All core
285 samples were processed using a 0.5mm sieve and retained material was immediately
286 preserved in labelled pots containing buffered 4% formalin in seawater. At each pond, a
287 hand-sample of macrophyte vegetation was washed through the sieve and invertebrates

288 retained and preserved. A qualitative survey for swimming macrofauna was also carried out
289 in each pond using a 1 mm mesh hand net. A sediment core sample from each pond was
290 taken for analysis of total organic content and particle size distribution. Field measurements
291 of salinity and water temperature were measured using a YSI portable hand-held meter.
292 When possible, maximum salinity values from each water-body were obtained from site
293 records. Water depth was measured with a metre rule and the macrophyte cover in each pond
294 was estimated by eye. Macroalgae of genera *Ulva* and *Cladophora* were not were identified
295 to species level.

296

297 *2.3 Laboratory analysis*

298

299 Preserved samples were washed in clean seawater and all invertebrates were picked out of the
300 material under a dissecting stereo microscope and placed within a separate labelled tube
301 containing 70% industrial methylated spirit (IMS). All fauna within each sample was
302 identified to species level and the total number of individuals of each taxon was counted.
303 Nomenclature is according to the World Register of Marine Species (WORMS, 2017).

304

305 *2.4 Sediment analysis*

306

307 Sediment samples were placed in a muffle furnace at 550°C for 48 hours for the
308 determination of sediment organic content by loss on ignition. Particle size distribution of all
309 sediment samples was determined by measuring the proportion of each fraction retained on a
310 stack of standard sieves after shaking.

311

312

313 *2.5 Invertebrate data analysis*

314

315 The total number of invertebrates of each species recorded within the three benthic cores
316 from each pond was combined. The main focus of analysis was the presence of specialist
317 species in the different types of pond sampled and the characterisation of assemblages at
318 scales of 'Location' and Region'.

319

320 Differences in numbers of seven specialist lagoonal species (Table 1), representing three
321 phyla, were measured using ANOVA. Variation in assemblages at location and regional
322 scales, were analysed using one-way ANOSIM performed separately using the 'adonis'
323 function in R-package 'vegan' (Oksanen *et al.* 2007). To partition the variation in community
324 at each of the location and regional scales to environmental covariates, a permutational
325 analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was performed on a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index
326 using sqrt transformed data. Significantly correlated variables ($p < 0.05$) were removed from
327 the analysis. A discriminant Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP) was also
328 carried out in PRIMER-e on the Bray-Curtis similarity matrix (Anderson *et al.*, 2008). The
329 CAP process was run separately to characterise those differences between locations and
330 regions.

331

332 *2.6 Potential avian connectivity*

333

334 To establish the likelihood of connectivity between coastal salt-working locations, bird ring
335 recovery data was obtained through the European Union for Bird Ringing (EURING) Data
336 Bank (du Feu *et al.* 2009; EURING, 2016). Recovery data was obtained from the area within
337 the EURING Place Code closest to the survey salinas and lagoons as possible. Not all of

338 these records will have been from salt-working sites, although ringing of migratory coastal
339 birds in these areas is often carried out in salinas. Data from the entire EURING data base
340 was obtained for migratory water bird species known to frequent the salinas and lagoons:
341 Eurasian spoonbill (*Platalea leucorodia*), Greater flamingo (*Phoenicopterus roseus*), Black-
342 winged stilt (*Himantopus himantopus*), Black-tailed godwit (*Limosa limosa*), Pied avocet
343 (*Recurvirostra avosetta*) and Common redshank (*Persicaria maculosa*). From the data base,
344 the number of sightings or captures of ringed birds of each species in a salt-working area and
345 later recovered or re-sighted, either in the same or a different area was recorded.

346

347 **3.0 Results**

348

349 *3.1 Environmental data*

350

351 At active continental sites, salt production had yet to commence when surveys were
352 conducted in March and April. However temperatures within some Iberian reservoirs had
353 already reached 31°C and salinities were in excess of 50 ‰. Water depth in the different
354 ponds varied from 5-50cm. The reservoirs at salinas surveyed on Île de Ré and Île d'Oléron
355 (France South) were significantly smaller than in other regions. The sediment was >90% clay
356 at half of the sites surveyed and remaining sites contained $\geq 10\%$ sand, with an exceptionally
357 high sand content in the UK sites at Brownsea and Lymington (53.8%). Mean organic content
358 was <10% for all sites with the exception of 29% at Figueira da Foz (Portugal). Macrophyte
359 cover was very variable within locations and regions and mostly consisted of green algae
360 *Ulva* spp. *Cladophora* or *Cheatomorpha linum*. The highest mean macrophyte cover occurred
361 at Figueira da Foz (mean 77%) and Île de Ré (mean 50%) (France-South), and the lowest
362 macrophyte cover occurred at the Algarve where most sites had $\leq 1\%$ cover. Abiotic data
363 from the sites is presented as Supplementary Information (S3).

364

365 3.2 Benthic assemblages – general description

366

367 Overall species richness was relatively low, with a total of 53 invertebrate species identified
368 in spring samples across all study sites, including 24 arthropods, 14 annelids, 6 molluscs, 2
369 cnidarians and one nemertean (Table 3). Additionally, the amphipod *Gammarus locusta* and
370 Hemipteran *Sigara selecta* were recorded in samples obtained from French sites in September
371 2011. Two plant lagoonal specialists (*Ruppia* sp. and *Lamprothamnium papulosum*) and the
372 anemone *Nematostella vectensis* were recorded, which are included in the IUCN Red List of
373 threatened species (IUCN, 2015). The polychaete *Desdemona ornata*, anostracan *A.*
374 *franciscana* and manila clam *Ruditapes philippinarum* were the only known non-native
375 species recorded within soft sediments. Benthic invertebrates on hard structures were not
376 included in the main analysis; however the non-native barnacles *Austrominius modestus* and
377 *Amphibalanus amphitrite* and polychaete *Ficopomatus enigmaticus* were recorded on sluice
378 gates and pilings at Iberian salinas.

379

380 Species richness was significantly greater in samples from UK sites ($H= 21.9, df 4, p<0.001$)
381 yet pairwise tests between other regions were not significant. Benthic core samples at the UK
382 sites were generally dominated by polychaetes *Hediste diversicolor* and *Capitella capitata*,
383 oligochaetes (*Tubificoides* spp.), amphipod *Monocorophium insidiosum* and bivalve *Abra*
384 *tenuis*. Overall species richness of insect taxa was greater at continental sites but not
385 significantly so. Pairwise tests following Two-way ANOVA indicated that autumn
386 abundance across both French regions was significantly greater than in spring samples
387 ($P<0.05$), however seasonal differences in abundance at UK sites were not significant.
388 Macrophyte washings, mainly from *Cladophora* sp., revealed lagoonal specialist species *G.*

389 *insensibilis*, *I.chelipes*, *M. insidiosum*, *L. hookeri*, *C. glaucum* and *E. ventrosia*. Juveniles fish
390 of species *Syngnathas rostellatus* and *Liza* sp. were recorded in macrophyte washings from
391 Île d'Oleron and Figuirera da Foz respectively (Table 3).

392

393 3.3 Presence of lagoonal specialists in water body types

394

395 Specialist lagoonal species were found within cores in all types of pond sampled (Figure 2),
396 although only *E.ventrosa* was recorded in abandoned reservoirs. There were significant
397 differences in the abundance of *N.vectensis* ($H = 24.5$, $df 3$, $p < 0.001$), *M.insidiosum* ($H =$
398 10.494 , $df 3$, $p = 0.015$) and *I.chelipes* ($H = 10.41$, $df 3$, $p = 0.015$) although pairwise
399 comparisons were inconclusive. The lagoonal specialist amphipod *Gammarus insensibilis*
400 was also recorded from macrophyte washings in reservoirs at Île de Ré and Aveiro. The non-
401 native anostracan *A. franciscana* was found in cores from evaporation pans in Cadiz and in
402 macrophyte washings from a reservoir at Batz. The lagoonal charophyte *L.papulorum* was
403 recorded in a reservoir in Aveiro and *Ruppia* was found within reservoirs in all regions
404 except Iberia South. Shorebird predation on invertebrate fauna was observed in all pond
405 types in each region.

406

407 3.4 Regional analysis of specialist species

408

409 Specialist lagoonal species were recorded within all five regions (Table 3; Figure 3). The
410 lagoon cockle *C.glaucum* was ubiquitous throughout whereas the anemone *N.vectensis* was
411 only recorded in the UK. Significant differences between regions were found for *N.vectensis*
412 ($H = 25.808$, $df 4$, $p < 0.001$); *I.chelipes* ($H = 11.328$, $df 4$, $p = 0.023$) and *M.insidiosum* ($H =$

413 23.762, df 4, $p = <0.001$), for which there were significant pairwise differences ($p<0.05$)
414 between the UK and France North and UK and France South.

415

416 3.5 Analysis of community structure

417

418 ANOSIM analysis comparing community structure between locations indicated significant
419 differences between assemblages in 33 out of 45 locations compared pairwise ($p>0.05$). A
420 one-way ANOSIM test across Regions indicated that there were significant differences in
421 community structure (global $R = 0.275$, $p=0.001$). Pairwise tests showed difference in
422 community structure were largest between sites in the UK and all other regions. Differences
423 were also evident between north Iberia and both French regions (north and south).
424 PERMANOVA (Table 4) indicates that most variation in assemblages can be explained by
425 region and water body type.

426

427 Figure 4 presents the CAP output to discriminate samples between regions. Clear grouping is
428 evident in samples from the different locations, although to a lesser extent between
429 continental sites. Overlaid Pearson rank correlated species vectors (correlation > 0.5) indicate
430 that sites from the UK are characterised by higher abundances of annelid worms, notably
431 *Hediste diversicolor*, *Streblospio shrubsolii* and *Tubificoides benedii*, and the anemone
432 *Nematostella vestensis*. Higher abundances of chironomid larvae were found in Iberian sites.
433 CAP results indicate that the optimal number of PCO axes required to explain the highest
434 proportion of variance in the data is 11 ($m = 11$). This explains approximately 88.3% of
435 variation within the data, with 54.3% of samples correctly classified (i.e. classified into the
436 correct group based on the data).

437

438

439 3.6 Analysis of bird ring recoveries

440

441 Of a total of 56,358 recovery records of the selected species across Europe (EURING Data
442 Bank, 18.03.2016), 972 (1.7%) were from Atlantic salt working regions and 80% of these
443 were for Eurasian spoonbill. There is evidence of intra-regional movement of all species
444 (Table 5) except for Greater flamingo which was restricted to within southern Iberian areas.
445 Eurasian spoonbills move between all the continental salt-working areas and there is a single
446 recovery of a bird that had moved within lagoonal areas in the UK. Evidence of movements
447 of Black-winged stilt and Pied avocet were similar and mostly within and between northern
448 and southern France and within areas in southern Iberia. Black-tailed godwit and Common
449 redshank initially sighted in lagoonal areas in southern England were subsequently recorded
450 in salt-working areas in northern and southern France; however no initial sightings of birds of
451 any of the selected species from southern continental regions were later observed in Britain.
452 Most recorded bird movements were between southern Spain and the French coast (Figure 5),
453 although precise migratory pathways are not shown.

454

455 4.0 Discussion

456

457 Artificial structures, currently and historically associated with solar salt-working were found
458 to contain coastal lagoonal biodiversity of international conservation importance. These
459 include specialised and protected lagoonal invertebrates and macrophytes and non-native
460 species. Lagoonal specialists and internationally protected species were found in historic
461 salterns and also in larger storage reservoirs and evaporation pans in all continental regions.
462 Differences in macrobenthic assemblages, and the prevalence of lagoonal specialist species
463 were identified between different types of waterbody within each location. Although detailed
464 comparison between natural and artificial sites is beyond the scope of this work, the presence

465 of coastal lagoonal invertebrate indicator species at continental salt working sites
466 demonstrates that these habitats should be classified as coastal lagoons. Evidence of bird
467 movements between locations could theoretically explain the dispersal of lagoonal
468 invertebrate propagules within and between regions and potential connectivity between
469 isolated lagoonal habitats. These habitats could therefore contribute to a network of coastal
470 lagoon habitat along the Atlantic coast of Europe that confers a measure of ecological
471 resilience in response to environmental change.

472

473 At active salinas, storage reservoirs, which were the largest and least hypersaline water-
474 bodies, contained highest invertebrate species richness, supporting previous observations
475 (Vieira & Amat 1997; Amiral & Costa 1999). The physiological stress incurred at higher
476 salinities must limit species richness of assemblages and differences between larger and
477 smaller ponds. Moreover, heavy mortality amongst invertebrates, including *H. diversicolor*
478 and *C.volutator*, occurs at salinities above 40‰ (Mason, 1986). Yet across Atlantic Europe,
479 greatest dissimilarity in macrobenthic assemblages was between the salterns and the active
480 salinas.

481

482 The number of active salinas is declining rapidly in parts of coastal Europe and
483 diversification of use is increasing (Amat *et al.* 2007; Rodrigues *et al.* 2011). Industrial
484 salinas and some former artisanal saltworking sites that have now been developed for
485 aquaculture were not sampled, so study sites may not have been regionally representative of
486 artificial habitat, especially in southern Spain. However, inspection of lists of species from
487 salinas converted to aquaculture (Arias & Drake, 1994, 2004; Drake & Arias, 1997) reveal
488 that they do contain lagoonal specialists (e.g. *G.insensibilis*; *M.insidiosum*, *I.chelipes*) so site
489 diversification may not contribute to population decline for some taxa.

490

491 At active salinas, maintenance and repairs to reservoirs and evaporation pans, including
492 drainage, are carried out between the autumn and early spring, so recent disturbance may
493 have limited species presence. Data was obtained in the spring and autumn bird migration
494 period when biological production in the ponds is not at its peak (Arias & Drake, 1994)
495 therefore maximum site abundances and richness may have been underestimated in this
496 study. At English and French sites sampled in 2012, abundances in September, at the end of
497 the production period, were greater than in the spring and this pattern is likely to occur across
498 Iberia also. When sampled in spring, macrophyte cover, which has been shown to influence
499 invertebrate assemblages and is important in determining abundances of Hydrobiidae,
500 *Chironomous salinus* and *Microdeutopus gryllotalpa* (Drake & Arias, 1997), was more
501 prevalent at salinas in the south of France. However latitudinal sampling bias may have been
502 incurred as spring production in the south of the region is more advanced than in the north.
503 Predation by large numbers of migratory shorebirds that visit Atlantic salinas during the
504 winter months (Rufino *et al.* 1984; Batty 1992; Pérez-Hurtado & Hortas 1992; Masero, 2003;
505 Pedro & Ramos, 2009) could also account for lower invertebrate abundances during the
506 spring sampling period.

507

508 Comparative analyses of lagoonal macroinvertebrates reveal very high levels of population
509 variability at all spatial and temporal scales (Mason, 1986; Bamber *et al.* 1992; Carvalho *et al.*
510 2005; Joyce *et al.* 2005; Sanchez *et al.* 2006), so abundance is likely to vary considerably
511 between sites and years. For example some lagoonal species recorded in salinas of Andalucía
512 (Arias & Drake, 2004) were not found. Due to isolation and chance dispersal, recruitment in
513 lagoonal assemblages can be insufficiently high to offset local extinctions (Barnes, 1988),
514 which may account for this variability. Species reproductive performance and size of

515 lagoonal populations may also have been determined by levels of parasitic trematode
516 infection and interactions with abiotic condition (Gates, 2006; Kube *et al.* 2006). Spatio-
517 temporal variation in abundance could affect the frequency and probability of avian
518 transportation of propagules. This might be particularly important for species that are
519 frequently associated with algae, as this was less prominent in the spring compared to the late
520 summer and early autumn. This would favour a southward dispersal of weed-associated
521 fauna, as birds return from their summer breeding grounds and head for wintering in lower
522 latitudes.

523

524 Estuarine areas provide opportunistic habitats for non-indigenous species (NIS) due to their
525 low species richness and proximity to human activities such as aquaculture and global trade
526 (Paavola *et al.* 2005; Airoidi & Beck, 2007; Zaiko *et al.* 2007). With the exception of
527 *A.franciscana*, the few NIS species recorded within evaporation pans at continental salinas is
528 likely due to an intolerance of very high salinities. Significantly, NIS recorded in this study
529 were from salterns on the south coast of England where salinities are similar to full sea water.
530 These observations are consistent with the '*Biodiversity increasing invasibility hypothesis*'
531 (see discussion in Zaiko *et al.* 2007), that predicts more invasive species in species-rich
532 communities; brackish lagoons and hypersaline ponds are relatively species-poor, yet the
533 larger salterns would be the least stressed of the range of habitats sampled. Apart from *A.*
534 *franciscana*, avian or anthropogenic long-distance dispersal may also explain the distribution
535 of the non-native polychaete *Desdemona ornata* found in salterns on the south coast of
536 England and from the Santo André lagoon on the Portuguese coast (Felix *et al.* 2015). The
537 absence of European native *Artemia salina* from the UK is unsurprising since salt production
538 has ceased and salinities within the salterns seldom reach >35 ‰. However, the species type-
539 locality is salterns from the south coast of England where it was first identified in 1775

540 (Kuenen & Baas-Becking (1938) (in Sorgeloos, 1980; Tubbs, 1999). Its origins are unknown,
541 however although avian long-distance-dispersal is a possibility, trade in ‘Bay-Salt’, a dirty
542 salt imported for refining from the Bay of Bourgneuf (France) is also a possibility. The
543 internationally vulnerable and protected anemone *N. vectensis* was found only in the English
544 salterns, yet genetic evidence increasingly suggests anthropogenic introduction from North
545 America, possibly via ship fouling (Pearson *et al.* 2002; Rietzel *et al.* 2008; Darling *et al.*
546 2009) or from imported Pacific oysters. This species has not yet been recorded from lagoons
547 in continental Europe, although some habitats would appear suitable.

548

549 *4.1 Regional variation*

550

551 Although the sample size was small, the significant differences in assemblages between
552 locations are consistent with other studies that have observed considerable habitat and
553 taxonomic heterogeneity in lagoon ecosystems owing to large spatial variability and
554 patchiness (Bamber *et al.* 1992; Basset *et al.* 2006). Apart from latitudinal differences in
555 temperature and consequential effects on salinity within reservoirs, the reduction in species
556 richness and abundance of macroinvertebrates from the south coast of England to the
557 continental regions is likely to be due to high levels of disturbance from active solar salt-
558 making processes and maintenance interventions that affect the quality of habitat. The
559 salterns are generally larger than the reservoirs of active salinas and are therefore mostly
560 likely to have greater richness, and strong species: area relationships have been found in other
561 lagoons (Bamber *et al.* 1992; Basset *et al.* 2006). However, abandonment of salinas can result
562 in further loss in species diversity (Arias & Drake, 2004) and since 1987, Portugal and Spain
563 have incurred a 55% and 74% loss of active salinas respectively; coastal Andalucía has
564 incurred losses of 82% (Amat *et al.* 2007). The main difference between active and

565 abandoned sites is not the structure *per se* but change in the hydrological regime. Abandoned
566 sluices and channels quickly silt up due to lack of maintenance and flows reduce. Rainfall
567 and evaporation then becomes more important than inflow of sea water. On the south coast of
568 England, some saltern reservoirs abandoned in the 19th Century have been enlarged and their
569 historic embankments incorporated within larger flood prevention schemes (Bamber *et al.*
570 2001). Management interventions at these sites are relatively infrequent and usually confined
571 to sluices that maintain inflow of water and the quality of the lagoonal habitat. Yet at
572 operating salinas, water levels within the reservoirs and ponds are varying continuously
573 during the salt-making season.

574

575 4.2 Connectivity

576

577 How isolated lagoonal populations are sustained and potential barriers to dispersal and
578 recruitment are overcome is uncertain. Potentially, ecological connectivity between different
579 types of water body within salinas and between water storage reservoirs of different salinas
580 could be locally high as the structures can be in very close proximity (<100m) and flooding
581 during heavy rain and high tides is probable. It is possible that propagules (eggs, larvae, seeds
582 and adults) might be transported between salinas through sluices and adjacent channels.
583 Insects that complete their life cycles in the water may fly short distances between sites to lay
584 eggs. Pelagic larval stages vary between days and several weeks (Shanks *et al.* 2003), so
585 propagules could enter storage reservoirs when filled from the adjacent sea. Transport from
586 reservoirs in to adjacent channels and the wider estuary may be possible as leakages and
587 seepages are not inconceivable. Natural lagoons along this coast are scarce, and where these
588 habitats are separated by tens or hundreds of km, successful transportation of propagules
589 within the water column is likely to be highly infrequent. Although, primarily lagoonal, some

590 species e.g. *C glaucum*, are found in other brackish habitats and sheltered bays and estuaries,
591 including the Baltic Sea (Table 1) so other potential habitat along this coast for these species
592 may occur. This is of particular importance for successful avian transportation of propagules
593 between the Iberian coast and southern France, and northern France and the UK, where there
594 are the largest gaps between salinas and other lagoons.

595

596 Other work has shown that the presence of lagoonal specialist species can be surprisingly
597 localised and restricted, despite apparently suitable habitat in close proximity (Barnes, 1988;
598 Gilliland & Sanderson, 2000). High levels of genetic differentiation have been found between
599 lagoonal populations of *I. chelipes* (Jolly *et al.* 2003) and *N.vectensis* (Pearson *et al.* 2002) on
600 the south coast of England, suggesting significant barriers to gene flow. The stochastic nature
601 of dispersal and successful recruitment can result in large variation between assemblages, as
602 was observed in this study.

603

604 Several lagoonal specialist invertebrate species were recorded amongst filamentous green
605 algae which could become attached to bird feet. Notwithstanding bird movements from
606 brackish seas and lagoons to the east of the study area, migrations within and between extant
607 and historical saltworking sites may contribute significantly to the network of coastal lagoon
608 biodiversity in Europe. However it is not possible to confirm actual connectivity between
609 sites without more detailed observations of attached propagules and genetic studies. These
610 salinas maintain a continuity of habitat for lagoonal specialists and provide important habitats
611 for prey species for migratory shorebirds along the East Atlantic flyway, as has been
612 demonstrated for Greater flamingos (Amat *et al.* 2005).

613

614

615

616 **5.0 Conclusions**

617

618 The environmental legacy of solar-salt making on the Atlantic coast of Europe, and possibly
619 elsewhere, is a potential network of coastal lagoon habitat. Salinas are likely to provide
620 important ‘stepping stones’ for propagule transport and benthic species dispersal as natural
621 lagoon habitat is infrequent. The use of these ponds, abandonment and level of intervention
622 of the hydrological regime are important in influencing the type of benthic assemblages and
623 the number of specialist and scarce species present. The future management of these sites will
624 affect the size, quality and connectivity of the network, including suitability for water birds,
625 which will have implications for invertebrate species population resilience and adaptation to
626 environmental change.

627

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641

642

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1016 **Table 1.** Results of literature search for habitat preferences and European distribution of selected ‘specialist’ lagoonal invertebrates of
 1017 conservation importance in the UK, plus the non-native *A.franciscana*. Searches conducted in Web of Science (Web of Science, 2017) using
 1018 terms: ‘Lagoon’ ‘Estuary’, ‘Brackish’, ‘Seas’, ‘Intertidal’ and ‘Habitat’.

Table 2. Sampling Regions, Locations and Sites. A total of seven water bodies (ponds) were sampled at each of two locations. The seven pond samples at each location were obtained from two sites, except for location ‘Solent South’ where an additional third site was sampled. Water Body types: Sal/L~salterns and lagoons; R ~storage Reservoirs; E1 ~ 1st Evaporation pan; AB ~ Abandoned reservoir.

Group	Species	No. of Sites (Studies)					Region (No. different sites of each habitat type)
		Lagoons (a)	Salt pans (exc. Salterns) (b)	Brackish bays and fjords (c)	Estuary (d)	Intertidal (e)	
Cnidaria	<i>Nematostella vectensis</i>	20 (4)	0	0	0	0	England (20 ^a)
Crustacea: Anostraca	<i>Artemia franciscana</i>	0	4 (3)	0	0	0	Atlantic Spain (3 ^b), Portugal (1 ^b)
Crustacea: Amphipoda	<i>Gammarus insensibilis</i>	27 (16)	0	2 (2)	1 (1)	1 (1)	England (19 ^a), Portugal (2 ^a , 1 ^c) Mediterranean Sea (5 ^a , 1 ^b , 1 ^c), Black Sea (1 ^a , 2 ^c)
Crustacea: Amphipoda	<i>Monocorophium insidiosum</i>	7 (10)	0	1 (6)	0	1 (1)	Mediterranean Sea (7 ^a , 1 ^c , 1 ^e)
Crustacea: Isopoda	<i>Idotea chelipes</i>	5 (4)	0	1 (6)	1 (1)	0	England (3 ^a), Mediterranean Sea (2 ^a) Baltic Sea (6 ^c), Wadden Sea (1 ^d)
Crustacea: Isopoda	<i>Lekanespaheara hookeri</i>	35 (10)	0	0	1 (1)	1 (1)	England (28 ^a), Mediterranean Sea (5 ^a), Atlantic Spain (1 ^{d,e}), Portugal (2 ^a)
Mollusca: Gastropoda	<i>Ecrobia ventrosa</i>	32 (17)	1 (1)	5 (5)	0	0	England (20 ^a), Atlantic Spain (1 ^b), Mediterranean Sea (6 ^a), Portugal (2 ^a), Denmark (1 ^a , 1 ^c) Baltic Sea (3 ^a , 3 ^c), Skagerrak (1 ^c)
Mollusca: Bivalvia	<i>Cerastoderma glaucum</i>	81 (40)	1 (1)	11 (12)	6 (4)	13 (2)	England (39 ^a , 10 ^{e,f}), Scotland (2 ^a), Wales (2 ^a), Ireland (13 ^a , 2 ^{e,f}), Portugal (4 ^a , 3 ^d), Mediterranean (21 ^a , 1 ^b , 1 ^c , 1 ^d , 1 ^e), Baltic (10 ^c), Wadden Sea (2 ^d),
	Total	207 (101)	6 (5)	20 (31)	9 (7)	16 (5)	

Region	Location	Sites	Position	No. Water Body sampled			
				Sal/L	R	E1	AB
UK	Solent North	Lymington, former salterns	50 ° 44 21.06N; 01 ° 32 15.36W	4	0	0	0
		Brownsea Island lagoon	50 ° 41 30.15N; 01 ° 57 34.99W	3	0	0	0
	Solent South (Isle of Wight)	Bembridge lagoon	50 ° 41 22.37N; 01 ° 05 52.63W	2	0	0	0
		Newtown lagoon, former saltern	50 ° 41 22.37N; 01 ° 05 52.63W	2	0	0	0
		Yarmouth lagoon, former saltern	50 ° 42 11.98N; 01 ° 30 23.58W	3	0	0	0
			Region Total	14	0	0	0
France (N)	Batz-sur-Mer	Private artisanal salinas	47 ° 17 40.10N; 02 ° 28 19.50W	0	0	2	0
		Private artisanal salinas	47 ° 17 26.30N; 02 ° 28 12.50W	0	3	2	0
	Nantes	Ile de Noirmoutier, private artisanal salina	46 ° 59 53.50N; 02 ° 17 30.90W	0	3	0	1
		Barre-de-Monts, Écomusée Davioud, artisanal salina	46 ° 52 26.30N; 02 ° 06 10.08W	0	1	0	2
			Region Total	0	7	4	3
France (S)	Île de Ré	Écomusée, artisanal salina & museum	46 ° 13 14.70N; 01 ° 27 28.80W	0	1	2	0
		Private artisanal salina	46 ° 13 13.80N; 01 ° 31 09.10W	0	0	4	0
	Île d'Oléron	Écomusée Port des Salines, artisanal salina & museum	45 ° 51 45.10N; 01 ° 13 45.00W	0	0	3	0
		Private artisanal salina	45 ° 57 28.20N; 01 ° 14 58.80W	0	1	3	0
			Region Total	0	4	10	0
Iberia (N)	Aveiro	Municipal artisanal salina	40 ° 38.39.00 N; 08° 39.50.00W	0	2	1	0
		Aveiro University, artisanal salina	40 ° 37.58.00 N; 08° 39.46.00W	0	1	3	0
	Figueira da Foz	Corredor da Cobra museum	40 ° 06.43.00 N; 08° 49.57.00W	0	4	0	0
		Private artisanal salina	40 ° 07.56.00 N; 08° 50.26.00 W	0	3	0	0
			Region Total	0	10	4	0
Iberia (S)	Algarve	Odiaxere, abandoned artisanal salina	37 ° 08.01.00N; 08° 38.50.00W	0	0	0	4
		Castro Marim, artisanal salina	37 ° 13.94.00N; 07° 26.07.00W	0	2	0	1
	Cadiz	Salinas San Vicente, artisanal salina	36 ° 28.68.00N; 06° 10.28.00W	0	3	0	0
		Salinas de Chiclana, artisanal salina	36 ° 26.24.00N; 06° 09.98.00W	0	2	2	
			Region Total	0	7	2	5

Table 3. Mean faunal species density (ind.m²) and percentage cover of macrophytes at each location within the five regions in spring 2011 (UK, France North, France South) and 2012 (Iberia South). At each location, seven ponds were sampled, with three cores (10 cm diameter) obtained from each. Species additionally or exclusively present within macrophyte samples are shown as ‘W’; other qualitative observations of species are indicated as ‘P’; Standard Error shown in () ; additional taxa recorded in September 2011 as ‘S’.

Region	UK		(France North)		France (South)		Iberia N (North)		Iberia (South)		
	Location Name	Solent South	Solent North	Batz	Nantes	Île de Ré	Île d’Oléron	Aveiro	Figueira da Foz	Algarve	Cadiz
Taxa											
TRACHEOPHYTA											
<i>Ruppia</i> spp.	<5%			<5%	<10%	<5%		<5%	10%	<1%	
CHAROPHYTA											
<i>Lamprothamnium papulosum</i>								<5%			
CHLOROPHYTA											
<i>Chaetomorpha linum</i>	<5%	<5%			<10%						
<i>Cladophora</i> sp		<5%	20%	10%	20%	20%	<5%	65%	<1%	30%	
<i>Ulva</i> sp.	5%	<5%	20%	<5%	20%	10%	<5%				5%
CNIDARIA											

<i>Nematostella vectensis</i>	273 (147.6)	279 (238.4)								
<i>Sagartia troglodytes</i>	61 (53.9)	6 (6.1)								
NEMERTEA										
<i>Ramphogordius sanguineus</i>		6 (6.1)								12 (12.1)
ANNELIDA										
Polychaeta										
<i>Capitella capitata</i>	3646 (2351)	1056 (1041.4)	S				340 (208.2)	18 (18.2)		679 (398)
<i>Cauleriella zetlandica</i>	42 (30.7)									
<i>Desdemona ornata</i>	18 (18.2)	6 (6.1)								
<i>Hediste diversicolor</i>	867 (521.9)	2147 (1517.7)	152 (144.7)	12 (12.1)			61 (60.7)	W	P	340 (167.6)
<i>Malacoceros fuliginosus</i>	18 (18.2)					6 (6.1)				6 (6.1)

<i>Paradoneis lyra</i>										12 (12.1)
<i>Polydora cornuta</i>	67 (66.7)		S				18 (18.2)			
<i>Pygospio elegans</i>		6 (6.1)								
<i>Spio filicicornis</i>	0	6 (6.1)								
<i>Streblospio shrubsolii</i>	127 (51.6)	61 (60.7)	S							12 (7.8)
Oligochaeta										
Enchytraeidae indet.	0	6 (6.1)								
<i>Tubificoides benedii</i>	3537 (1100.8)	849 (828.1)								6 (6.1)
<i>Tubificoides pseudogaster</i>	279 (177.5)	2584 (1951.3)	49 (48.5)				12 (12.1)	73 (72.8)		127 (87.9)
CRUSTACEA										
Anostraca										

<i>Artemia franciscana</i>				W						18 (18.2)
Amphipoda										
<i>Monocorophium insidiosum</i>	382 (157.8)	461 (334.5)				S	261 (260.8)	W		1589 (754.7)
<i>Corophium volutator</i>	613 (339.8)	146 (124.6)								
<i>Gammarus insensibilis</i>		24 (24.3)			W	30 (17.9)	6 (6.1)	W		
<i>Gammarus locusta</i>			W							
<i>Melita palmata</i>										133 (72)
<i>Microdeutopus gryllotalpa</i>	55 (27.4)	30 (30.3)	6 (6.1)		W	W	85 (78.1)	W		922 (547.5)
Isopoda										
<i>Cyathura carinata</i>										36

										(23.5)
<i>Idotea chelipes</i>	6 (6.1)	24 (12.6)	42 (35.9) W		W		W			
<i>Lekanesphaera hookeri</i>	267 (215.7)							837 (575) W	W	73 (37.9)
Decapoda										
<i>Carcinus maenas</i>									P	
<i>Palaeomonetes varians</i>			W	6 (6.1)	W	W	W			
<i>Praunus flexuosa</i>						W				
INSECTA										
Diptera										
Chironomidae	364 (210.3)	1419 (663.4)	364 (197.6) W	97 (27.4) W	103 (48) W	188 (79.1)	1905 (761.3) W	4368 (2437.8) W	510 (211.5)	594 (342)
Diptera indet.					24					

					(24.3)					
Dolichopodidae						W	6 (6.1)		6 (6.1)	
Ephydriidae				12 (12.1)					6 (6.1)	
<i>Ephydra riparia</i>				P						
Psychodidae						W	109 (109.2)	18 (18.2)		
Stratiomyidae			18 (18.2)				6 (6.1)	W		
Coleoptera										
<i>Berosus</i> sp.			S							
Carabidae					6 (6.1) W					
Coleoptera indet					W			455 (434.1)		
<i>Enochrus bicolor</i>			6	W	24	55		18		

			(6.1)		(24.3) W	(47.9)		(18.2) W		
<i>Ochthebius aeneus</i>			6 (6.1)	W	103 (103.1) W	W				
<i>Ochthebus punctatus</i>			W		W		W	91 (91) W		
Hemiptera										
<i>Sigara</i> sp.	6 (6.1)				6 (6.1) W			W	P	
<i>Sigara selecta</i>			S							
<i>Sigara stagnalis</i>			S							
MOLLUSCA										
<i>Abra tenuis</i>	12 (7.8)	73 (47.9)	6 (6.1)	30 (30.3)	91 (91) W	206 (135.1)	18 (12.6)	346 (235.4)		133 (60.4)
<i>Cerastoderma glaucum</i>	6	30	109	W	24	12	6	91		425

	(6.1)	(17.9)	(76.3)		(15.7)	(7.8)	(6.1)	(91)		(190.4)
			W		W	W	W	W		
<i>Ecrobia ventrosa</i>	6 (6.1)	1438 (814)	121 (69.6) W	140 (93.3)	12 (7.8) W	85 (71.8) W	1802 (177.3) W			
<i>Haminoea navicula</i>					12 (12.1) W	W				
<i>Peringia ulvae</i>	6 (6.1)	30 (24)			W	534 (434.4) W				
<i>Politapes rhomboides</i>										6 (6.1)
<i>Rissostomia membranacea</i>							W			
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>		P								
BRYOZOA										
<i>Conopeum seurati</i>	P									
PICES										
<i>Liza sp.(juv)</i>								W		

<i>Pomatoschistus microps</i>		P			P	W				
<i>Syngnatus rostellatus</i> (juv)						W				

Table 4.

Permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) using the ‘adonis’ function in R-package “vegan” performed on sampling sites (i.e. individual water bodies, n=70) across regions to partition the variation in community structure (based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index using sqrt transformed data). Salinity was removed from this analysis because it was strongly correlated with Latitude ($r=-0.65$, $p<0.01$). No. of permutations: 999. Sig. $*\leq 0.05$, $**\leq 0.01$, $***\leq 0.001$

	Df	SS	MS	F	R²	Pr (>F)	
Region	4	4.46	1.11	4.74	0.18	0.001	***
Water body Type	3	1.41	0.47	2.01	0.06	0.01	**
Latitude	6	2.45	0.41	1.74	0.10	0.021	*
Water Temperature	47	15.34	0.33	1.39	0.60	0.049	*
% Sand	1	0.03	0.03	0.13	0.001	0.996	
% Organic	1	0.04	0.04	0.15	0.001	0.995	
% Macrophyte	1	0.28	0.28	1.21	0.01	0.313	
Depth (cm)	1	0.25	0.25	1.05	0.01	0.471	
Residuals	5	1.17	0.23		0.05		
Total	69	25.43			1.00		

Table 5. Potential avian connectivity matrix within and between salt-working regions and natural lagoons on the Atlantic coast of Europe. EURING data for combined species: Eurasian spoonbill, Black-tailed godwit, Greater flamingo, Pied avocet, Black-winged stilt and Common redshank. Values are total numbers of initial and subsequent sightings of birds. Inter-regional sightings are in bold. The name of each region is preceded by the EURING code. EURING locations are shown in Fig 5.

		SUBSEQUENT SIGHTING																
		UK			France (North)		France (South)			Iberia (North)				Iberia (South)				
		GBDO Dorset	GBHA Hampshire	GBIW Isle of Wight	FR38 Morbihan	FR37 Loire -Atlantique	FR39 Vendee	FR31 Charente-Maritime	FR34 Gironde	PO01 Aveiro	PO10 Leiria	PO11 Lisbon	PO15 Setúbal	PO08 Faro	ES60 Cádiz	ES63 Huelva	ES66 Sevilla	
INITIAL SIGHTING	UK	GBDO Dorset		5														
		GBHA Hampshire	15		4	2		1	1						1			
		GBIW Isle of Wight																
	France (North)	FR38 Morbihan				10	6	23	7	1						8	3	
		FR37 Loire -Atlantique				7	6	2	5						1	2	3	
	France (South)	FR39 Vendee				11	6		35	19			3		1	6	10	4
		FR31 Charente-Maritime				20	3	37		25					2	11	4	
		FR34 Gironde				28	1	13	15									
	Iberia (North)	PO01 Aveiro				1							1					
		PO10 Leiria																
		PO11 Lisbon																
		PO15 Setúbal									1		5		2	7	4	
	Iberia (South)	PO08 Faro					1								1	9	6	
		ES60 Cádiz					2	3	7							14	13	
ES63 Huelva					19	3	21	14	23			7	4	46		157		
ES66 Sevilla					5	2		4	6			1		22	125			

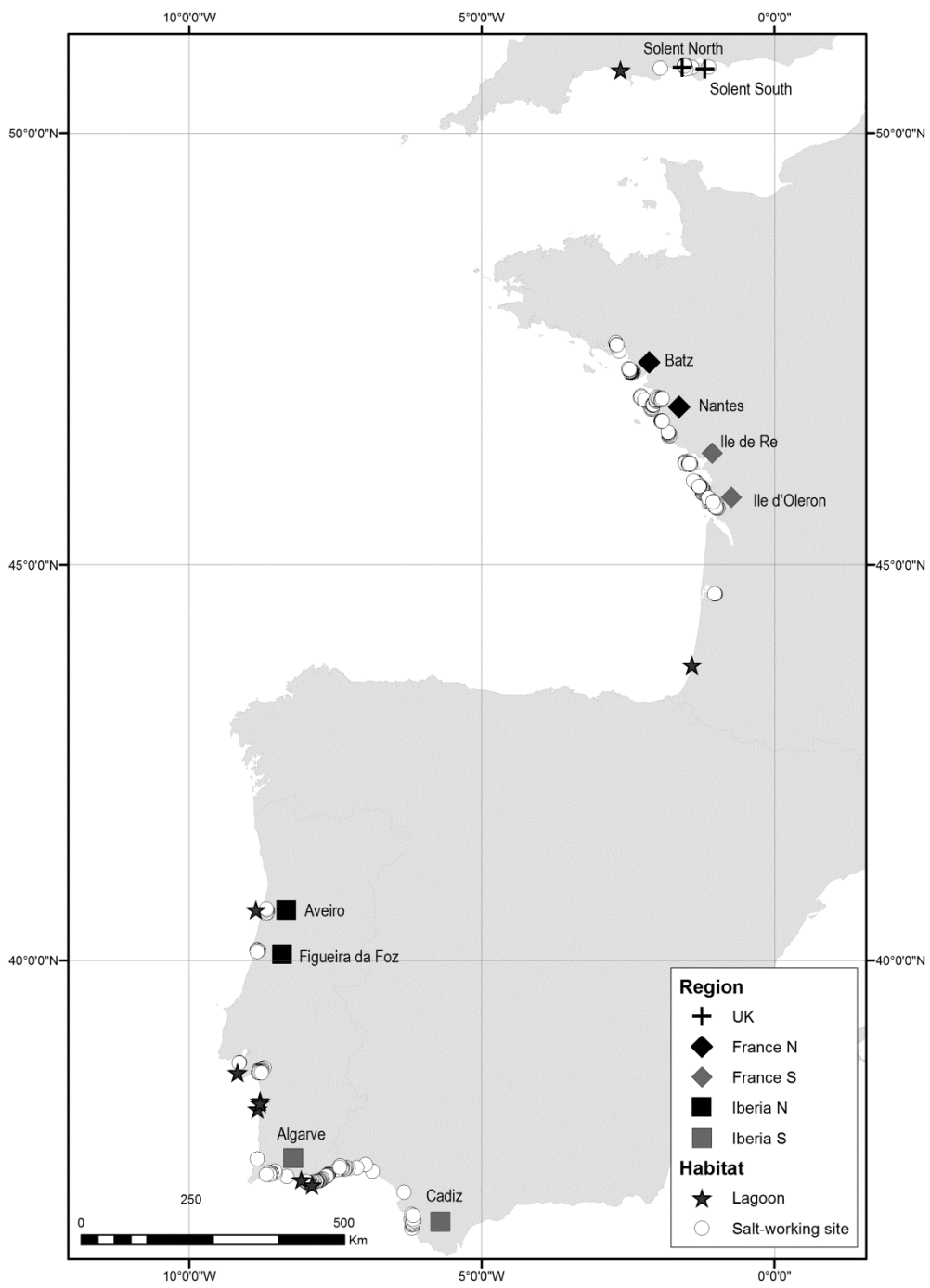


Figure 1. Location of salt-working areas, major natural lagoons and sampling locations within study regions.

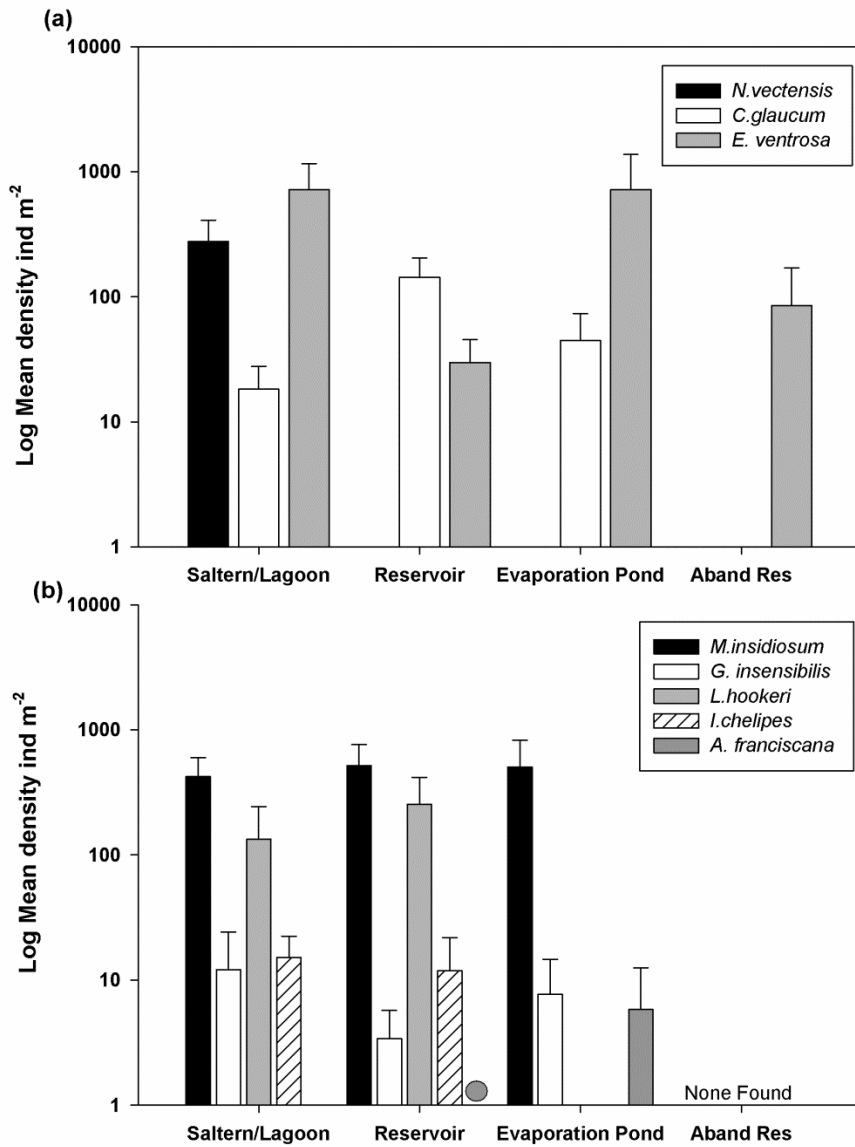


Figure 2. Mean density of selected lagoon specialist invertebrate species by water body ‘Type’ found in cores. ANOVA showed there were significant differences in the number of lagoon specialist species found within each water body type ($F(5,59) 6.41, p < 0.001$). Error bars show SE. Circle symbol indicates presence in macrophyte sample only. Note: *Artemia franciscana* is non-native. See Table 3 for further information.

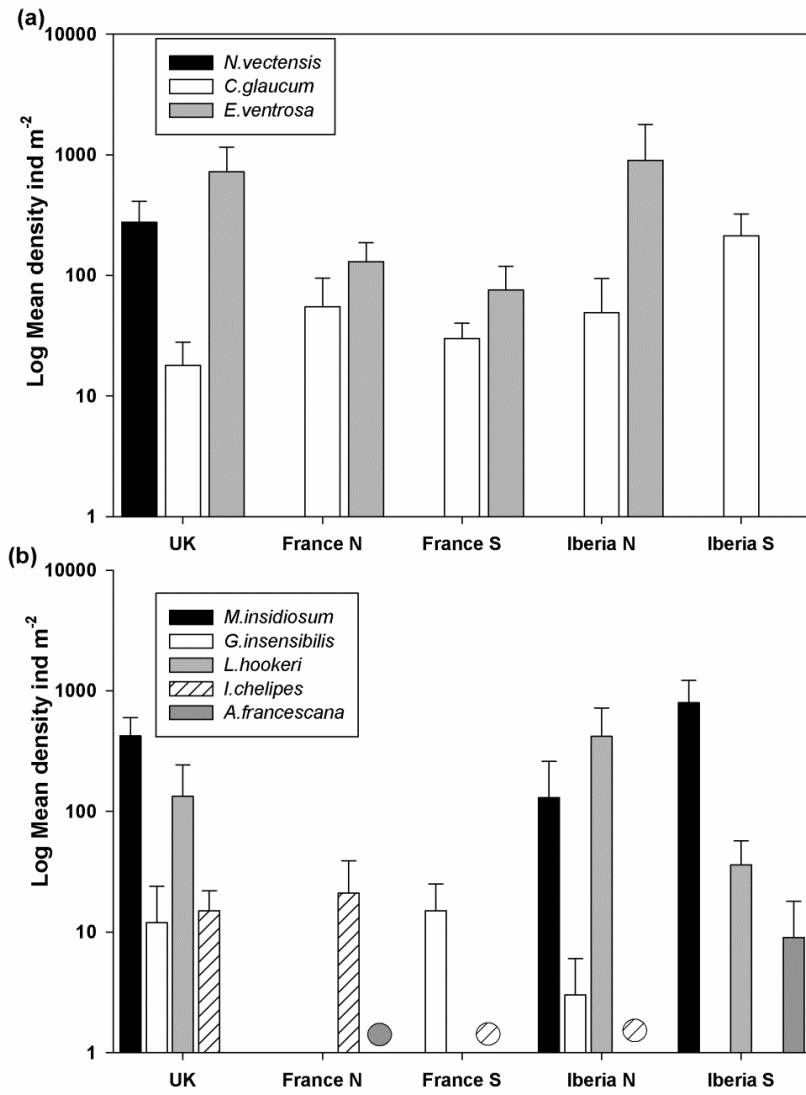


Figure 3. Mean regional density of selected specialist lagoon invertebrate species at salt-working sites. Error bars show SE. Circles indicate presence within macrophytes only. Note: *Artemia franciscana* is non-native. See Table 3 for further information.

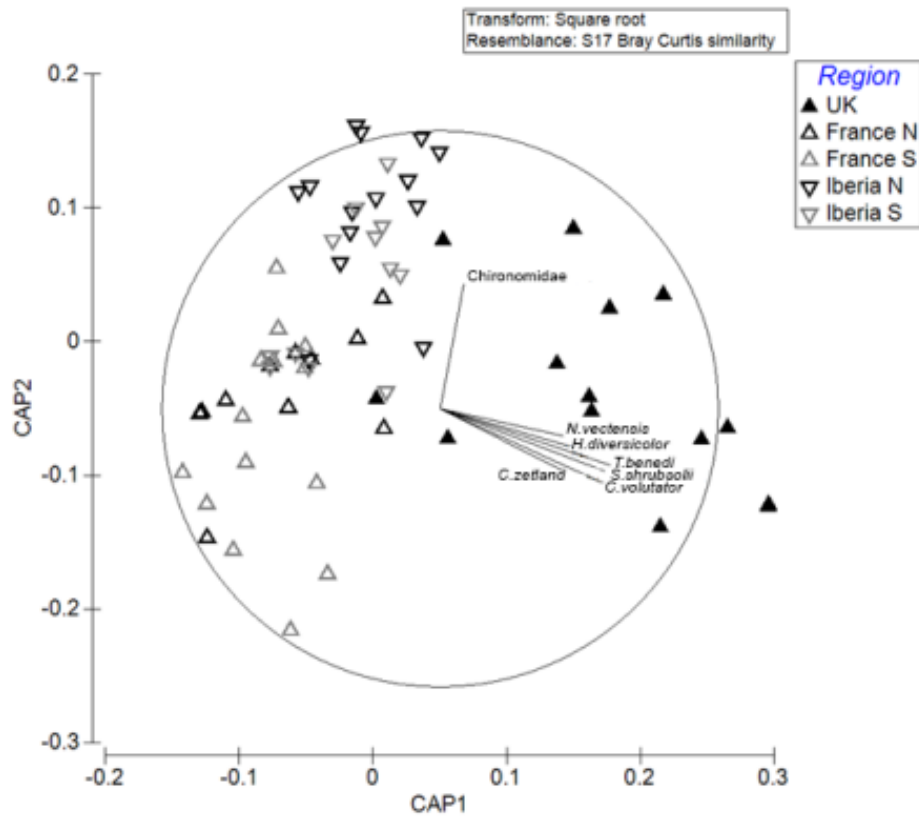


Figure 4. Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP) to discriminate samples between locations and regions, with overlaid Pearson rank correlated species vectors ($r > 0.5$).

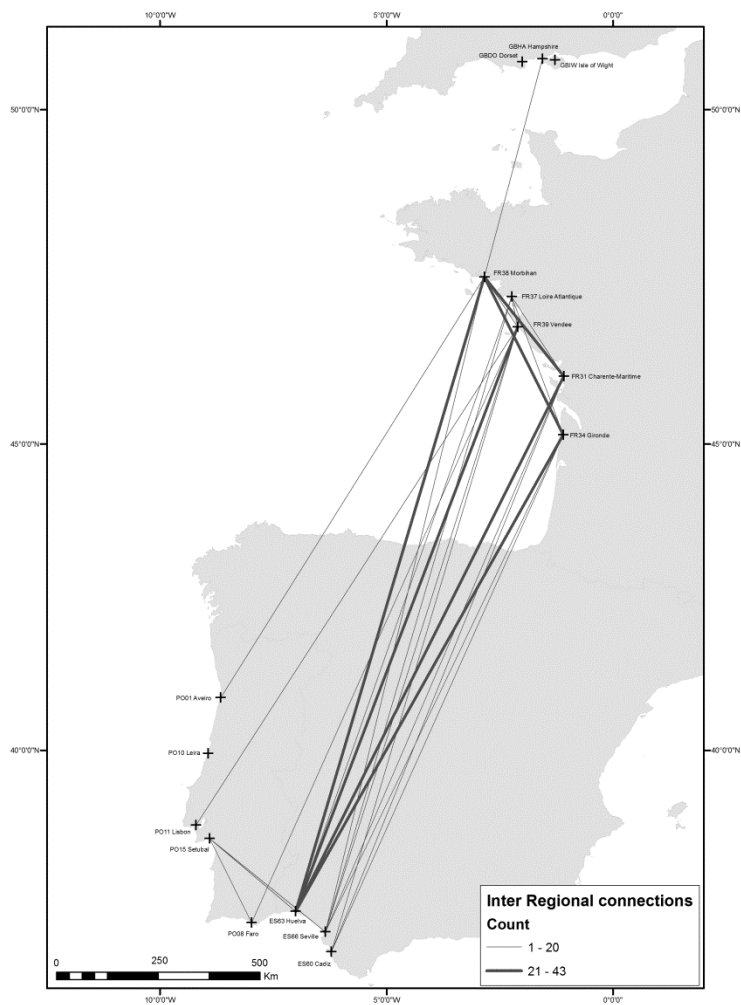


Figure 5. Inter-regional connections between salt-working sites through migratory bird movements. Locations shown are EURING place names and codes. Data shown is sum of all movements between sites from EURING data placed in two categories (1-20 movements; 21-43 movements) for clarity. See text and Table 5 for more information.