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Larval fish dispersal along an estuarine-ocean gradient

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1 **Abstract**

2 The present study investigated the larval fish dispersal along an estuarine-ocean gradient to
3 explore connectivity between ocean and estuaries. During spring 2009, a combined ocean-
4 estuarine survey was conducted along the Lima estuarine salinity gradient and in two transects off
5 the adjacent coast (NW Iberian Peninsula), until the 100m isobaths. Salinity, TPM, POM, TDC, DOC
6 reached higher values at the ocean, chlorophyll *a* and nutrients increased at the estuary. From the
7 total 56 taxa identified, 14 were present along the gradient, including estuarine species (ES),
8 marine stragglers (MS) and migrants (MM). CCA analysis showed that species were separated
9 along the gradient according to their ecological functional classification. MM associated with high
10 salinity were separated from ES correlated with lower salinities and high chlorophyll *a*
11 concentrations of inner estuary. Flounder showed a typical spatial gradient of MM, with
12 abundance increasing from the ocean towards inner estuary. The dispersal of larvae along the
13 Lima estuarine-ocean gradient was indicative of connectivity between habitats, emphasizing the
14 need to consider this feature in management plans, mainly for species exploited by commercial
15 fisheries.

16

17 Key-words: fish larvae; dispersal; estuarine-ocean gradient; nursery function

18

19 1. Introduction

20 Dispersal of living organisms implicates departure from the initial site, movement between sites
21 and arrival in a new site (Clobert et al. 2009), and can be defined as the process by which living
22 organisms expand actively or passively the space or range where they live (Cote et al. 2010).
23 Dispersal is a fundamental life-history trait and a process fundamental to the population dynamics
24 (Schludermann et al. 2012) of spatially structured populations (Cote et al. 2010). The exchange of
25 individuals among geographically separated groups, or connectivity (Cowen et al. 2000) is a major
26 driver of population replenishment (Bignami et al. 2013). Knowledge on connectivity of marine
27 populations is fundamental to establish marine species spatio-temporal dynamics and the links
28 between larval dispersal and supply, juvenile abundance, survival, and contribution to adult stocks
29 (Vasconcelos et al. 2011a), has important applications for management and conservation of
30 ecosystems (Cowen and Sponaugle 2009).

31 Most marine fish species experience a planktonic larval phase during which they are vulnerable to
32 passive transport by currents or a combination of currents and swimming behavior that ends on
33 dispersing fish larvae through long distances from the initial spawning grounds. During this
34 dispersal phase, many environmental and biological features control larval survivorship, namely
35 the high mortality rates typical of this early development stage (Houde 2008; Miller and Kendal
36 2009; Johnson et al. 2014; Garrido et al. 2015); or a successful dispersal of fish larvae to suitable
37 nursery areas to ensure the development to the following juvenile phase (Able and Fahay 2010;
38 Sale et al. 2010). After spawning, planktonic fish stages (eggs and larvae) may be advected and
39 passively transported by the water currents (Wolanski 2016 and references therein) and therefore

40 in order to reach an estuarine nursery area, the fish larvae may need directional swimming and
41 competency to overcome coastal and tidal counter currents. (Wolanski 2016). The pelagic larval
42 phase is dependent on biophysical characteristics related with reproduction strategies, as well as
43 on the interactions between hydrodynamics and behavioral capabilities of individual larvae to
44 reach and settle in favorable habitats (Cowen and Sponaugle 2009; Sale et al. 2010; Amorim et al.
45 2016; Wolanski 2016). Eastern boundary coastal waters are naturally highly dynamic and
46 populated by transient structures such as river plumes, eddies and wind driven currents that
47 contribute to a rather complex environment which could be very challenging for early life stages
48 survival playing a role in dispersal, feeding conditions and exposure to predation (Relvas et al.
49 2007).

50 Connectivity between ocean and estuaries is vital for fish species with complex life cycles, such as
51 migratory species and species dependent on coastal or estuarine habitats as nursery grounds
52 (Harris et al. 2001; Elliott et al. 2007). These species, whose adults inhabit marine environments,
53 have larvae or early juveniles that migrate to coastal or estuarine nursery grounds, where they
54 remain until they grow to subadult stages to later join the marine adult populations (Vasconcelos
55 et al. 2011b). Assuring a good connectivity between the different habitats that a species uses
56 during its life-history is necessary to allow species to access resources (e.g. nursery habitat, food,
57 protection) (Teodósio et al. 2016), promoting the resilience of that population and, consequently
58 of the entire ecosystem (Gawarkiewicz et al. 2007; Mumby and Hastings 2008). Therefore,
59 management strategies would benefit from considering the continuum between all the habitats
60 used by the species, and that requires an understanding of the links between those habitats

61 (Wolanski 2016). In particular, considering fishes' connectivity it is essential to implement novel
62 management strategies as the ecosystem-based fisheries management. According to this strategy,
63 management focuses not only on the target species, but also contemplates the ecosystem (Pikitch
64 et al. 2004), considering ecological and biological features associated with the target species as
65 nursery grounds and temporarily fish habitats.

66 Larval dispersal is of crucial relevance not only to further perceive population dynamics of marine
67 fish populations, but also to help design and implement efficient management strategies to
68 protect fish species and marine ecosystems, nonetheless data on larval and juvenile dispersal of
69 coastal fishes are still scarce (Di Franco et al. 2012). The comprehension of the links between
70 estuarine and coastal environments is still a challenge, and the majority of the studies on larval
71 dispersal are focused on marine invertebrates and coral reef species (e.g. Cowen et al. 2000;
72 Kinlan and Gaines 2003; Shanks et al. 2003; Almany et al. 2007). Thus, the present study aims to
73 investigate the larval fish dispersal along a temperate NE Atlantic estuarine-ocean gradient by
74 combining simultaneous oceanic and estuarine plankton surveys to specifically: (i) characterize the
75 spatial trends of environmental parameters and ichthyoplankton along an estuarine- ocean
76 gradient; and (ii) investigate the influence of environmental drivers on structural and functional
77 features of the ichthyoplankton assemblages.

78

79 2. Material and Methods

80 2.1 Study area

81 The present study investigated the dispersal of fish larvae along an estuarine-ocean gradient off
82 the NW Iberian Peninsula, located at the northern end of the Canary Current Coastal Province. As
83 for other eastern boundary current systems the regional oceanography is largely affected by the
84 seasonal migration of the trade wind belt that drives the seasonal upwelling which is most intense
85 during the summer period (Longhurst 2007). The pelagic ecosystem is therefore considerably
86 controlled by vertical transport of nutrients into the euphotic zone. The occurrence of several
87 estuaries and rias off the western Iberian shoreline further contributes to the region's
88 productivity. The region, laying in between the influence of the sub-polar and sub-tropical central
89 waters (Mason et al. 2006), typically hosts a variety of fish species with small pelagics being very
90 relevant. The estuaries available offer feeding opportunities and protection to offshore advection
91 therefore are used as nursery grounds by many marine species. The present study focused on one
92 of those estuaries, the Lima estuary, a protected area by the Habitats Directive (1992) and the EU
93 Natura 2000 that, in spite of the major anthropogenic modifications at the outer estuary, still
94 encompasses important intertidal saltmarsh areas and natural banks (Ramos et al. 2015) and
95 functions as nursery area for some fish species amongst which are economically valuable
96 resources (Ramos et al. 2010). The Lima estuary, located off the NW coast is an essential fish
97 habitat and jointly with other estuaries in the vicinity (Cabral et al. 2007; Vasconcelos et al. 2011b)
98 functions as nursery ground for many species, some of them with high economic importance
99 (Ramos et al. 2010).

100 The temperate Lima River is an open estuary, with a semidiurnal and mesotidal regime (3.7 m),
101 with an annual average river flow of $59 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and salt intrusion extends to 12 km upstream, with
102 an average flushing rate of 0.5 m s^{-1} and a residence time of 9 days (Ramos et al. 2006a). The Lima
103 estuary can be divided into three geomorphological regions: the polyhaline lower estuary, a deep
104 dredged channel, highly urbanized and modified, sheltering a commercial harbor and a shipyard;
105 the middle estuary, a shallow large area with several tidal islands and salt marsh; and the upper
106 estuary, a narrow channel with natural banks and few tidal islands.

107

108 **2.2 Fish larvae sampling**

109 During the spring of 2009 (in April), the combined ocean-estuarine survey was conducted in six
110 sampling sites along the entire salinity gradient of the Lima estuary (from the river mouth up to 10
111 km upstream) and in two transects off the adjacent coastal zone extending approximately 20 km
112 offshore to the 100m depth isoline (Figure 1). In the Lima estuary, stations depth was on average 6
113 m, while in the ocean the average station depth was 48 m. A total of fifteen oceanic stations were
114 occupied on the two transects: seven stations north and eight stations south of the river mouth
115 (Figure 1), onboard IPMA's RV, during a pelagic fish acoustics campaign. In order to sample the
116 same water mass, the estuarine survey was performed in the following flood tide after the oceanic
117 survey, i.e. all samples were taken in a total period of 24 hours, between 31st March and 1st April.
118 Spring was chosen as many winter/spring marine spawning species colonize northern Portuguese
119 estuaries during this season (Ramos et al. 2006), including important marine resources as sardine
120 (Ramos et al. 2009) and flounder (Ramos et al. 2010).

121 Environmental surveying consisted of measurements of water column physical and chemical
122 parameters, namely temperature, salinity and oxygen saturation with a YSI 6820 CTD in the
123 estuarine stations and CTD (salinity, temperature, depth and fluorescence) casts in the marine
124 stations. Water samples were collected, in the estuary, with a Van Dorn bottle for further
125 analytical determination of chlorophyll a, nutrients (nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, phosphate and
126 silicate), total particulate matter (TPM) and particulate organic matter (POM), total dissolved
127 carbon (TDC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC). At sea, water samples were collected from two
128 depths, surface and below the river plume. Water samples were transported to the laboratory in
129 refrigerated ice chests and processed immediately.

130 Estuarine larval fish assemblages were collected with subsurface (1-2m depth) tows performed at
131 a constant velocity of ca. 1 ms^{-1} for 5 min, with a 500 μm mesh size plankton net. In the coastal
132 region, samples covering the entire water column, were obtained through oblique towing of a
133 Bongo system with 335 μm mesh size nets. All nets were fitted with flowmeters (Hydro-Bios) for
134 filtered water volume estimation. The volume of water filtered was on average 154 m^3 in the
135 estuarine stations and 106 m^3 in the marine stations. All the plankton samples were immediately
136 fixed in 4% buffered formalin (pH=8) and after sorting, fish larvae were preserved in 95% ethanol.

137

138 **2.3 Laboratorial processing**

139 All the analytical analyses of water parameters were performed in triplicate. The concentration of
140 chlorophyll a was determined spectrophotometrically after extraction with 90% acetone (Parsons
141 et al. 1984) with cell homogenization, using the SCOR-UNESCO (1966) trichromatic equation.

142 Dissolved orthophosphate, nitrite, ammonium and silicate concentrations were quantified by the

7

143 Grasshoff et al. (1983) methods, and nitrate was analyzed by an adaptation of the spongy
144 cadmium reduction technique (Jones 1984), subtracting nitrite from the total. For TPM and POM
145 assessment, samples were previously filtered through precombusted GF/F glass-fibre filters, which
146 were dried at 105°C (TPM) and then incinerated at 500°C (POM), according to APHA (1992). TDC
147 and DOC were determined using a Shimadzu Instruments TOC-VCSN analyzer following Magalhães
148 et al. (2008).

149 Fish larvae were sorted and identified to the highest possible taxonomic classification, to species
150 level whenever possible. For the most abundant taxa, the total and standard length and the
151 ontogenetic development stage were recorded. Abundance was standardized to the number of
152 larvae per 100 m³ of water filtered.

153

154 **2.4 Data analyses**

155 Environmental variables, larval fish assemblages descriptors (abundance, diversity and species
156 richness), as well as abundance patterns of *Platichthys flesus* and *Sardina pilchardus* along the
157 Lima estuarine-ocean gradient were mapped using ArcGIS 10.2 (ESRI, Redlands, CA). To
158 characterize the spatial patterns of each environmental variable, continuous layer maps were
159 created using a deterministic method, the inverse distance weighting (IDW) interpolation.

160 The diversity of larval fish assemblages was expressed by the Shannon-Wiener index (Shannon
161 and Weaner 1963) and assemblage equitability was measured by Pielou's evenness index (J')
162 (Pielou 1966). Each fish species were assigned to an ecological guild derived from estuarine use
163 pattern, according to Franco et al. (2008): estuarine residents (ES), marine migrants (MM; spawn

164 at sea and regularly enter estuaries in large numbers, including marine species using estuaries as
165 nursery grounds), marine stragglers (MS; spawn at sea and enter estuaries accidentally in low
166 numbers), freshwater species (F) and catadromous species (CA).

167 Differences in water and larval fish composition parameters between estuarine and marine
168 habitats were investigated by the non-parametric test Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA analysis, with habitat
169 (estuary/ocean) as fixed factors. The distribution of the larval fish assemblages along the
170 environmental estuary-coastal gradient was investigated by canonical correspondence analysis
171 (CCA) (Ter Braak 1986), using the software CANOCO (version 4.5, Microcomputer Power, Ithaca,
172 NY). Larval abundances were transformed [$\log(x+1)$] and downweighting of rare species was
173 performed. Only species with frequency of occurrence higher than 1% were included in the
174 analyses avoiding any undue effect of rare species. The option used for CCA was triplot scaling
175 with focus on interspecies distances. Significance of the canonical model was given by a Monte
176 Carlo test (Ter Braak and Smilaeur 2002). Inter-set correlation coefficients were used to assess the
177 importance of the environmental variables, and when inter-set $\geq |0.4|$ variables were considered
178 to be biologically important (Rakocinski et al. 1996). Environmental variables were added in their
179 standardized form, namely: mean temperature and salinity of the water column; mean chlorophyll
180 a, nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, phosphate, TPM, POM, TDC and DOC of surface and bottom
181 samples; and depth of the water column.

182

183 3. Results

184 3.1 Environmental conditions

185 The spatial salinity pattern clearly showed the horizontal salinity gradient along the estuary, with
186 salinity decreasing from the euhaline (>30) to the oligohaline range (<0.05) (Figure 2). Along the
187 study area, salinity of the water column ranged between 0.3 (uppermost estuarine station) and
188 35.8 (marine station), significantly decreasing from the oceanic stations towards inland stations
189 ($H=12.3$ $p<0.01$) (Table 1). In contrast, the water temperature did not vary between the ocean and
190 estuary (Table 1), and the minimum (11.1 °C) and maximum (13.2 °C) values were both registered
191 in the Lima estuarine stations (Figure 2). TPM ranged between 4.8 mg L⁻¹ (estuarine station) and
192 65.8 mg L⁻¹ (oceanic station) and POM varied between 2.4 mg L⁻¹ (estuary) and 12.6 mg L⁻¹ (ocean).
193 Both TPM and POM reached higher concentrations in coastal northern and southern stations
194 (Figure 2), decreasing offshore and mainly along the estuarine stations. Significantly higher
195 concentrations of TPM ($H=11.4$ $p<0.01$) and POM ($H=7.4$ $p<0.01$) were observed at marine stations
196 (Table 1). In the Lima estuary, higher TPM and POM concentrations were associated with the salt
197 marsh area (Figure 2). A similar scenario was observed for the dissolved carbon (Table 1), with
198 significantly higher TDC ($H=11.4$ $p<0.01$) concentration at oceanic stations, mainly at the most
199 offshore stations (Figure 2). Although the organic fraction of dissolved carbon was also more
200 concentrated at the most offshore stations (Figure 2), DOC reached significantly higher
201 concentration in the Lima estuary ($H=5.1$ $p<0.05$) (Table 1). In the Lima estuary chlorophyll a
202 significantly decreased from the estuarine stations towards offshore ($H=12.3$ $p<0.01$) (Figure 3). In
203 fact, in the Lima estuary chlorophyll a ranged between 2.3-3.8 mgL⁻¹ in comparison with marine

204 stations that in average registered a chlorophyll a concentration of $0.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$. Nutrients
205 concentration also differed along the estuarine-ocean gradient (Figure 3). In average there were
206 higher nutrients concentrations in the Lima estuary (Table 1), mainly nitrates ($H=11.4 \text{ p}<0.01$),
207 nitrites ($H=3.9 \text{ p}<0.05$) and silica ($H=11.4 \text{ p}<0.01$).

208

209 **3.2 Larval fish assemblages**

210 A total of 1226 fish larvae collected during the study corresponding to 56 taxa identified, from
211 which 16 taxa were collected within the Lima estuary and 54 at the oceanic stations (Table A-
212 supplementary data). A total of 14 taxa were spread along the estuarine-oceanic gradient (Table
213 2). There was a tendency for these common species to reach higher abundances at the ocean,
214 namely Clupeidae ni (ni – not identified) that was significantly more abundant at the ocean than at
215 Lima estuary ($H= 10.7 \text{ p}<0.01$). In contrast, the common goby *Pomatoschistus microps* and
216 flounder *Platichthys flesus* were significantly more abundant at the Lima estuary ($H= 8.6 \text{ p}<0.01$;
217 $H= 9.7 \text{ p}<0.01$, respectively).

218 The total larval fish abundance varied along the gradient (Figure 4), increasing from the upper
219 estuary towards offshore. Fish larvae were significantly ($H= 7.0 \text{ p}<0.01$) more abundant at the
220 ocean (Table 2), where abundance varied from a minimum of $21.7 \text{ larvae } 100 \text{ m}^{-3}$ at the
221 northernmost coastal station until a maximum of $196.3 \text{ larvae } 100 \text{ m}^{-3}$ observed at the southern
222 (Figure 4). Such high abundances observed closely to the Lima river mouth (Figure 4), were mainly
223 composed by Clupeiforms (34%) and Labridae (28%). In the Lima estuary, the larval fish
224 assemblage ranged between $6.1\text{-}58.5 \text{ fish larvae } 100 \text{ m}^{-3}$, and the highest abundances were
225 observed in salt marsh area (Figure 4) and were dominated by *P. microps*.

11

226 The larval fish assemblages showed a tendency to include more species and became more diverse
227 from the upstream estuarine stations towards offshore (Figure 3). In fact, the Shannon Wiener
228 index as well as the species richness reached significantly higher values at marine stations than in
229 the Lima estuary ($H = 10.7$ $p < 0.01$; $H = 8.9$ $p < 0.01$, respectively) (Table 2).

230 From the 56 taxa identified, only six taxa were not assigned to an ecological guild, and 48% of the
231 taxa were classified as MS, 23% as MM and 18% as ES. The coastal larval fish assemblages included
232 five ecological guilds, but only three were observed in the Lima estuary, namely MS, MM and ES,
233 whose relative abundance varied between the Lima estuary and the sea (Figure 5). The spatial
234 distribution of each of these functional groups showed that estuarine species (ES) were more
235 abundant within the Lima estuary, mainly in the saltmarsh zone (Figure 6), representing more than
236 75% of the assemblage. In fact, this group of species were significantly more abundant at the Lima
237 estuary than in the marine stations ($H = 9.7$ $p < 0.05$). In contrast, marine straggler species (MS) that
238 were only observed in the lower section of the Lima estuary (Figure 6) reached significantly higher
239 abundances in marine stations ($H = 5.5$ $p < 0.01$).

240 The spatial distribution of estuarine dependent species (MM) showed that although these species
241 occurred along the gradient without significant differences between marine and estuarine stations
242 ($H = 0.55$ $p > 0.05$), they tended to concentrate in the middle and upper sections of the Lima estuary
243 (Figure 6). Focusing on the most abundant MM species that occurred along the gradient, the
244 spatial distribution showed that flounder abundance, gradually increased from offshore towards
245 the upper estuary (Figure 7), where flounder reached significantly higher abundances ($H = 9.7$
246 $p < 0.01$), overreaching 25 larvae 100m^{-3} . On the other hand, sardines, *Sardina pilchardus*, were the

247 second most abundant MM species, and they were more abundant at the marine stations, and
248 were only present in small numbers in the lower sections of the Lima estuary (Figure 7).

249

250 **3.3 Environmental influence**

251 Canonical correspondence analysis showed that species were distributed along the first two CCA
252 axes. The first CCA axis (eigenvalue = 0.6) and the second CCA axis (eigenvalue = 0.4) exhibited a
253 high species–environment correlation (0.9) and the effect of the environmental variables on
254 explained distribution of the CCA axes was significant ($F= 1.5$ $p < 0.01$, Monte Carlo permutation
255 test). According to the inter-set correlation coefficients chlorophyll a, nitrates and DOC were
256 positively related with first CCA axis, while depth, salinity, TPM and TDC were negatively
257 correlated with the first CCA axis (Table 3). Samples clustered according to their origin, with
258 estuarine and oceanic samples being separated along the first CCA axis. Estuarine samples with
259 higher concentrations of chlorophyll a, nitrates and DOC clustered on the positive side of the
260 ordination plot, while oceanic samples characterized by high salinity and TPM and TDC
261 concentrations clustered on the negative side of first CCA axis (Figure 8a). Oceanic samples were
262 separated along the second CCA axis that was negatively correlated with depth of the water
263 column (Table 3). In fact, samples with less than 50 m depth clustered on the positive part of
264 second CCA axis, while deeper samples located offshore of the 50 m isobaths were associated with
265 the negative part of the second CCA axis (Figure 8a). The species classification in ecological guilds
266 showed that functional groups were distributed along the first CCA axis, with MS tending to cluster
267 in the negative part of first CCA axis, associated with high salinity. In contrast, ES showed a wider

268 distribution along the estuarine-ocean gradient (Figure 8b) and were associated with lower
269 salinities and high Chlorophyll a and nitrates concentrations. MM species occurred in between
270 these two functional groups along the estuarine gradient.

271

272 **4. Discussion**

273 ***4.1 Larval fish dispersal according to species functional traits***

274 The present study showed for the first time the dispersal of larval fish assemblages along the Lima
275 estuarine-ocean gradient. The coordinated plankton collection in the ocean and estuary allowed to
276 verify a mixture of estuarine and marine species occurring along a gradient of 30 km from the
277 100m isobaths offshore until the upper section of the Lima estuary. The species collected in this
278 study are frequently observed in planktonic studies of the region, and the abundances registered
279 were within the range of previous studies for the same time of the year (e.g. Azeiteiro et al. 2006;
280 Ramos et al. 2006a; Garrido et al. 2009). These evidences support the representativeness of the
281 data collected during this study and constitutes valuable baseline information to help
282 understanding the connectivity between the ocean and the Lima estuary.

283 A major finding of the present study was to show that species distribution along the Lima
284 estuarine-ocean gradient were in accordance with their ecological traits relative to species use of
285 estuarine environments. Overall, each ecological guild group exhibited the expected spatial
286 distribution along the gradient: estuarine species (ES) were more abundant in the Lima estuary,
287 mainly in the salt marsh zone, while marine stragglers (MS) were associated with the ocean and
288 restricted to the lower section of the Lima estuary, and finally marine migrants (MM) were spread

14

289 along the gradient, with higher abundances in the middle and upper sections of the Lima estuary.
290 The ecological guild classification is based on all life-cycle of the species (Elliott et al. 2007), and
291 this study emphasized the importance of early larval stages for the determination of the species
292 traits. One example was the European flounder *P. flesus*, whose larvae presented a typical spatial
293 gradient of a marine migrant species, since its abundance gradually increased from offshore
294 (spawning areas) towards the upper estuary where abundance peaked. This species, a typical user
295 of coastal/estuarine nursery areas (Elliott et al. 2007), reproduces in winter/early spring in marine
296 waters (e.g. Campos et al. 1994; Dando et al. 2011; Koubbi et al. 2006) and migrates during the
297 early life stages to nursery grounds (e.g. Jager 2001; Martinho et al. 2008). The spatial pattern of
298 flounder larvae observed in this study (i.e. abundance increasing from offshore towards the
299 estuary) was in accordance with the previous studies that proposed the Lima estuary as a nursery
300 area (Ramos et al. 2010; Amorim et al. 2016). According to those studies, *P. flesus* recruitment to
301 estuary occurs early during the larval phase, with larvae migrating from the offshore spawning
302 grounds to the estuarine nursery area. The present results further reinforce the evidence of
303 connectivity between the ocean and the Lima estuary for a marine migrant species as *P. flesus*.

304 On the other hand, sardine *S. pilchardus* larvae were more abundant at the sea and were only
305 present in small numbers in the lower sections of the estuary. Such spatial distribution is typical of
306 marine stragglers, although *S. pilchardus* was classified as marine migrant species, in accordance
307 with the classification proposed by Franco et al. (2008) and also corroborating previous studies in
308 the Lima estuary during which high abundances of *S. pilchardus* larvae were observed in the inner
309 sections of the estuary (Ramos et al. 2009). European sardine larvae tend to dominate the

310 ichthyoplankton community in the Western Iberian upwelling ecosystem, particularly during
311 colder months of the year (Garrido et al. 2009) and are thought to be limited to coastal areas (e.g.
312 John et al. 1996; Chícharo et al. 1998; Olivar et al. 2003; Santos et al, 2004), and that is in
313 agreement with the results from this work, since higher *S. pilchardus* abundance were observed at
314 the oceanic stations. However, the observed abundances within the estuarine stations (0.5-3.2
315 sardine larvae 100 m⁻³) were lower than those found in prior studies in the Lima estuary, where *S.*
316 *pilchardus* larval abundance reached 60.8 larvae 100 m⁻³ (Ramos et al. 2006a; 2009). The
317 comparatively lower abundances of the sardine larvae observed during this work (also quite
318 restricted in time) might reflect the inter-annual variability of estuarine recruitment, derived from
319 variability in the sardine densities (Massé et al. 2016) and inter-annual variation of oceanographic
320 and estuarine hydrological conditions (Ramos et al. 2009; Amorim et al. 2016). This study gives
321 support to the need of further research in understanding the sardine early life history and
322 ascertaining the importance of estuarine habitats for this pelagic species.

323

324 **4.2 Environmental drivers of larval dispersal**

325 The spatial distribution of the environmental variables showed that the study area covered two
326 distinct water masses, and some variables varied greatly along the estuarine-ocean gradient,
327 namely S, Chla, TPM, POM, TDC, DOC, NO₃, NO₂ and Si. The Lima estuary was characterized by
328 lower salinity and higher concentrations of chlorophyll *a*, nitrates, nitrites and silica, typical
329 features for the time of the year (April) (Ramos et al. 2006b; Amorim et al. 2016). At the oceanic
330 stations, temperature and salinity values (Massé et al. 2016) and chlorophyll *a* and nutrients

331 concentrations (Moita 2001; Cabrita et al. 2015) were within the ranges commonly observed in
332 the region during spring. Coastal salinity was considerably higher, as expected and presented
333 higher concentrations of particulate matter, including the organic fraction and total carbon. The
334 present study showed that the adjacent northern coastal stations presented higher values of
335 particulate matter (TPM and POM), what is an unusual pattern, since estuaries are typically more
336 turbid than coasts. However, the Lima estuary is characterized by clear waters with reduced
337 turbidity levels (Ramos et al. 2006b; Ramos et al. 2009). Also, the observed higher TPM and POM
338 concentrations in the northern adjacent coast may be associated with the presence of several
339 small estuaries located northerly of the Lima river mouth, whose run-off is advected southwards
340 due to the prevailing northern-southern currents (Amorim et al. 2016). The water characteristics
341 varied less at the ocean in comparison with estuarine stations. Estuaries are interface ecosystems
342 functioning as boundaries between rivers and the ocean, where abrupt changes in salinity,
343 temperature, oxygen and turbidity occur due to the influence of tides and the mixing of marine
344 and fresh waters (e.g. Elliott and Wollanski 2015). In this study, the extreme and steep gradients
345 observed in many physical and chemical variables were derived from the mixing of the oceanic
346 water mass with the freshwater inflow, since the sampling survey was conducted during the flood
347 tide. Not many species can cope with the physiological stress induced by the environmental
348 variability of estuarine habitats (Elliott and Hemingway 1995; Elliott et al. 2007), and as result,
349 estuaries are characterized by comprising less species than the adjacent coastal areas. In fact, our
350 results illustrated this feature, since the species richness and assemblage diversity were lower in
351 the estuary in comparison with the oceanic stations.

352 Larval fish dispersal contemplates passive and active transport mechanisms (e.g. Harris et al. 2001;
353 Schulderman et al. 2012), controlled by hydrodynamic conditions and by water characteristics as
354 temperature, salinity, turbidity (e.g. Grouthes and Cowen 1999; Harris et al. 2001; Santos et al.
355 2004; Ramos et al. 2006b; Amorim et al. 2016). According to the canonical correspondence
356 analysis results, salinity, chlorophyll *a*, nitrates, and depth were the most relevant environmental
357 variables correlated with the larval fish assemblages of the Lima estuarine-oceanic gradient. In
358 fact, these water parameters have been usually associated with the occurrence of abundance
359 fluctuations of larval stages of fishes. Salinity and depth (which also reflect location) have been
360 widely identified as important environmental drivers of larval fish assemblages (Harris et al. 2001;
361 Ramos et al. 2006b and references therein), controlling the species composition of
362 ichthyoplankton assemblages in function of the species tolerance to salinity gradients. Chlorophyll
363 *a* has also been identified as an important environmental control of larval fish assemblages, since
364 spring peaks of chlorophyll *a* derived from phytoplankton blooms have been associated with
365 estuarine peaks of larval fish abundance (e.g. Livingston et al. 1997; Garcia et al. 2003; Amorim et
366 al. 2016). In fact, some authors consider this synchronization as a strategy following the ‘match-
367 mismatch’ hypothesis (Cushing 1990), according to which the temporal and spatial overlap
368 between peaks in food resources (e.g., phytoplankton and subsequently zooplankton) and larval
369 abundance regulates survival of larval fishes and subsequent recruitment (Cushing 1990; Chick and
370 Van Den Avyle 1999).

371 The first canonical axis, which represented the spatial Lima estuarine–ocean gradient, separated
372 typical marine species associated with high salinity from estuarine resident species as *P. microps*

373 and *P. minutus* and estuarine-dependent species as *P. flesus*. Interestingly, species were more or
374 less separated along the spatial gradient accordingly to their ecological functional classification.
375 Results showed that MS species were positively correlated with salinity and were associated with
376 marine stations. On the other hand, ES species showed a wider distribution and were associated
377 with lower salinities and high chlorophyll *a* concentrations of the inner Lima estuarine stations. ES
378 were more abundant in the Lima estuary, mainly in the salt marsh zone, where species like *P.*
379 *microps* and *P. minutus* tend to concentrate (Ramos et al. 2006a; and data not published). Marine
380 migrant species were distributed along the estuarine-ocean gradient, with some species positively
381 correlated with salinity as sea bass *Dicentrarchus labrax*. Others as *P. flesus* were negatively
382 correlated with salinity and associated with high concentrations of chlorophyll *a*. Actually,
383 chlorophyll *a* has been identified as a major environmental driver of the occurrence of *P. flesus*
384 larvae in the Lima estuary (Amorim et al. 2016). The second canonical axis was negatively
385 correlated with depth, and represented a second environmental gradient separating shallow
386 coastal stations from deep offshore stations. Species were also separated along this coastal-
387 offshore gradient, and species like *Centrolabrus exoletus*, *Labrus merula*, and *Lipophrys trigloides*
388 were negatively correlated with depth, since they are typical coastal species associated with
389 shallow habitats (Whitehead et al. 1984). In contrast, larval stages of demersal species as *Ciliata*
390 *mustela* or bathypelagic species as *Micromessistius poutassou* were positively correlated with
391 depth and clustered associated with the deepest stations. Hence, the results of this study clearly
392 showed the importance of the water characteristics in controlling the spatial patterns and
393 dispersal of the larval fish species along an estuarine-oceanic gradient.

394

395 4.3 Importance of larval fish dispersal and connectivity to management

396 Processes occurring during the pelagic larval phase of fish life are well acknowledged to influence
397 the spatial distribution of fish populations (e.g. McGilliard and Hilborn 2008; Schludermann et al.
398 2012), and ultimately the strength of annual recruitment (Cowen and Sponaugle 2009;
399 Vasconcelos et al. 2011b) and abundance of adult populations (Able and Fahay 2010).

400 Connectivity between marine and estuarine environments is fundamental for several fish species
401 (Cowen and Sponaugle 2009), in some particular phase of their life cycle (Elliott et al. 2007; Franco
402 et al. 2008). Larval dispersal is then essential to marine species to reach suitable coastal/estuarine
403 nursery areas, where early development stages of marine fishes can growth faster and thus
404 increasing their probability of survivorship before joining the adult populations. The results of this
405 study showed that larval stages of species commercially exploited, as sardine and flounder, were
406 dispersed along the Lima estuary-ocean corridor, indicative of the connectivity between the
407 habitats. Particularly for these species is mandatory that human activities do not compromise the
408 connectivity between ocean and estuarine habitats, what could pose additional pressures to the
409 stocks. Thus, larval dispersal and connectivity with nursery areas should not be forgotten in
410 management plans and the scientific research needs to continue increasing our understanding of
411 the population's movements which then will help in the conservation and preservation of the
412 marine ecosystems. Knowing that larval fish dispersal is fundamental to the efficiency of
413 governance practices as MPA (McGilliard and Hilborn 2008; Di Franco et al. 2012), the present
414 study contributed to give empirical evidences of estuarine-ocean connectivity and, in the future it

20

415 will be interesting to integrate estuarine stations in the current stock monitoring plans for some
416 fisheries. Given that the Atlanto-Iberian sardine stock has reached historically minimum values of
417 population abundance and recruitment strength (ICES 2015; Massé et al. 2016), the relevance of
418 studies as the present one is important to foster comprehensive understanding of estuarine-ocean
419 connectivity (and should be replicated in other larger estuaries), what has been acknowledged as
420 having important applications for management and conservation of ecosystems (Cowen and
421 Sponaugle, 2009).

422

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434

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Figures Captations

Figure 1. Location of the sampling stations of the northern (⊙) and southern (●) transects, and estuarine (★) stations along the Lima estuary-ocean gradient.

Figure 2. Spatial variation of a) salinity (psu); b) temperature (°C); c) total particulate matter (TPM: mg L⁻¹); d) particulate organic matter (POM: mg L⁻¹); e) total dissolved carbon (TDC: mg L⁻¹); and f) dissolved organic carbon (DOC: mg L⁻¹) along the Lima estuarine-ocean gradient in April 2009.

Figure 3. Spatial variation of a) chlorophyll a (mg m⁻³); and nutrients (μM L⁻¹) (b) NH₄⁻ ammonium; c) NO₃⁻ nitrates; d) NO₂⁻ nitrites; e) PO₄⁻ phosphates; f) Si- silica) concentrations along the Lima estuarine-ocean gradient in April 2009.

Figure 4. Spatial variation of a) larval fish abundances (no. larvae 100 m⁻³), b) diversity (H') and c) species richness (no. species) along the Lima estuarine-ocean gradient in April 2009.

Figure 5. Relative abundance (%) of each ecological guilds of the Lima estuary (estuary) and marine larval fish assemblages, considering all species collected. ES- estuarine residents; MM-marine migrants; MS marine stragglers; other (species without an ecological guild assigned).

Figure 6. Spatial variation of the relative abundance (in %) of each functional groups of the larval fish assemblages along the Lima estuarine-ocean gradient in April 2009. ES- estuarine residents; MS marine stragglers; and MM-marine migrants.

Figure 7. Spatial variation of flounder (*Platichthys flesus*) and sardine (*Sardina pilchardus*) larval fish abundance (no. larvae 100 m⁻³) along the Lima estuarine-ocean gradient in April 2009.

Figure 8. Ordination diagrams for the first two canonical correspondence axes of the canonical correspondence analysis: a) triplot between larval fish species, environmental variables and sampling stations (blue-ocean; green-estuarine); and b) biplot between environmental variables and larval fish species classified accordingly to their ecological guild classification in terms of estuarine use (green-estuarine species (ES); blue-marine stragglers (MS); and yellow- marine migrant species (MM). S- salinity; T- temperature; Depth-depth of the water column; TPM- total particulate matter; POM- particulates organic matter; TDC- total dissolved carbon; DOC- dissolved organic carbon (DOC); NH₄⁻ ammonium; NO₃⁻ nitrates; NO₂⁻ nitrites; PO₄⁻ phosphates; Chla- chlorophyll a concentration. For species codes please see Table 2 and Table A-supplementary data.

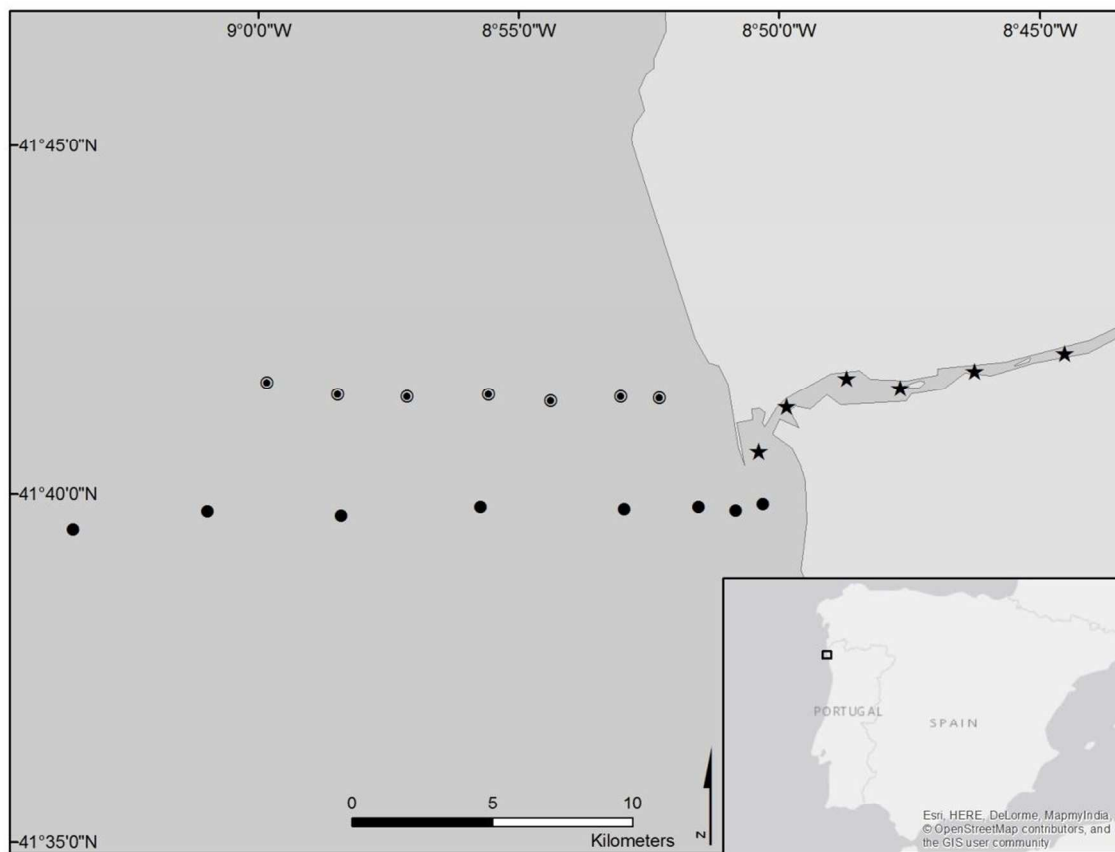


Figure 1.

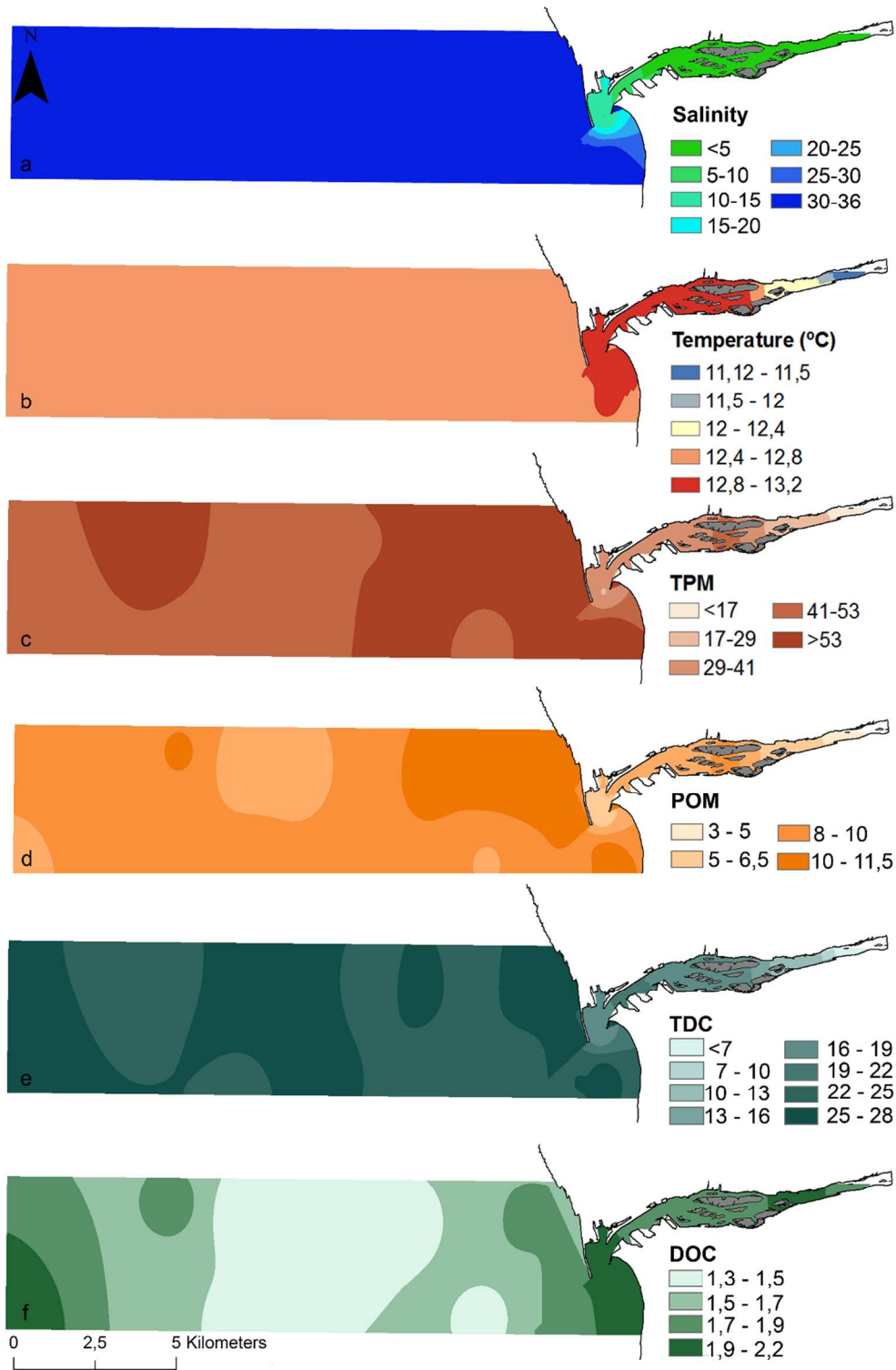


Figure 2.

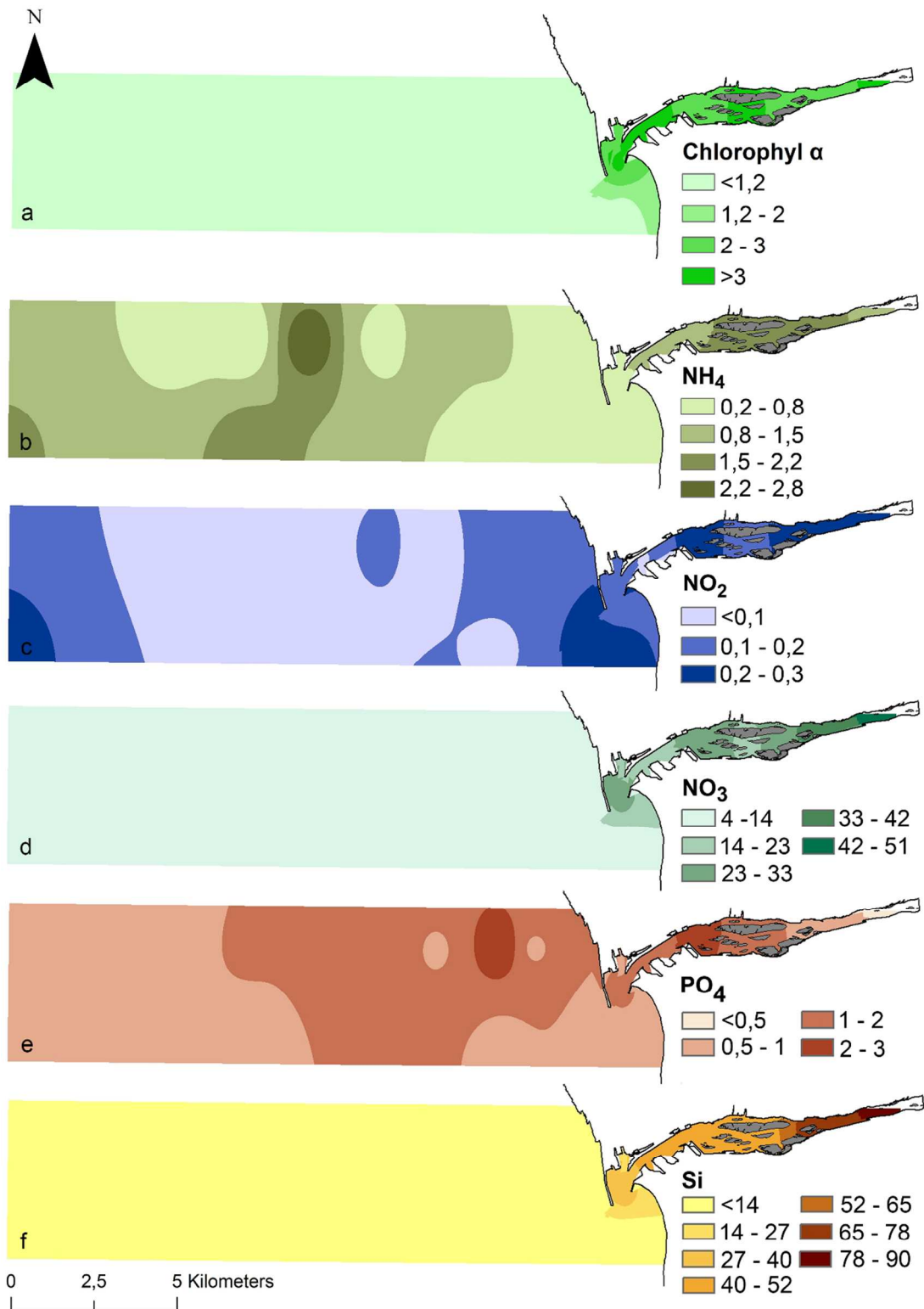


Figure 3.

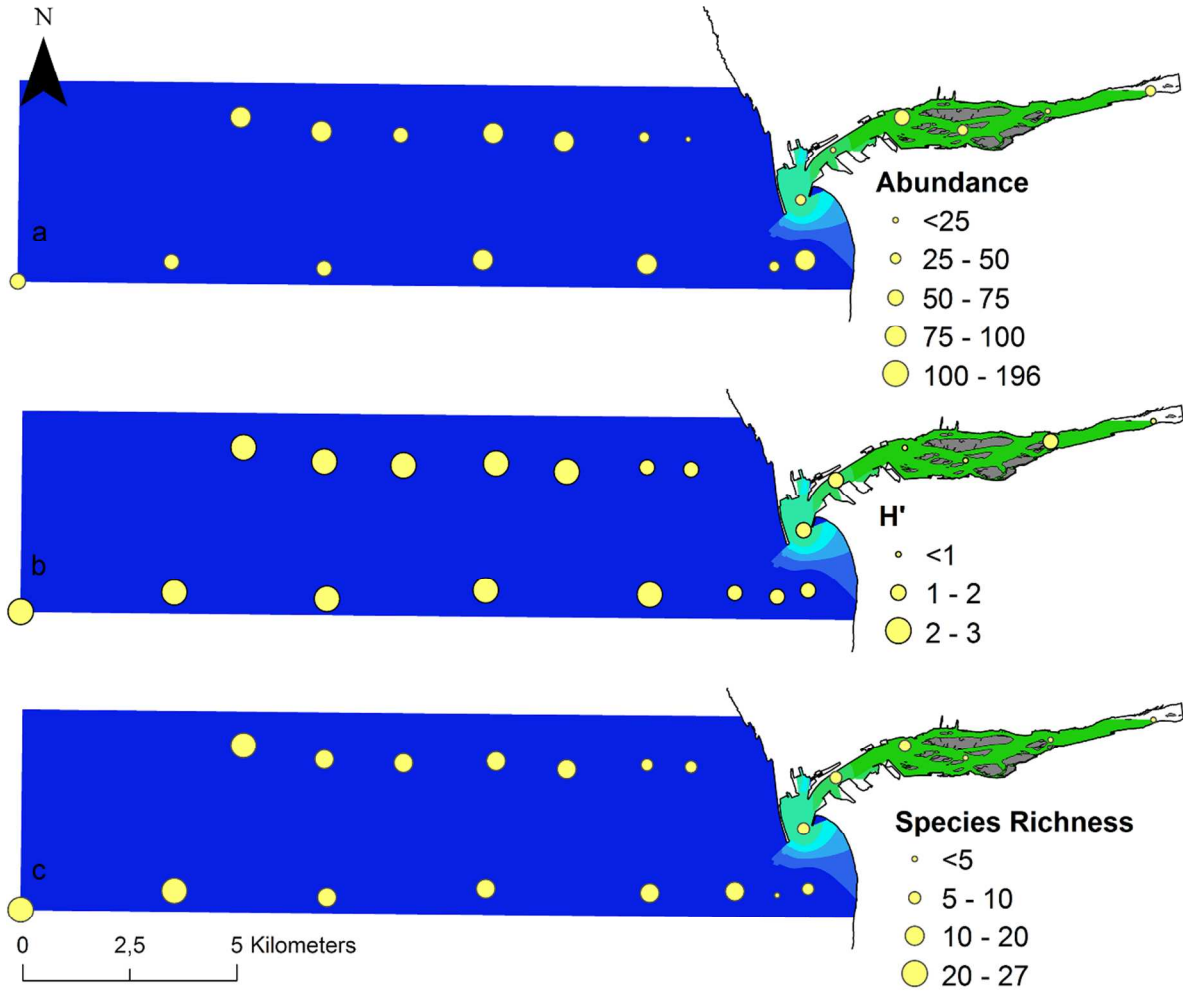


Figure 4.

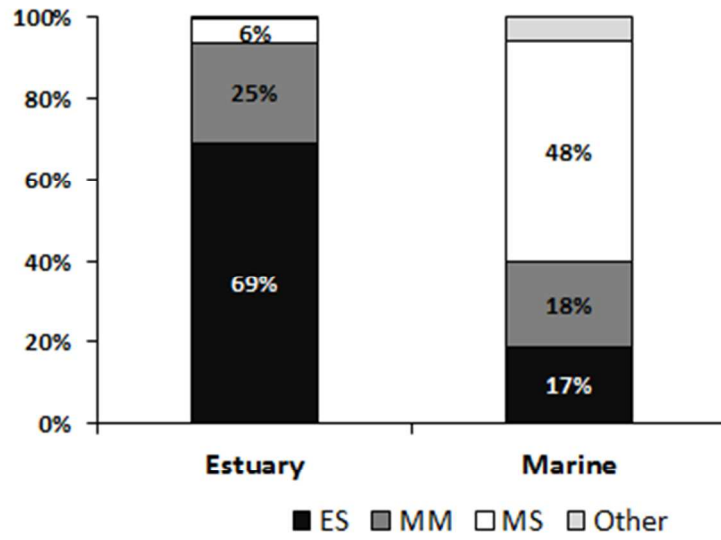


Figure 5.

Draft

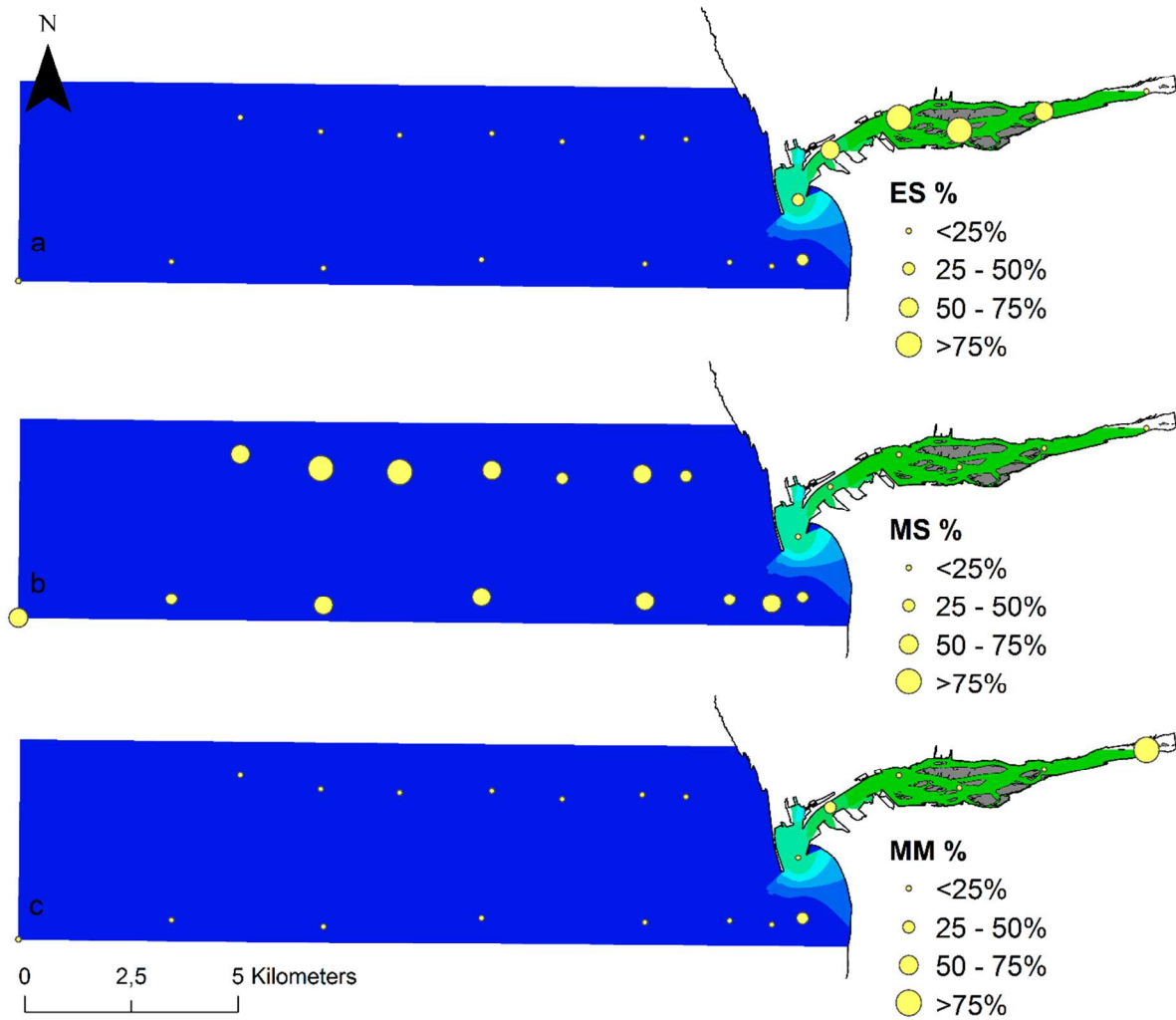


Figure 6.

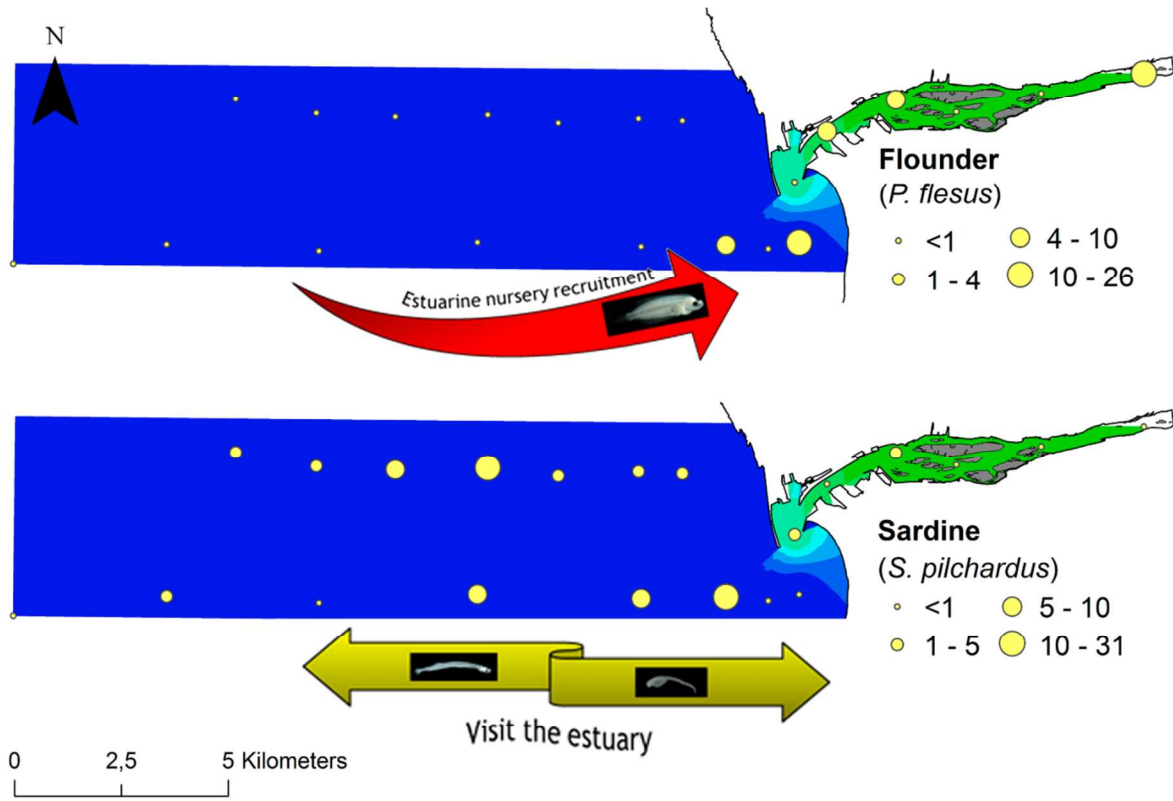


Figure 7.

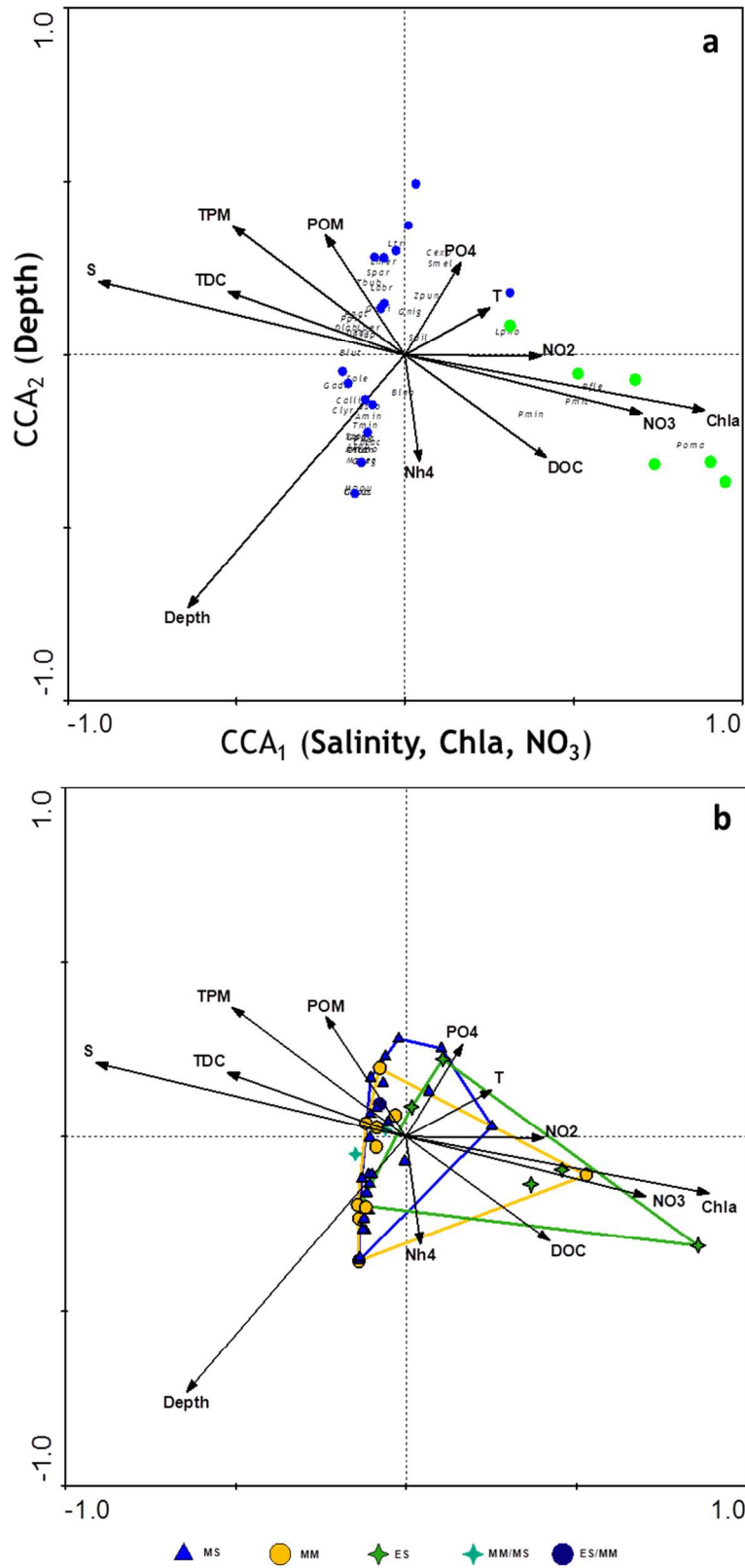


Figure 8.

Tables

Table 1. Water parameters of the Lima estuary and adjacent coastal zone along the water column.

| | Lima estuary | | Ocean | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|-------|---------|------|
| | Average | SD | Average | SD |
| Temperature (°C) | 12.60 | 0.69 | 12.56 | 0.09 |
| Salinity (psu) | 13.00 | 15.73 | 35.69 | 0.09 |
| Chlorophyll a (mg m ⁻³) | 3.20 | 1.50 | 0.65 | 0.16 |
| TPM (mg L ⁻¹) | 28.88 | 23.06 | 54.22 | 5.90 |
| POM (mg L ⁻¹) | 6.07 | 3.33 | 9.18 | 1.52 |
| TDC (mg L ⁻¹) | 15.01 | 8.80 | 25.25 | 1.93 |
| DOC (mg L ⁻¹) | 1.95 | 0.19 | 1.67 | 0.28 |
| Nh ₄ (μM L ⁻¹) | 1.28 | 0.60 | 0.94 | 0.83 |
| NO ₃ (μM L ⁻¹) | 29.79 | 18.68 | 6.56 | 1.28 |
| NO ₂ (μM L ⁻¹) | 0.20 | 0.06 | 0.15 | 0.06 |
| PO ₄ (μM L ⁻¹) | 1.24 | 0.94 | 1.05 | 0.71 |
| Si (μM L ⁻¹) | 54.62 | 38.16 | 3.69 | 1.75 |

Table 2. Abundance (no. larvae 100 m⁻³), Shannon Wiener index (H') and species richness (no. of species) of the larval fish assemblages of Lima estuary and coastal area, and the ecological guild classification and abundance of the fourteen fish larvae species common along the estuarine-ocean gradient.

| Species | CCA code | EG | Lima estuary | | Ocean | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|----|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | | Average | SD | Average | SD |
| <i>Centrolabrus exoletus</i> | <i>Cexo</i> | MS | 0.33 | 0.81 | 3.46 | 7.29 |
| Cupeidae ni | <i>Clup</i> | MS | 0.08 | 0.20 | 7.89 | 8.68 |
| <i>Gobius niger</i> | <i>Gnig</i> | ES | 0.43 | 1.06 | 0.70 | 2.08 |
| Labridae ni | <i>Labr</i> | MS | 0.16 | 0.25 | 2.25 | 2.73 |
| <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | <i>Lber</i> | MS | 0.27 | 0.66 | 1.74 | 2.50 |
| <i>Lipophrys pholis</i> | <i>Lpho</i> | MS | 0.28 | 0.69 | 0.65 | 1.60 |
| <i>Platichthys flesus</i> | <i>Pfle</i> | MM | 5.84 | 9.96 | 1.58 | 5.29 |
| <i>Pomatoschistus microps</i> | <i>Pmic</i> | ES | 15.39 | 18.25 | 0.41 | 0.89 |
| <i>Pomatoschistus minutus</i> | <i>Pmin</i> | ES | 1.03 | 1.70 | 0.12 | 0.34 |
| <i>Pomatoschistus pictus</i> | <i>Ppic</i> | MS | 0.08 | 0.19 | 1.51 | 2.74 |
| <i>Sardina pilchardus</i> | <i>Spil</i> | MM | 0.95 | 1.36 | 5.33 | 7.91 |
| Sparidae ni | <i>Spar</i> | MM | 0.08 | 0.20 | 1.17 | 2.69 |
| <i>Symphodus melops</i> | <i>Smel</i> | ES | 1.49 | 2.42 | 5.59 | 9.47 |
| <i>Zeugopterus punctatus</i> | <i>Zpun</i> | MS | 0.43 | 1.06 | 0.46 | 1.35 |
| Total abundance | | | 30.45 | 23.46 | 73.23 | 39.49 |
| Diversity (H') | | | 0.97 | 0.95 | 2.25 | 0.44 |
| Species richness | | | 5.17 | 4.89 | 14.47 | 6.32 |

Table 3. Inter-set correlations of environmental variables with the first two CCA axes, based on the log-transformed abundance of larval fish assemblages of the estuarine-coastal gradient.

| Environmental variables | CCA ₁ | CCA ₂ |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Depth (m) | -0.64* | -0.71* |
| Temperature (°C) | 0.25 | 0.13 |
| Salinity (psu) | -0.90* | 0.20 |
| Chlorophyll a (mg m ⁻³) | 0.88* | -0.16 |
| TPM (mg L ⁻¹) | -0.51* | 0.36 |
| POM (mg L ⁻¹) | -0.23 | 0.33 |
| TDC (mg L ⁻¹) | -0.52* | 0.18 |
| DOC (mg L ⁻¹) | 0.42* | -0.29 |
| Nh ₄ (μM L ⁻¹) | 0.04 | -0.30 |
| NO ₃ (μM L ⁻¹) | 0.70* | -0.16 |
| NO ₂ (μM L ⁻¹) | 0.39 | 0.00 |
| PO ₄ (μM L ⁻¹) | 0.16 | 0.26 |

* inter-set $\geq |0.4|$ corresponding to biologically important variables.