1	Small creeks in a big lagoon: the importance of marginal habitats for fish populations
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Temperate transitional water systems, as in the case of the Venice Lagoon, are 27 characterised by many different shallow-water habitats. The availability of trophic 28 29 resources and the low predator pressure make salt marshes one of the most important habitats for many fish species, both resident and marine migrant, but several 30 anthropogenic pressures, erosion and relative sea level rise in particular, are causing a 31 32 significant loss of this habitat. A part from natural habitats, in many small lagoon islands of the Venice lagoon, artificial creeks of different size and morphology are 33 34 present, once used in traditional aquaculture activities or built up as defence lines. Aims of this study is to analyse and compare the structure and composition of fish 35 communities inhabiting small-sized creeks, considering both the natural and artificial 36 37 ones, in order to evaluate the ecological importance of these marginal habitats for fish populations. A particular attention was given to artificial sites, assessing their ecological 38 value as alternative refuge habitats to natural salt marsh creeks. One year samplings 39 40 conducted in four sites (two natural salt marshes and two artificial creeks) allowed to describe the local fish communities, which comprised 20 species overall. Influence of 41 water parameters and habitat structure were considered in analysing the fish 42 43 communities observed. In some cases, these habitats hosted high abundances of resident 44 fish species listed in the Annex II of the Habitat Directive. Furthermore, juveniles of eight species of marine migrant fish were found, some of which are of economic 45 importance. Results of this study underline the ecological importance of these marginal 46 habitats for many fish species, of both conservation and economic importance, and thus 47 a proper management and restoration strategy of these sites is needed to maintain their 48

49 functionality and to buffer the disappearance of natural salt marshes.

51 1. Introduction

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Salt marshes constitute one of the most important habitats in temperate transitional 53 54 water ecosystems (Kennish, 2002; Airoldi and Beck, 2007; Lowe and Peterson, 2014). They play several ecological roles for animal populations, and in particular for fish 55 species (Mathieson et al., 2000; Kneib, 2000). Indeed these habitats host abundant 56 populations of both estuarine resident and migrant species, with higher fish densities 57 relative to adjacent unvegetated open-water habitats (Franco et al. 2006a, b). The 58 59 ecological importance of these habitats is mainly due to the high level of trophic resources available and to the refuge function from predation deriving from a complex 60 morphological structure (Rountree and Able, 2007). Furthermore, many fish species 61 62 living in these areas are of conservation or commercial relevance (Franco et al., 2010, 2012). The importance of these habitats for aquatic fauna derives from their high spatial 63 heterogeneity; salt marshes consist of a complex mosaic of microhabitats such as 64 65 vegetated edges, subtidal and intertidal creeks, pools and ponds (Minello et al., 2003). Among them, salt marsh creeks in particular host high fish density (Desmond et al, 66 2000; Franco et al., 2006a, b). 67

In the last decades, many anthropic pressures determined a substantial loss of salt marsh habitats worldwide (Airoldi and Beck, 2007; Fagherazzi, 2013). Land claim, erosion, pollution, aquaculture and relative sea level rise determined the alteration or the complete destruction of these habitats. A major loss of salt marsh habitats occurred also within the Venice lagoon, the largest Mediterranean coastal lagoon, with salt marsh surface reduction from about 149 km² in 1912 to 37 km² in 2003 (Cucchini, 1928;

Silvestri et al., 2003), mostly due to the effects of anthropogenic-induced erosion 74 75 (Sarretta et al., 2010). Furthermore, a strong reduction of the extent of salt marshes (Carniello et al., 2009) or even their complete disappearance (Cola et al., 2008) are 76 77 predicted over the next 50 years. Even if in the last decades many salt marsh restoration 78 activities have been carried out to counterbalance this negative trend (Carniello et al., 2009), some of the causes of marsh loss has not been, or cannot be, easily prevented. 79 Subsidence and relative sea level rise have been addressed as among the major causes 80 of salt marsh loss (Bock et al., 2012; Kirwan and Megonigal, 2013), particularly in 81 situation with a lower income of sediments such as in the case of the Venice lagoon. For 82 the Adriatic Sea, during the XX century, sea level rose at a rate of 1.3 mm y⁻¹, and by 83 the year 2100 it could rise 14-49 cm (Scarascia and Lionello, 2013). 84

In the Venice lagoon, small inter/subtidal creeks a few meters wide only, with a mean depth of 0.5-1.5 m, may be also found within lagoon islands. They are mainly manmade artificial creeks, once used for traditional fish farming, as small marinas or as defence line during the two world wars.

89 While navigation channels are subjected to periodic maintenance and a certain degree of pollution and disturbance due to boat traffic, the other two types of artificial creeks are 90 now mainly abandoned and partly renaturalised. These artificial habitats were built 91 92 mostly during the XIX-XX centuries and can be divided into two main categories. The 93 first one is composed of closed systems, once regulated by water gates but now mostly abandoned; in some cases, water infiltration by nearby channels allows for a partial 94 95 water renewal. These habitats, as part of an integrated form of land use, are composed of a network of shallow water creeks used for fish farming, crossing through fields and 96 orchards. In most of the cases, these traditional activities are now strongly diminished or 97

completely abandoned, resulting in a renaturalisation of both terrestrial and aquatic 98 habitats. A second group of artificial creeks comprises more open systems, mainly used 99 as marinas or to defend military buildings. These creeks often present step stone banks 100 and a greater depth, up to two meters, allowing navigation to small boats. Thus, for their 101 102 morphology these are tide influenced habitats, but even during low tide a complete drainage of the water does not occur, allowing the permanence of fish within the creek. 103 104 On the whole, Venice lagoon hosts about 100 km of these artificial creeks. Waltham 105 and Connolly (2013) proposed the maintenance and restoration of artificial tidal lakes 106 along the Gold Coasts in Queensland (Australia) as a process in some way inverse to 107 land claim. Similarly, within the Venice lagoon, despite a simpler morphology, the 108 network of artificial creeks could in part buffer the biodiversity loss due to salt marsh disappearance by providing suitable habitats for many fish species, even of conservation 109 and commercial interest. Most of these artificial creeks are located in marginal and 110 scarcely populated areas, thus avoiding impacts from the many anthropogenic pressures 111 112 that affect other lagoon habitats, perhaps with the exception for those deriving from 113 small-scale agricultural practices. Conversely, the lack of a regular control and 114 maintaining of many sites determined, in some cases, a progressive burial due to sediment and detritus accumulation. 115

116 Considering the increasing loss rate of salt marshes, in a context of local and global 117 pressures, this study focused on small artificial creeks within the Venice lagoon, to 118 assess if these canals can be a habitat for fish fauna, even through the comparison with 119 the most similar natural habitats, such as salt marsh creeks. Over a one-year period, the 120 two main typologies of small-sized artificial creeks were investigated: one is a closed 121 system, isolated from lagoon circulation, while the other one is an open creek, strongly

influenced by sea water. Moreover, two natural salt marsh creeks were chosen as reference points and sampled at the same time, in order to: (1) investigate the ecological role of artificial creeks as habitat for fish fauna, (2) assess how the degree of connection with the open lagoon influence the fish community and (3) compare the fish fauna and the environmental conditions between artificial and natural habitats.

We expected that the differences in habitat structures between artificial and natural 127 sites, especially as a result of the weak/absent tide regime in the former, would 128 influence the composition of fish communities. In particular, the partial to complete 129 isolation from lagoon open waters would increase the refuge function from aquatic 130 predators typical of shallow water creeks, thus resulting in higher fish density in 131 132 artificial sites. The assessment of environmental and fish community characteristics of artificial creeks, in comparison to natural salt marshes, is here provided as a baseline for 133 134 the development of future management and restoration plans of these sites in the largest Mediterranean coastal lagoon, in order to buffer the biodiversity loss expected to occur 135 as a consequence of natural salt marsh loss. 136

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138 2. Materials and methods

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The Venice lagoon is one of the largest lagoons along the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea, with a surface of about 540 km². It is a microtidal transitional water ecosystem, where tides can reach 1 m of excursion, characterised by wide extensions of shallow brackish water interrupted by a network of deeper channels and salt marsh habitats. Four sampling sites were chosen within the Venice lagoon (Figure 1): two creeks within natural salt marsh habitats (N1 in the northern basin and N2 in the southern basin) were

used as reference sites and were compared to two artificial creeks (A1 and A2) within two islands of the lagoon. The natural sites comprised small-sized intertidal creeks (200-250 m long, 2-4 m width), with a maximum depth of 0.7 m, which completely drain during the low tide phase. Among the artificial aquatic habitats present within the Venice lagoons, two sites were chosen in order to represent two "extreme" situations.

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Figure 1. Map of the Venice lagoon showing the locations (left) and the differentstructural complexity (right) of the four sampling.

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Al was a ring-shaped ditch (about 700 m long, 8 m width) situated next to one of the lagoon sea-inlet and thus strongly influenced by seawater. A small connection allowed partial water exchanges with the lagoon, but a maximum depth of 2 m, together with the height of the connecting opening (about 1 m below the mean sea level), prevent from the complete drainage during low tide phase. A2 was a closed system of inland small-

sized creeks (about 500 m long, 5 m width) isolated from lagoon waters, with a mean 162 163 depth of 0.5 m and no tide excursion. In each sampling site, 11 sampling campaigns were performed from March 2010 to March 2011 with a beach seine net (8 m long, 164 knot-to-knot distance of 2 mm). Three net tows were conducted during each campaign: 165 166 in order to determine the explored area, length and width of each tow were measured. Sampled fish were photographed on millimeter paper and then released. Only when 167 necessary, a representative subsample of fish was sacrificed with an excess of 2-168 phenoxyethanol and preserved in 8% buffered formaldeid. During each sampling event, 169 the main chemico-physical water parameters were recorded: temperature (digital 170 thermometer, ± 0.1 °C), salinity (optical refractometer, ± 1), dissolved oxygen (Winkler 171 method, $\pm 0.1 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1}$ subsequently converted in percentage of saturation) and turbidity 172 (portable nephelometer, ± 0.1 ftu). In June three cores of sediment (Ø 3 cm) were 173 collected in each site to determine the content of organic matter in the upper sediment 174 layer (10 cm), estimated as loss on ignition (Loi 550). 175

176 Each specimen was identified to species level and density of each species was estimated 177 by dividing the total abundance for the sampled surface. Each species was then assigned to a functional guild according to Franzoi et al. (2010). For data analysis, sampling 178 dates were grouped on a seasonal basis (spring: March, April and May; summer: June, 179 August and September; autumn: October and November; winter: December and 180 181 February). To test for differences of composition and densities of fish communities among seasons and sites a two-way factorial ANOVA (followed by Tukey HSD post 182 183 hoc test) was performed on total fish density, species richness, density of the two most abundant functional guilds (lagoon resident and marine migrant, which were the only 184 regularly present in all sites with relevant densities) and density of the seven most 185

abundant species, which represented more than 90% of the entire community. After a
preliminary screening for homogeneity of variance and normality of residuals, all
density data were log-transformed prior performing the ANOVA to meet variance
assumptions.

190 The study of the fish community has been refined through the analysis of the β -diversity among sites, and its breakdown into the two components of turnover and nestedness-191 resultant (Baselga, 2012). We calculated the taxonomic and functional β -diversity on 192 the presence/absence matrix of the fish community, using the R function provided in 193 Villéger et al. (2013). To estimate the functional β -diversity we selected three traits 194 based on the functional guilds adapted from the works of Franco et al. (2008) and 195 196 Franzoi et al. (2010): the estuarine use (estuarine species, marine migrants, marine stragglers and freshwater species), the feeding mode (micro/macrobenthivores, 197 198 hyperbenthivores, detritivores, herbivores and omnivores) and the reproductive mode (viviparous, oviparous with pelagic, benthic or adhesive eggs, oviparous guarders and 199 200 oviparous shelterers).

201 A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on the environmental data 202 collected in the four sampling sites, while to evaluate the influence of environmental parameters on the fish assemblages, a redundancy analysis (RDA, Legendre and 203 204 Legendre 1998) was performed. For a set of response variables (i.e. fish density data) this method allows to quantify the amount of variance explained by a table of 205 206 explanatory variables (i.e. the environmental parameters). RDA was performed on the 207 Euclidean distance matrix of species densities after the Hellinger transformation of data (Rao, 1995); the first two canonical axes were considered to build a tri-plot of the 208 constrained ordination of the response variables. 209

211 3. Results

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Overall, 20 species of fish belonging to 10 families were identified in the four sites 213 214 (Table 1). Four functional guilds were assigned to the fish community: lagoon resident, marine migrant, freshwater species and marine occasional. The two most important 215 guilds were the lagoon resident (nine species) and the marine migrant (seven species). 216 217 Three species of lagoon resident fish sampled (Table 1) are of conservation interest: the south european toothcarp Aphanius fasciatus and the lagoon goby Knipowitschia 218 panizzae, found with medium to high densities in all sites; the third species, the 219 220 Canestrini's goby Pomatoschistus canestrinii, was present only with a few specimens in one of the two salt marsh creeks (N2). These species are listed within the Annex II of 221 the European Directive 92/43, as "species of community interest, whose conservation 222 requires the designation of special areas of conservation". Furthermore, two species of 223 224 lagoon residents and six species of marine migrants were of commercial interest, mainly 225 for the local traditional fisheries (Table 1).

Table 1. List of fish species sampled in the four sites and mean seasonal density in each site (Sp = spring, Su = summer, Au = autumn, Wi

227 = winter). Functional guilds: LR = lagoon resident, MM = marine migrant, MO = marine occasional, FW = freshwater. Cons = species of

conservation interest listed in Annex II of Directive 92/43/CEE, Comm = species of commercial interest. Light grey: less than 0.2 ind m⁻²;

medium grey: from 0.2 to 0.5 ind m^{-2} ; dark grey: from 0.5 to 1 ind m^{-2} ; black: over 1 ind m^{-2} .

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Spacios	Cada	Guild	Impo	ortance	nati	ıral -	N1	n	atura	ıl - N	J2	ar	tifici	ial -	A1	art	tifici	al - /	42
Species	Code	Guild	Cons	Comm	Sp S	u Ai	Wi	Sp	Su	Au	Wi	Sp	Su	Au	Wi	Sp	Su	Au	Wi
Atherina boyeri	ABO	LR		Х															
Aphanius fasciatus	APFA	LR	Х																
Chelon labrosus	CLA	MM		Х															
Gobius cobitis	GCO	MO																	
Gambusia holbrooki	GHO	FW																	
Knipowitschia panizzae	KPA	LR	Х																
Liza aurata	LAU	MM		Х															
Liza ramada	LRA	MM		Х															
Liza saliens	LSA	MM																	
Nerophis ophidion	NOP	LR					_												
Pomatoschistus canestrinii	PCA	LR	Х																
Platichthys flesus	PFL	MM		Х															
Pomatoschistus minutus	PMI	MM		Х															
Pseudorasbora parva	PPA	FW																	
Parablennius sanguinolentus	PSA	MO																	
Syngnathus abaster	SAB	LR																	
Sparus aurata	SAU	MM		Х															
Salaria pavo	SPA	LR																	
Syngnathus typhle	STY	LR																	
Zosterisessor ophiocephalus	ZOP	LR		Х											_				

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ANOVA found significant differences among sites and among seasons for species 232 richness and total density. In the two natural creeks these two variables showed similar 233 values (Figure 3), except for the number of species during winter, when only one 234 species (A. fasciatus) was found in N1. Conversely, the two artificial creeks 235 236 differentiated from natural sites, particularly during summer, when one site (A2) showed significantly higher fish densities, mainly due to the recruitment of A. fasciatus 237 and Gambusia holbrooki, while the other (A1) hosted the most diverse fish community, 238 239 with a peak of 11 species observed in August (figure 3). Differences among sites decreased during winter, with all sites showing lower densities and a lower number of 240 species. Considering the two most abundant guilds, ANOVA found in all sites 241 242 significant seasonal differences for lagoon resident densities, which were higher in summer relative to the other seasons, while for marine migrants differences among sites 243 were found. 244

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Table 2. Results of ANOVA (mean sq.) performed on the four variables describing the fish community and the mean density of the seven most abundant species. Asterisks marks significant effects for P < 0.05

	Site	Season	Site X Season	Residuals
d.f.	3	3	9	28
Species richness	24.527*	15.120*	3.366*	1.009
Fish density	2.355*	3.234*	0.327	0.498
Lagoon resident	0.743	2.688*	0.226	0.378
Marine migrant	4.815*	0.731	0.197	0.356
Atherina boyeri	1.855*	2.116*	0.503	0.318
Aphanius fasciatus	1.128	2.525*	0.486	0.442
Gambusia holbrooki	11.594*	0.934*	0.672*	0.281
Knipowitschia panizzae	2.167*	1.019*	0.421*	0.185
Liza aurata	1.892*	0.191	0.181	0.146
Liza ramada	0.215	0.571	0.177	0.281
Liza saliens	2.546*	1.295*	0.243	0.312

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Figure 3. Characterisation of the fish community in the four sampling sites (N1, N2, A1,

252 A2) on a seasonal basis. All values are mean \pm S.E.

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255 Marine migrants showed significantly higher densities in the artificial creek A1 relative to other sites, while it was completely absent in the closed artificial site A2. Among the 256 257 20 species identified, a pool of seven species represented more than the 98% of the total density (Table 1). ANOVA performed on these seven species (Table 2) showed 258 259 significant differences for both factors considered except for the juveniles of one species (Liza ramada). The other two species of mullets (L. aurata and L. saliens) were found 260 with significantly higher juvenile densities in A1 relative to the other sites, except for L. 261 262 aurata in summer, when a higher density was recorded in N1. For this species no differences were found among seasons, while L. saliens was significantly more 263 264 abundant in summer relative to spring and winter. The sand smelt Atherina boyeri 265 showed the same seasonal pattern, and all these four species (the three mullets and the sand smelt) were completely absent from site A2 (Table 1). This site showed, on the 266 other hand, significantly higher densities of K. panizzae relative to other sites, 267 268 particularly during summer, when also the highest densities of A. fasciatus were found in all the four stations considered. In this creek, also the mosquitofish G. holbrooki, a 269 270 freshwater species, was extremely frequent and abundant. It showed marked seasonal 271 fluctuations in density, with significantly higher values observed in summer relative to spring and winter, while it was only an occasional caught in the natural salt marsh 272 273 during summer.

The analysis of β -diversity among the four sites showed how the number of unique species in the four sites nearly doubled the number of shared species (Table 3). On average, similar levels of taxonomic and functional diversity were found (0.65 and 0.74

277 respectively), with the turnover being lower than the nestedness-resultant component

- 278 (0.26 vs 0.40 for the taxonomic diversity, 0.31 vs 0.43 for the functional diversity).
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Table 3. Summary of the taxonomic and functional β -diversity and its two components,

281	turnover and nestedness	(mean±S.D.,	range in	parenthesis)	for the	four sit	es
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	Taxo	onomic	Func	tional
β-diversity	0.65 ± 0.14	(0.46-0.88)	$0.74{\pm}0.32$	(0.18-0.99)
Turnover	0.26 ± 0.25	(0-0.59)	0.31 ± 0.33	(0-0.64)
Nestedness	$0.40{\pm}0.25$	(0.06-0.75)	0.43 ± 0.45	(0-0.99)
Shared richness	4.83±2.40	(2-7)	$0.04{\pm}0.05$	(0-0.12)
Unique richness	9.33±3.61	(5-14)	0.11 ± 0.04	(0.03-0.14)

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Considering the pairwise comparisons among the four sites (Table 4), the highest 283 284 taxonomic diversity (0.88) has been found between the two artificial sites, with a 285 species turnover contribute of 0.50. Considering the functional diversity, site A2 clearly differed from the other three sites, even if also A1 showed high diversity values relative 286 287 to the natural creeks (0.63-0.64). The lowest taxonomic (0.46) and functional (0.18) β diversities were found between the two natural sites. Comparing artificial versus natural 288 289 creeks, the taxonomic diversities between the two habitat types (artificial vs natural) 290 were comparable (0.56-0.75), even if for A2 they were due only to the nestednessresultant component, while for A1 there was a significant contribute of the taxonomic 291 diversity, particularly in the comparison A1-N2. Also for the functional β -diversity, the 292 293 two artificial creeks showed a different pattern: the functional diversity between A1 and 294 the two natural sites ascribed nearly only to the turnover component, while the strong differences between A2 and the two natural sites derived exclusively from the 295 nestedness-resultant component. 296

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298	Table 4. Pairwise	comparisons	of the	taxonomic and	functional	β-diversity	for the	e four
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	A1-N1	A1-N2	A1-A2	N1-N2	N1-A2	N2-A2
Taxonomic						
β-diversity	0.56	0.65	0.88	0.46	0.63	0.75
Turnover	0.22	0.59	0.50	0.22	0.00	0.00
Nestedness	0.34	0.06	0.38	0.24	0.63	0.75
Shared richness	7	7	2	7	3	3
Unique richness	9	13	14	6	5	9
Functional						
β-diversity	0.63	0.64	0.99	0.18	0.99	0.99
Turnover	0.57	0.64	0.63	0.02	0.00	0.00
Nestedness	0.06	0.00	0.36	0.16	0.99	0.99
Shared richness	0.07	0.08	0.00	0.12	0.00	0.00
Unique richness	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.03	0.12	0.14

Principal component analysis of environmental data (Appendix A) did not show marked 301 302 differences among the four sites. Anyway, a spatial gradient could be recognized along the first axis, which explains 30% of the overall variance. Higher values of salinity and 303 304 dissolved oxygen concentration, coupled with a lower water turbidity, separate A1 from 305 the other three sites. From this picture, the environmental characteristics of A2 showed 306 to be comparable with those observed in the two salt marshes, which clustered together despite the geographical distance. Another 23% of variance is explained by the second 307 308 axis, mainly due to seasonal variations in environmental parameters, in particular water 309 temperature.

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Figure 4. Ordination of the samples collected in the four sites according to the results of
Principal Component Analysis (PCA). N1 = open triangles, N2 = open circles, A1 =
solid squares, A2 = solid diamonds. Numbers indicate the sampling dates.

316 Samples ordination by means of redundancy analysis (Figure 4) explained 25% of total 317 variance. Most of this variance (82%) is explained by the environmental variables measured, considering the first two axes. The analysis ordered the samples into three 318 319 main groups, characterised by a different composition of the fish community. Along the first axis, which account for 60% of variability, A2 separated from the other sites for the 320 high densities of G. holbrooki, without showing a substantial variability along the 321 second axis. The second axis (explaining 22% of the variance) showed a marked 322 seasonal variation of the other four environmental parameters for the two natural creeks, 323 characterised by turbid waters and influenced by freshwater inputs from the mainland, 324 325 and for A1, characterised by high densities of both L. aurata - L. saliens juveniles and

by a strong influence of sea water, which resulted in higher values of salinity anddissolved oxygen.

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Figure 4. Ordination of the samples collected in the four sites according to the results of
Redundancy Analysis. N1 = open triangles, N2 = open circles, A1 = solid squares, A2 =
solid diamonds. See table 1 for species abbreviations.

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The analyses highlighted some differences among the four sites, regarding the environmental conditions and the taxonomic/functional traits of the fish community. In particular, A1 with more marine environmental conditions clearly differentiated from the close system A2 in the principal component analysis. Indeed, environmental

parameters registered in A2 were similar to those characterising the two salt marshes. 338 339 Furthermore, the second multivariate analysis showed a stronger separation of the sampling sites, due to the differences in the species composition of the fish community. 340 As in the PCA, the RDA showed a clear separation of A1 relative to the other three 341 342 more confined creeks for the more diverse fish species hosted, as suggested also by the β-diversity analysis. Conversely, the isolated cluster of A2 may derive from the 343 simplified fish community, that showed taxonomic and functional differences from the 344 other three sites. Despite the differences with the two natural creeks, both artificial sites 345 hosted high densities of resident species and, in the case of A1, also of marine migrants, 346 347 in some cases even higher than in salt marshes.

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349 4. Discussion

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Results of the present study showed that the artificial creeks here selected, and compared with two natural salt marshes, hosted high densities of estuarine fish species in one site (A2), and, in the other one (A1), a diversified and well-structured fish community composed also of an abundant marine migrant component.

Precedent studies on the Venice lagoon considered many salt marsh habitats, but overlooked the smallest-sized creeks, that revealed to host an abundant and diversified fish community. In these small creeks high densities of resident fish species were observed, such as *A. boyeri* and *A. fasciatus*, and, to a lesser extent, of two marine migrant, *L. ramada* and *L. saliens*. The values registered for these species in the present study revealed to be comparable to those reported by Franco et al. (2006a, b) for larger

361 creeks. However the resident *A. fasciatus* and the marine migrant *L. saliens*, showed, in
362 the small creeks analysed in this work, a mean density one order of magnitude greater.

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Two of the major indicators that are considered important in habitat selection by small 364 365 and juvenile fish are risk of predation and foraging profitability (Werner and Hall, 1976; Holbrook and Schmitt, 1984; Schmitt and Holbrook, 1985). Indeed, the shallow water 366 of these systems plays an important refuge function for small fish to avoid large aquatic 367 predators (Rozas and Odum, 1988; Ruiz et al., 1993; Paterson and Whitfield, 2000). It is 368 also well known that salt marsh habitats provide high trophic resources in a 369 370 competition-limited habitat (Koutsogiannopoulou and Wilson, 2007; Maci and Basset, 371 2009), due to the high productivity and the low number of species able to afford the physiological stress deriving from the extremely variable physico-chemical water 372 characteristics (Elliott et al., 2007). The very small size of the creeks sampled during 373 this work may enhance these ecological functions, further preventing the access to 374 375 predator or other competitor fish, making them particularly suitable for small fish, both 376 resident and juvenile migrant.

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The two natural salt marsh creeks were compared to two artificial creeks with opposite characteristics: a sea-influenced creek (A1) versus a completely closed system (A2). Both sites showed a simpler morphology relative to salt marsh creeks. Furthermore, the cyclic drainage occurring in natural habitats during low tide was partially (A1) or totally (A2) altered by physical barriers. Allen et al. (2007) found a strong relationship between nekton densities and certain hydro-geomorphological features. In particular, smallsized, slow flowing creeks supported the highest nekton densities. This could also be the

case of artificial habitats, where the absent/altered connection with bigger channels and 385 386 open lagoon waters may turn them into elective habitats for fish fauna. Natural intertidal creeks offer refuge from predator and the access to trophic resources only temporarily, 387 when submerged by water during the high tide phase. On the contrary, small artificial 388 389 creeks may complement the ecological functions offered by natural habitats since they never drain completely, thus allowing the permanence of fish even during the low tide 390 phase. Indeed, despite the lack of structural complexity, the highest values of species 391 392 diversity were found in artificial site A1. The seaward position alone did not explain the 393 values of taxonomic and functional diversity registered here relative to the other three 394 sites, since only two marine straggler species were sampled: the rest of the fish 395 community was formed mainly by resident and marine migrant species usually found with higher densities in inner lagoon waters. Conversely, tidal flow restriction would 396 determine the absence, or significant low abundances, of some species, with a reduction 397 in richness and a change in composition of fish and decapods assemblages of tidal 398 399 creeks, particularly of marine species (Boys et al., 2012). This would be the case of the 400 other artificial site (A2). Its complete isolation prevented the access to the creeks by 401 juvenile marine migrant and, at the same time, of aquatic predators. Indeed, this site showed the highest values of both taxonomic and functional β -diversity relative to the 402 403 other three sites, hosting a few species that form a subset of the typical salt marsh fish 404 community. This peculiar situation allowed two resident species (A. fasciatus and K. 405 panizzae) to reach the highest densities registered, even in the presence of a possible 406 competitor such as the alloctonous mosquitofish G. holbrooki. This is of particular relevance since these two resident species are listed in the Annex II of Council Directive 407 92/43/EEC. Even if locally widespread and abundant, these species, together with P. 408

canestrinii, "requires the designation of special areas of conservation", due to the close 409 410 ecological link with endangered habitats such as salt marsh (Franco et al., 2012). Thus these artificial creeks, despite the lack of proper maintenance since the end of fish 411 farming activities, could play an ecological role as biological reservoir for some small 412 413 fish species of conservation interest. In the study of Havens et al. (1995), total fish and commercial fish populations showed lower densities in constructed marsh relative to 414 natural wetlands and observed differences between natural and artificial salt marsh often 415 416 derive from the young age of artificial sites (Minello and Zimmerman, 1992; Minello and Webb, 1997; Larkin et al., 2009). In the present study, we do not have a time series 417 long enough to assess the temporal evolution of the artificial sites. Anyway, the two 418 419 creeks explored were not newly created, but they were consolidated systems, that had the time necessary to reach an ecological stability and functionality, thus being able to 420 421 host well-structured fish populations (Cavraro et al., 2013, 2014).

422

Despite the similarities found between natural and artificial sites, the simplified 423 424 morphology, the relative height of the banks and, in one case (A2), the complete lack of 425 tide cycle could have altered the functioning of artificial systems. As expected, the last factor, in particular, proved to be the most important in shaping the fish community, as 426 testified by the high values of β -diversity observed in A2 respect to the other sites. Salt 427 428 marshes are well known as dynamic and complex systems, characterised by a high 429 spatial and temporal variability in abiotic parameters. Thus, the ecological processes 430 occurring can be influenced even by slight variations in habitat heterogeneity (Adam, 2002; Larkin et al., 2008). For example, some authors (Vivian-Smith, 1997; Larkin et 431 al., 2006) compared created and natural pools within salt marshes, underlying the 432

importance of morphology in influencing algal, invertebrate and fish responses. Most of 433 all, the different topography and tidal regime of artificial sites may influence the 434 behaviour of fish species by preventing marsh access during high tides. McIvor and 435 Odum (1988) observed the importance of creek sinuosity, channel depth and bank 436 437 stability in influencing fish utilisation of salt marsh creeks and flooded surface. The possibility to use the flooded marsh surface is of particular relevance for some fish 438 species, in particular killifish. West and Zedler (2000) found that Fundulus parvipinnis 439 accessing to the flooded marsh surface fed more different prey items relative to fish in 440 the subtidal channels. Furthermore, Madon et al. (2001) underlined the crucial role of 441 food resources, deriving from the temporary access to the marsh surface, in influencing 442 443 bioenergetics and reproductive traits for the same fish species. Even if the altered hydrological regime may influence some ecological processes in artificial sites, resident 444 445 populations showed to be able to manage this situation. This is the case, for example, of A. fasciatus, which could be considered, for the Mediterranean basin, ecologically 446 447 equivalent to North American fundulids. Precedent studies conducted in the same 448 sampling stations (Cavraro et al., 2013) showed a higher secondary production of this 449 species in the artificial sites relative to the natural ones. In particular, the highest productivity was found exactly where the effect of tide cycles was absent (A2). In this 450 451 site, the complete isolation from lagoon open waters excluded the presence of aquatic 452 predators and shaped a fish community composed by only three species. This situation probably favoured mechanisms of resource partitioning among the few species present, 453 454 thus resulting in plenty of resources for resident fish in a predator-free habitat. If it is so, 455 the access to marsh surface would be more relevant within a diversified fish community in natural conditions, where a significant tide range let some species (i.e. killifish) to 456

457 avoid inter-specific competition and predation by moving to the vegetated inundated
458 marsh surface and using them as feeding ground (Baltz et al., 1993; Rountree and Able,
459 2007).

460

This study underlined the ecological importance of small-sized canalisation for fish fauna, highlighting significant differences in composition and density of fish community among the natural and artificial shallow water creeks analysed. In particular, also artificial sites proved to host relevant fish densities, depending on the level of connection with lagoon waters.

466

These habitats are mainly located in the Central and Northern part of the Venice lagoon 467 (Figure 5), and most of them result to be near to the main deep channels directly 468 connected with the sea inlets. Likely, open artificial habitats would present 469 environmental characteristics and fish assemblages similar to those found in A1. 470 471 Conversely, close artificial systems would be probably more similar to A2 472 independently from their geographical location. On the other hand, in many cases 473 artificial sites lack of maintenance, which could cause a general habitat degradation. Close systems in particular can be subjected to water quality deterioration or landfilling 474 475 of the creeks due to the accumulation of detritus and sediment, becoming unsuitable for 476 the fish community. Another threat to close artificial creeks derives from the salinity 477 reduction due to superficial run-off. As observed in S. Erasmo island (Northern basin of 478 the Venice lagoon) this process determines a freshening of the creeks, with a consequent substitution of A. fasciatus by G. holbrooki (Cavraro, pers. obs.). Superficial run-off can 479

also enrich creeks water with chemicals and nutrients from the nearby fields, even ifonly small-scale agricultural activities are carried out in the area.



482

Figure 5. The network of the artificial creeks in the Venice lagoon (A); focus on thenorthern basin (B); focus on Lido island (C).

485

In the future, an exhaustive census of these sites would be desirable, in order to quantify the overall contribution to fish population at a lagoon scale and to assess their conservation status. Information about the ecological role of these habitats and their functioning provided by this study could constitute a first baseline in planning

restoration and management activities, aimed to maintain or enhance the hosted fish 490 491 populations. Indeed, these sites, both natural and artificial, are threatened, even if by 492 different pressures. Worldwide, salt marsh extension decreased during the XX century, due to land-claim, erosion and sea level rise. This was also the case of the Venice 493 494 lagoon, where a loss of about three quarter of marsh surface occurred in the last century. In the past 20 years many restoration activities have been carried out within the Venice 495 lagoon, leading to the construction of several square km of artificial marshes over 496 497 existing mudflats. These works were mainly focused on morphological and hydrodynamic aspects of the lagoon ecosystem, thus often overlooking the restoration 498 of salt marsh considering the ecological point of view. The main biases in this kind of 499 500 works were the use of sandy sediments, deriving from channel dredging (D'Alpaos et al., 2007), and the lack of morphological complexity, since the complex network of 501 502 different microhabitats characterising natural salt marsh were rarely recreated. Results 503 of the present study seem to highlight, in particular, the importance of small-sized 504 canalisation for fish fauna. Anyway, further data should be collected to understand the 505 key morphological and structural elements that characterise small-size creeks and that 506 make them suitable for fish fauna. The acquisition of such information would be of particular interest in the context of planning new artificial salt marshes. On the other 507 508 hand, these data would help specific interventions on artificial habitats, in order to 509 restore their full ecological potential for fish fauna.

510

511 5. Conclusions

512

Many actions have been taken to counterbalance the loss of salt marsh habitats occurred 513 in the last decades along temperate coasts worldwide. Since the processes involved are 514 numerous and acting on different space and time scales, it is often not possible to 515 eliminate the causes. Restoration activities on degraded wetlands, or creation of new 516 517 habitats, became a widespread approach, with many studies focusing on the results of these programmes by comparison with natural systems (Havens et al., 2002; Raposa, 518 2002; Larkin et al., 2009; Boys and Williams, 2012). Also within the Venice lagoon salt 519 marsh extension dramatically decreased in the last century, while many man-made 520 creeks within lagoon islands were abandoned and could now contribute to the 521 maintaining of lagoon fish populations. Starting from the results presented in this study, 522 523 further efforts, such as a detailed census of all these artificial systems, would provide a complete picture of the status of these marginal systems, in order to maintain or enhance 524 their ecological values. Anyway, data collected showed high densities of juvenile 525 marine migrant and lagoon resident fish species in two examples of these artificial 526 527 habitats, with species richness and density, in some cases, higher than in natural salt 528 marsh systems. Furthermore, the fish communities studied hosted species of some 529 conservation and economic value as well.

530

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532

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685	Appendix	А
	11	

Sampling	Sediment organic
site	matter content
N1	14%
N2	7%
A1	7%
A2	15%

