Importance of Serpulid reef to the functioning of a hypersaline estuary
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23 Abstract

24 Biogenic reefs provide important ecological functions and services to coastal and marine 25 environments, supplying high levels of biodiversity, providing refuge and foraging habitat, and 26 supporting fisheries. Serpulid reefs are a relatively uncommon habitat in coastal ecosystems 27 globally that provide habitat for a diverse community of organisms, and have become a target for 28 conservation and management efforts due to habitat degradation and loss. Baffin Bay, Texas, USA, 29 is known for exceptionally productive commercial and recreational fisheries that are thought to be 30 supported by Serpulid reef benthic macrofauna, particularly during regular periods of 31 hypersalinity. This study compared the functioning of Serpulid reef habitats with nearby soft 32 sediment areas using quantitative faunal and food web analyses. Serpulid reefs support a unique 33 benthic macrofaunal community with 191 times greater abundance, 97 times greater biomass, and 34 twice the number of species than in soft sediments. In contrast to soft-sediment macrofauna, 35 Serpulid reef macrofaunal abundance and biomass were not correlated with any measured water 36 quality variables. Isotope compositions of both suspension and deposit-feeding macrofauna from 37 both habitats (i.e. Serpulid reefs and soft sediments) were close to organic matter from the 38 sediment, demonstrating connectivity and the importance of primary production in the sediment 39 to both habitat types. Abundant macrofauna inhabiting Serpulid reefs likely serve as an important 40 food source for sport fish and other higher trophic-level fauna, particularly in hypersaline periods 41 when soft-sediment macrobenthic food resources are scarce. Given the substantial loss of Baffin 42 Bay's Serpulid reef habitat compared to historic levels, conservation actions may be warranted to 43 protect and restore Serpulid habitat and food resources. The results of this study can be used to 44 increase the success of such efforts.

45 Key Words

46 salinity; stable isotopes; trophic relationships, Baffin Bay, Texas, Gulf of Mexico

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Estuaries across the Gulf of Mexico are dominated by soft-sediment habitats, yet the bulk of 49 benthic faunal biomass is associated with biogenic reefs (Enochs 2012, Davis 2017, La Peyre et 50 al. 2019). A relatively uncommon reef type in coastal ecosystems is built by Serpulid worms 51 (Serpulidae, Polychaeta) that settle on hard substrates and secrete a calcareous tube around 52 themselves as they grow (Bastida-Zavala et al. 2017). In rare circumstances, millions of small (< 53 2 cm) Serpulid worms can aggregate via gregarious larval settlement (Ippolitov et al. 2014), 54 forming extensive reefs (Andrews 1964; Bosence 1973; Bianchi and Morri 2001). These Serpulid 55 reefs supplement marine complexity by increasing the three-dimensional relief of the bottom, 56 providing refuge and foraging habitat for fish and invertebrate species (Haines and Maurer 1980, 57 Zühlke et al. 1998; Obenat et al. 2001), and influencing sediment and organism transport processes 58 (Obenat and Pezzani 1994). Through their suspension feeding activities, Serpulid worms can also 59 improve water quality and minimize algal blooms (Leung and Chueng 2017 and references 60 therein).

Baffin Bay, a secondary bay within the Upper Laguna Madre Estuary, Texas, USA, is famous locally for its extensive Serpulid reefs. The predominantly hypersaline conditions in Baffin Bay (Orlando et al. 1993) make it uninhabitable for the Eastern Oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*), the dominant reef-building species in northern Gulf of Mexico estuaries. *Hydroides dianthus*, a common Serpulid (Bastida-Zavala et al. 2017), is the only species currently building reef structures in Baffin Bay. *H. dianthus* has a wide recorded tolerance to both salinity (1-51.7) and temperature (3-30 °C and higher; maximum summer temperature for Baffin Bay (May 2013-March 2021) is

31.2 °C (Wetz unpublished data)), enabling it to successfully invade disparate waters of the world 68 69 (e.g., Northern Yellow Sea, China, salinity 33, Dong et al. 2018; Thyrrenian Sea, Italy, salinity 13-70 48, Bianchi and Morri 2001; Delaware Bay, USA, salinity 23-28, Maurer et al. 1979; Haines and 71 Maurer 1980). However, sizeable Serpulid reef structures to the extent of those found in Baffin Bay (last estimated at 16 km²; Brown et al. 1977) are rare and relatively understudied (Ardbear 72 73 Lough, Ireland, <1 km² (Bosence 1973); Ellis Fjord, Antarctica, >8 km long (Kirkwood and Burton 74 1988); Delaware Bay, USA, 1 km² (Haines and Maurer 1980); see ten Hove and van den Hurk 75 1993 for review).

76 The diverse and abundant benthic macrofauna that occur on Baffin Bay's Serpulid reefs 77 are potential forage for higher trophic-level animals. Therefore, the Serpulid reefs may serve as an 78 important nursery area for Spotted Seatrout (Cynoscion nebulosus), with Baffin Bay hosting the 79 highest occurrence of juveniles (Froeschke and Froeschke 2011), and high densities of large 80 "trophy"-sized adults (McKee 2008) relative to elsewhere along the Texas coast, making Serpulid 81 reefs a unique habitat that is targeted by local anglers. Similarly, commercially important Black 82 Drum (*Pogonias cromis*), are three to six times more abundant in Baffin Bay than elsewhere along 83 the Texas coast (Martinez-Andrade et al. 2005; Olsen 2014). On the contrary, benthic macrofauna 84 in Baffin Bay's soft sediments are sparse, particularly during periods of hypersalinity (Montagna 85 and Kalke 1995; Rubio et al. 2018; Breaux et al. 2019), and Serpulid reefs are thought to contribute 86 much of the biomass critical to supporting the exceptionally productive commercial and 87 recreational fisheries (McKee 2008; Bohannon et al. 2015). However, evidence indicates that 88 Serpulid reefs have been reduced in size and distribution compared to historic levels, primarily 89 due to wave action, prop damage from boats, and trampling from fishermen (Hardegree 1997;

90 Tunnell et al. 2001; Smith et al. 2005; Chapman et al. 2012), and conservation actions may be
91 needed to protect and restore habitat.

92 Given their limited distribution and evidence of decline, there is a need to better understand 93 Serpulid reef ecological structure and function to inform conservation, restoration, and 94 management efforts. This study aimed to assess the importance of Serpulid reef as habitat for 95 benthic macrofauna and to investigate the role of these reef-resident species as prey for 96 commercially and recreationally important fish species. Comparing carbon and nitrogen isotope 97 compositions of primary producers, macrofauna of known feeding modes, and fish allows for 98 determining the origin of the main food sources and assessing the structure and functioning of the 99 food web. Specifically, we sought to: (1) quantify differences in benthic macrofaunal communities 100 between Serpulid reefs and soft sediments, (2) determine the influence of varying hydrological 101 conditions on Serpulid reef benthic macrofaunal communities, and (3) investigate the role of 102 Serpulid reef benthic macrofauna in the Baffin Bay food web using stable isotopes (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N), 103 with a focus on commercially and recreationally important fish species.

104 **2. Methods**

105 2.1 Study Area

Baffin Bay is a shallow (0.9 - 2.3 m), 248-km² secondary bay of the Upper Laguna Madre Estuary, located in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico in a semi-arid region of South Texas, USA (Figure 1; Diener 1975; Tunnell et al. 2001). Serpulid reefs were last estimated in 1977 to cover approximately 6% (16 km²) of Baffin Bay's otherwise soft bottom (Breuer 1957; Brown et al. 1977). Freshwater enters the bay through several small ephemeral streams at an average rate that does not keep up with average evaporation rates. Residence time in Baffin Bay and the Upper Laguna Madre exceeds one year, much longer than any other major estuary in Texas (< 0.5 yr; Solis and Powell 1999; Wetz et al. 2017). Salinity conditions in the Upper Laguna Madre, including Baffin Bay, are on average hypersaline (mean \pm standard deviation = 35.9 \pm 7.0; Montagna et al. 2011). Salinity in Baffin Bay specifically is generally higher and has more spatiotemporal variability (2013-2016 mean \pm standard deviation = 41.2 \pm 10.4; Montagna et al. 2018) than the Upper Laguna Madre as a whole (2015-2017 = 39.1 \pm 6.4; Breaux et al. 2019).

118 **2.3 Study Design**

119 Three Serpulid reefs (R1-R3) and three soft sediment stations (SS1-SS3) were sampled 120 quarterly from June 2018 to March 2019 (Figure 1; Table S1). A fourth soft sediment station (SS4) 121 was also sampled in December 2018 and March 2019 to increase spatial coverage of soft sediment 122 communities. Samples were collected during sampling events for quantitative faunal community 123 analysis and assessment of food web structure. Soft sediment stations SS3 and SS4 were previously 124 sampled for benthic macrofaunal community analysis from 1989 to 1993 (as stations 24 and 6, 125 Montagna et al. 1993; Montagna and Kalke 1995). All soft sediment stations (SS1-SS4) were 126 previously sampled from 2014 to 2017 (as stations BB40, AL1, BB24, BB6, Rubio et al. 2018; 127 Breaux et al. 2019).

128 **2.4 Water Quality**

During each sampling event, water temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration, and pH were measured at each station using a YSI Pro DSS multiparameter instrument (YSI Incorporated 2014). Measurements were taken from approximately 0.1 m below the water surface and 0.2 m above the sediment bottom.

133 2.5 Quantitative Fauna Analyses

134 Sampling

Three replicate pieces (approximately 3 cm³) of Serpulid reef were collected by hand at each of the three Serpulid reef stations. Reef pieces were immediately transferred to a 500 μ m mesh bag to prevent loss of benthic macrofauna (henceforth "macrofauna") that live within and between the worm tubes. At soft sediment stations, macrofauna were collected using a 6.7-cm diameter core tube (35.4 cm² area) to a depth of 3 cm (modified from Street et al. 1997). Three replicate cores were collected from each station on each sampling date. All samples taken for quantitative analysis were preserved in 10% buffered formalin.

142 *Laboratory analysis*

143 In the laboratory, the volume of Serpulid reef samples were determined by water 144 displacement, then molluses and other hard-shelled organisms were counted and identified. 145 Serpulid reef samples were then placed in 12 mol L⁻¹ HCl for 24 hours to dissolve the calcium 146 carbonate reef substrate. Organisms from Serpulid reef and soft-sediment samples were extracted 147 on a 500 µm sieve, sorted using a dissecting microscope, identified to the lowest practical 148 identifiable level (usually species), and enumerated. A Folsom plankton splitter was used to obtain 149 a subsample of reef samples when macrofaunal abundance was too great to be practically counted. 150 Dry-weight biomass measurements for both Serpulid reef and soft-sediment organisms were 151 obtained for individual species or family groups after drying at 55 °C for 24 hours. Mollusc shells 152 were removed with 1 mol L⁻¹ HCl prior to drying and weighing.

Organisms were classified by feeding mode (suspension feeder, deposit feeder, or predator/scavenger; Bruggeman 2020) and taxa group (e.g., Crustacea, Bivalvia, Polychaeta). Suspension feeders were defined as macrofauna possessing filter feeding structures that generally

156 feed on particles in the water column. Deposit feeders were defined as organisms that consume 157 particulate matter in or on the sediment. Predator/scavengers were defined as carnivorous 158 organisms that consume other fauna.

159 Statistical Analysis

Spearman rank correlation analyses were run between water quality variables (salinity, temperature, DO, pH) and both Serpulid reef and soft sediment macrofaunal abundance and biomass. Spatio-temporal differences in biomass-based macrobenthic community composition were determined using non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (nMDS) and cluster analysis (group average method; Clarke 1993). Multivariate analyses were performed on a Bray–Curtis similarity matrix on $\log_e(x+1)$ transformed data using Primer 7 software (Clarke and Gorley 2015).

166 **2.6 Stable Isotope Analyses**

167 Sampling

168 Surface sediment organic matter (SSOM) and suspended particulate organic matter 169 (SPOM) were collected at all stations via benthic coring (3 cm deep, 35.4 cm² area) and surface 170 water collection, respectively, during each sampling event. Samples were stored on ice until 171 returning to the laboratory. Triplicate Serpulid reef pieces and sediment cores were sampled at 172 each station during each sampling event to collect macrofauna for stable isotope analyses using 173 the same methods as for quantitative fauna analysis. The stable isotope cores were sieved in the 174 field using a 500 µm mesh bag. Retained items and reef pieces were stored in containers filled 175 with local water inside a cooler until the end of the field day, when they were transported to the 176 laboratory.

Fish were collected in two ways: Reef-dwelling fish (Pinfish [*Lagodon rhomboides*] and
Sheepshead [*Archosargus probatocephalus*]) were collected from Serpulid reef stations using

179 hook and line, or speargun. Sport fish (Black Drum [Pogonias cromis], Red Drum [Sciaenops 180 ocellatus], and Spotted Seatrout [Cynoscion nebulosus]) were collected through partnerships with 181 commercial and recreational fishermen. Up to 15 sport fish (including at least five P. cromis) were 182 collected from Baffin Bay six to eight weeks after each benthic sampling event. Pogonias cromis 183 were purchased from local trotline fishermen, while tissue samples from other species (particularly 184 the non-commercial species S. ocellatus and C. nebulosus) were collected from anglers at a 185 recreational boat launch. Sport fish were caught in Baffin Bay, but not necessarily around Serpulid 186 reefs. All fish tissue was stored on ice until returning to the laboratory to be stored at -20 °C.

187 Laboratory Sample Preparation

Water samples for SPOM analysis were sieved through a 250 µm-mesh to remove large zooplankton and detritus, then filtered through pre-combusted (4 hours at 450 °C) glass fiber filters (Whatman GF/F glass fiber filters, 0.7 mm porosity) which were then freeze dried, generally for 24-72 hours, until dry (Labconco Freezone). Carbonates were removed from filters for δ^{13} C measurements by contact with HCl fumes for 4 hours in a vacuum-enclosed system. Nitrogen isotope compositions were analyzed using raw filters.

Samples of SSOM were sieved through a 500-µm mesh to remove macrofauna, large detritus, and large pieces of shell hash, then freeze dried and ground using a mortar and pestle.
Samples to be analyzed for carbon were decarbonated by adding 1 mol L⁻¹ HCl drop by drop until cessation of bubbling. These samples were then dried in a dry-block heater, rinsed with deionized water, freeze-dried and manually ground again.

Macrofauna collected for stable isotope analyses were sieved live on a 500 µm mesh within
 24 hours of sample collection, separated by taxa, and placed in aquaria in artificial seawater for 36
 hours to allow evacuation of gut contents. For each species identified, three individuals of differing

202 size classes were reserved when possible. Soft tissues were collected from macrofauna. Mollusk 203 shells were manually removed prior to stable isotope analysis. Lipids were not extracted from 204 macrofauna because entire prey items are ingested by fish and therefore all tissues (including 205 lipids) can be assimilated into predators (Newsome et al. 2014; Wolf et al. 2015). Mathematical 206 corrections to δ^{13} C values to account for variations in prev lipid concentrations were not used in 207 this study because corrections on a large range of prey (with a large range of tissue compositions; 208 Table S2) in habitat-scale assessments such as these can lead to larger biases than when not using 209 any correction (Arostegui et al. 2019). Epaxial fish muscle tissue samples were removed from the 210 anterior portion of the fillet. Any adhering skin, scales, or bones were removed from the tissue 211 samples. Lipid removal was not needed on fish tissues prior to stable isotope analysis as C/N ratios 212 (by mass) were lower than 3.5 (Table S2; Post et al. 2007). All fish and macrofauna samples were 213 stored at -20 °C, freeze-dried and then ground (Retsch MM 400 ball mill) to a homogenous fine 214 powder.

215 Appropriate amounts of each sample type were encapsulated in tin capsules, except 216 acidified sediment samples. Those were encapsulated in silver capsules (to prevent corrosion of 217 the capsule by acidified material) and then packed into tin capsules (to improve their combustion 218 during the elemental analysis). The surface of the filters (i.e. acidified and non-acidified) was 219 scraped using flat tweezers to collect the maximum amount of SPOM and the smallest amount of 220 glass fibers, to improve the quality of combustion in the elemental analyzer. Samples were 221 prepared in Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi laboratories for stable isotope analysis before 222 sending off to be analyzed with a Flash EA 1112 elemental analyzer equipped with the Smart EA 223 option (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy), coupled with a Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass 224 spectrometer with a Conflo IV interface (Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) at the University

of La Rochelle, France (Littoral, Environment and Societies Joint Research Unit stable isotope facility, LIENSs). Isotope compositions are reported in the δ notation as deviations from standards: atmospheric N₂ for δ^{15} N and Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite for δ^{13} C using the formula:

228
$$\delta^{13}$$
C or δ^{15} N = $[(R_{sample}/R_{standard}) - 1] \times 1000$

where R is ¹³C/¹²C or ¹⁵N/¹⁴N. Calibration was conducted using reference materials (USGS-24, 61, -62, IAEA-CH6, -600 for carbon; USGS-61, -62, IAEA-N2, -NO-3, -600 for nitrogen). The
analytical precision of the measurements was <0.15‰ for carbon and nitrogen based on analyses
of USGS-61 and USGS-62 used as laboratory internal standards.

233 Statistical Analyses

Kruskal-Wallis rank sum tests followed by multiple comparisons were used to investigate seasonal or spatial-related fluctuations in isotope compositions of SPOM, SSOM, macrofauna, and fish muscle tissue. All tests were carried out with the R software (R Core Team 2013). Multiple comparisons of means were completed using the *pgirmess* package (Giraudoux 2011).

3. Results

3.1 Water Quality

Water quality was similar at the Serpulid reef and soft sediment stations (Figure 2). Mean salinity decreased from 45.6 ± 3.8 (mean \pm standard deviation) in June 2018 to 27.8 ± 0.7 in December 2018 before slowly increasing back to 28.9 ± 0.3 in March 2019. Temperature followed a typical seasonal pattern with a high of 29.1 ± 0.3 °C in June and a low of 14.0 ± 0.6 °C in December. Trends in DO concentration were also seasonal, and inversely related to temperature $(5.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ and } 9.6 \pm 1.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ in June and December, respectively). Mean pH was highest during the study period in September 2018 (8.5 ± 0.0) and then decreased to a low of 7.8 ± 0.1 in March 2019. Water quality measurements were within the range of historic averages (Bugica et al. 2020).

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3.2 Quantitative Fauna Analyses

249 Mean abundance of macrofauna was 191 times greater per volume of Serpulid reef than 250 the same volume calculated from the top 3 cm of soft sediment (Figure 3). Forty-three species 251 occurred in Serpulid reef samples, as opposed to twenty-two taxa in the soft sediment samples 252 (Table S3). Serpulid reef macrofauna were dominated in abundance by crustaceans and 253 polychaetes. The most abundant taxa were the amphipod Apocorophium louisianum (formerly 254 Corophium louisianum; 18,837 n L⁻¹, 62.9% of total abundance), the polychaetes Polydora ligni 255 (1601 n L⁻¹, 5.4%), Syllis cornuta (1565 n L⁻¹, 5.2%) and Nainereis laevigata (1203 n L⁻¹, 4.0%), 256 the tanaid Hargeria rapax (1227 n L⁻¹, 4.1%) and the barnacle Balanus eburneus (1218 n L⁻¹, 257 4.1%). The serpulid *H. dianthus* (539 n L⁻¹, 1.8%) was most abundant and temporally variable at 258 station R1 (966 n L^{-1}), with peaks occurring in September 2018 (2272 n L^{-1}) and March 2019 (1214 259 n L^{-1}). The most abundant taxa in the soft sediment were the polychaete *Mediomastus ambiseta* 260 (55 n L⁻¹, 35.2%), the bivalve *Mulinia lateralis* (49 n L⁻¹, 31.2%) and unidentified amphipods from 261 the Ampeliscidae family (27 n L⁻¹, 17.3%).

Mean macrofauna biomass was 97 times greater per volume of Serpulid reef than the same volume calculated from the top 3 cm of soft sediment (Figure 3). The most dominant taxa by weight on the Serpulid reefs were *B. eburneus* (3968 mg L⁻¹, 46.7% of total biomass), *A. louisianum* (1100 mg L⁻¹, 12.9%), the bivalve *Brachidontes exustus* (992 mg L⁻¹, 11.7%), unidentified Actinaria (485 mg L⁻¹, 5.7%) and the polychaete *Nereis riisei* (433 mg L⁻¹, 5.1%) (Table S4). The most dominant taxa by weight in the soft sediment were the bivalves *M. lateralis* (67 mg L⁻¹, 268 77.3%) and *Lyonsia hyalina* (3 mg L⁻¹, 3.7%), the polychaetes *Pectinaria gouldii* (8 mg L⁻¹, 9.3%)
269 and *M. ambiseta* (3 mg L⁻¹, 3.1%), and unidentified Ampeliscidae (3 mg L⁻¹, 3.1%).

270 Overall, Serpulid reef macrofauna abundance increased down-estuary toward the mouth of 271 Baffin Bay from R1 (18,984 n L⁻¹) to R3 (42,132 n L⁻¹) (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Abundance 272 increased down-estuary for crustaceans (from 10,993 to 32,598 n L⁻¹) and polychaetes (from 6,432 273 to 8,068 n L⁻¹), while bivalves decreased in abundance (from 736 to 170 n L⁻¹; Table S3). There 274 was no consistent spatial trend in macrofauna biomass among Serpulid reef stations. No spatial 275 trend was observed in soft-sediment macrofauna abundance or biomass. The highest abundance of 276 crustaceans (11 n L⁻¹) was at station SS4, located closest to the mouth of Baffin Bay near the 277 Laguna Madre.

Deposit feeders were the most abundant feeding type, contributing 69,873 n L⁻¹ (78%) of total abundance for Serpulid reef and 386 n L⁻¹ (62%) for soft sediments (Table S3). Suspension feeders were the next most abundant in both Serpulid reef (9,289 n L⁻¹; 10%) and soft-sediment (225 n L⁻¹; 36%) stations. Macrofauna biomass was dominated by suspension feeders in both Serpulid reef (17.3 mg L⁻¹; 68%) and soft-sediment (0.32 mg L⁻¹; 91%) stations (Figure 5, Table S4). Deposit feeders were the next most dominant, constituting 5.8 mg L⁻¹(22%) of total biomass for Serpulid reef and 0.03 mg L⁻¹ (9%) for soft sediments.

Macrofauna communities differed greatly between Serpulid reef and soft sediment stations (Figure 6). Macrofauna community composition from all stations was at least 3% similar to one another. Among Serpulid reef stations, macrofauna community composition was 53% similar. There was a change in community composition and increase in diversity at Serpulid reef stations moving down-estuary from R1 to R3. Soft sediment macrofauna community composition had higher variability among stations and over time compared to macrofauna from Serpulid reefstations.

Macrofauna abundance in soft sediments was negatively correlated with salinity (r = -0.499, $p \le 0.069$), temperature (r = -0.473, $p \le 0.088$) and pH (r = -0.550, $p \le 0.042$; Table 1). Soft sediment biomass was also negatively correlated with pH (r = -0.682, $p \le 0.007$). Abundance and biomass of Serpulid reef macrofauna were not correlated with any measured water quality variables ($r \le |0.459|$, $p \ge 0.134$).

3.3 Isotope compositions

298 The isotope compositions of SPOM (δ^{13} C: -24.5‰, δ^{15} N: 3.5‰) were more depleted than 299 SSOM ($\delta^{13}C$: -20.8‰, $\delta^{15}N$: 4.4 ‰) (paired *t*-tests, $\delta^{13}C$: p < 0.001; $\delta^{15}N$: p = 0.029; Table 2). 300 Isotope compositions of SPOM and SSOM were similar among sampling stations (Kruskal-Wallis 301 tests, $p \ge 0.063$; Figure 7). δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of SSOM were stable throughout the study 302 (Kruskal-Wallis tests, δ^{13} C: p = 0.652; δ^{15} N: p = 0.491), while SPOM δ^{13} C values decreased over 303 time (Kruskal-Wallis test, p < 0.001; Table S5; Figure S1). δ^{15} N values of SPOM peaked in 304 December 2018 (Kruskal-Wallis test, p = 0.009). Algae presented relatively large ranges of δ^{13} C, with means ranging from -20.5 (March 2019) to -16.9‰ (June 2018) and δ^{15} N values, ranging 305 306 from 3.9 (September 2019) to 6.2‰ (March 2019; Table S5).

Serpulid reef suspension feeders had mean δ^{13} C values ranging from -21.6 (*B. exustus*) to -19.3‰ (*B. eburneus*) and mean δ^{15} N values from 5.3 (*B. exustus*) to 7.9‰ (*B. eburneus*, Table 2). δ^{13} C values of *B. eburneus* were lower in December 2018 compared to June 2018 and March 2019 (Kruskal-Wallis test, p < 0.001; Table S5). Otherwise, carbon isotope compositions of the three major species of suspension feeders (*B. eburneus*, *B. exustus and H. dianthus*) in the reefs were stable over time (Figure S1) and did not follow any spatial pattern. The δ^{15} N values of these three

313 consumers were similar between stations (Kruskal-Wallis tests, $p \ge 0.391$) with no clear temporal 314 pattern. Serpulid deposit feeding species had δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values similar to those of suspension 315 feeders; mean δ^{13} C values ranged from -20.4 (A. louisianum, Terebellidae) to -18.7‰ (Cerapus 316 *tubularis*) and mean $\delta^{15}N$ values ranged from 6.4 (*H. rapax*) to 7.6‰ (Terebellidae; Table 2). 317 Carbon isotope composition of the major species of deposit feeder (A. louisianum) was stable over 318 time (Kruskal-Wallis test, p = 0.182; Figure S1). Predators/scavengers had mean δ^{13} C values 319 ranging from -20.8 (Cnidaria) to -17.9‰ (Xanthidae) and mean δ^{15} N values from 8.4 (Nereididae) 320 to 10.0% (Cnidaria), with the upper limits of these ranges being higher than those of suspension 321 and deposit feeders.

322 Soft sediment suspension and deposit feeders' $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values were similar over 323 space and time. Mean δ^{13} C values of soft sediment suspension feeders ranged from -21.1 324 (Pectinariidae) to -20.5‰ (*M. lateralis*), and mean δ^{15} N values ranged from 5.8 (*M. lateralis*) to 325 7.1‰ (Pectinariidae; Table 2). Deposit feeders had mean δ^{13} C values ranging from -22.1 326 (Ampharetidae) to -15.0‰ (*N. vibex*) and mean δ^{15} N values ranged from 5.6 (Ampeliscidae) to 327 9.7‰ (Goniadidae). Soft sediment predators/scavengers had mean δ^{13} C values ranging from -21.8 328 (Nemertea) to -19.7‰ (A. canaliculata) and mean δ^{15} N values from 7.5 (Turbellaria) and 10.1‰ 329 (Nemertea).

Comparisons between habitats demonstrated that suspension and deposit feeders collected at Serpulid reef and soft sediment stations had similar δ^{13} C values (Kruskal-Wallis test, p = 0.180; Figure 7). δ^{15} N values for these two groups of primary consumers were also similar, except suspension feeders from the Serpulid reef which were slightly more ¹⁵N-enriched than suspension feeders from the soft sediment (means of 6.8 vs. 6.0%; Kruskal-Wallis test, p = 0.026). Pogonias cromis collected by commercial fishermen throughout Baffin Bay had similar isotope compositions to *L. rhomboides* and *A. probatocephalus* collected at Serpulid reef sampling stations (Kruskal-Wallis tests, δ^{13} C: p = 0.690, δ^{15} N: p = 0.883; Figure 7). Mean fish δ^{13} C values ranged from -18.9 (*A. probatocephalus*) to -15.7‰ (*S. ocellatus*). No difference was observed between δ^{13} C values of fish species (Kruskal-Wallis test, p = 0.359). Mean fish δ^{15} N values ranged from 9.9 (*L. rhomboides*) to 13.5‰ (*C. nebulosus*), with *C. nebulosus* being more enriched in ¹⁵N than other fish species.

The range of fish δ^{13} C values overlapped those of suspension and deposit feeders from soft sediment and Serpulid reefs (Figure 7). The mean δ^{13} C values of suspension (-20.7‰) and deposit feeders (-20.1‰) from both habitats were in the range of mean SSOM δ^{13} C values (-21.0 to -20.8‰) and were much more ¹³C-enriched than SPOM (-24.7 to -24.4‰; Table 2).

346 **4. Discussion**

347 4.1 Biomass enhancement and Serpulid reef macrofauna

348 Baffin Bay's Serpulid reefs increase habitat complexity and support specific macrofauna 349 assemblages with enriched abundance, biomass, and diversity. Macrofauna inhabiting Serpulid 350 reefs occur in considerably higher densities (191x), have substantially higher biomass (97x), and 351 are more diverse (2x) than those occurring in soft sediments. Macrofaunal community composition 352 differed between habitat types, with crustaceans and polychaetes dominating at Serpulid reef 353 habitat and bivalves and polychaetes dominating in soft sediments. While the population dynamics 354 and community composition of Baffin Bay's soft sediment macrofauna has fluctuated greatly over 355 time (Montagna and Kalke 1995; Rubio et al. 2018; Breaux et al. 2019), Serpulid reef macrofauna 356 communities characterized in the current study are similar to those recorded historically, in 357 particular compared to the most recent and probably most comprehensive study of Serpulid reefs

in Baffin Bay, conducted two decades ago (Hardegree 1997). The deposit-feeding amphipod *A*. *louisianum* was the most abundant reef organism observed in both studies (Hardegree 1997: 71%
of total abundance; current study: 60% overall, 70% at station R3), and the eight most abundant
macrofauna collected in 1997 were among the most numerous (8 of the 10 most abundant species)
in the current study.

363 Whereas soft sediment macrofauna decreased in abundance with increases in salinity, 364 temperature and pH, Serpulid reef macrofauna abundance and biomass were stable over time, 365 indicating that they are more consistently available to higher-level consumers than soft sediment 366 communities. Indeed, Baffin Bay experiences large and frequent fluctuations in water quality 367 variables including salinity and pH, as well as frequent algal blooms (Cira and Wetz 2019; Cira et 368 al. 2021), and numerous studies have documented the effects on soft sediment macrofauna 369 (Montagna et al. 1993; Montagna and Kalke 1995; Street et al. 1997; Rubio et al. 2018; Breaux et 370 al. 2019). While the role of salinity and temperature in structuring macrofauna communities is 371 generally well understood (Ritter et al. 2005; Beseres Pollack et al. 2009; Palmer and Montagna 372 2015; Van Diggelen and Montagna 2016), the mechanism for the response to pH is less well 373 known. Fluctuations in pH can affect marine organisms in various ways including reductions in 374 metabolism and growth, solubility of calcium carbonates, and bioavailability of metals (Knutzen 375 1981; Guinotte and Fabry 2008), which may have contributed to variability in soft sediment 376 macrofauna community.

Although Serpulid reef macrofaunal abundance and biomass were unrelated to salinity fluctuations in the current study, persistent hypersalinity could have a negative effect on Serpulid reef macrofaunal richness, as occurs in nearby soft sediment communities (Simmons 1957; Montagna et al. 2002). A greater number of reef taxa were identified in the current study (43 in 381 this study versus 29 in Hardegree 1997) despite similar sampling efforts, which may be related to 382 the relatively moderate salinity range in this study (monthly salinity range of 28 to 47) as compared 383 to the consistently hypersaline conditions (salinity range of 40 to 65) occurring during the 384 Hardegree study. In contrast, the number of reef taxa in this study (43) is comparable to that found 385 in a limited study of Baffin Bay under similar salinity conditions conducted three decades ago (38 386 species, Cole 1981). The proposed link between hypersalinity and decreasing Serpulid reef 387 macrofauna richness is speculative, as factors such as other changes in water quality could be 388 responsible. There are likely to be long-term fluctuations in Serpulid reef macrofauna communities 389 over time, but community stability relative to the surrounding soft sediment macrofauna is evident 390 and important to the functioning of this dynamic system.

391 4.2 Role of macrofauna from Serpulid Reefs in the Food Web

392 Baffin Bay supports a uniquely large P. cromis population (Olsen 2014), and Serpulid reef 393 macrofauna are likely a key contributor to fish success in this environmentally stressed system. 394 Isotope analyses indicate that P. cromis and other sport fish likely rely on macrofauna from both 395 Serpulid reef and soft sediment habitats (directly for P. cromis, A. probatocephalus and L. 396 rhomboides, and indirectly for higher-trophic level consumers like C. nebulosus). Although it is 397 not possible to distinguish Serpulid reef macrofauna from macrofauna in soft sediments based on 398 their isotope compositions, quantitative analyses from this and other studies demonstrate that these 399 food sources are present in much higher numbers, with much greater biomass, and have less 400 variability, at Serpulid reefs than in soft sediments (Montagna et al. 1993; Montagna and Kalke 401 1995; Hardegree 1997; Rubio et al. 2018; Breaux et al. 2019).

402 During hypersaline periods, when soft sediment macrofauna become scarce, Serpulid reefs 403 likely become an essential source of macrofaunal prey for higher trophic level consumers. Breaux

404 et al. (2019) found that P. cromis diets in Baffin Bay consist primarily of deposit-feeding 405 macrofauna, which were rare or absent in soft sediment habitats during high salinity conditions. 406 *Pogonias cromis* have limited motility during hypersaline conditions, foraging primarily within 407 the boundaries of the bay rather than migrating to adjacent systems (Ajemian et al. 2018; Rubio et 408 al. 2018; Breaux et al. 2019). In these situations, Serpulid reefs are the primary source of 409 macrofauna prey. An increased understanding of the P. cromis diet is important because up to 76% 410 of annual commercial landings for the region are harvested from Baffin Bay (Olsen et al. 2018), 411 and because periodic emaciation events with significantly underweight P. cromis have plagued 412 this relatively small estuarine system (Olsen 2014; 2016). Additional research to estimate P. 413 cromis population size and carrying capacity would help further elucidate the importance of 414 Serpulid reef macrofauna to maintaining fish populations in Baffin Bay.

415 While Baffin Bay's Serpulid reefs host considerably more macrofauna than do soft 416 sediments, there is a clear and strong connection between the two habitat types, with soft sediments 417 playing an important trophic role. Macrofauna biomass was dominated by suspension feeders in 418 both Serpulid reef (68%) and soft sediment (91%) habitats. Suspension feeders generally rely on 419 food sources suspended in the water column, but in the current study their isotope compositions 420 were close to those of SSOM, indicating that a large part of their food resources originate from the 421 sediment, likely due to the shallow depth (average ~ 1 m) and predominant wind-driven mixing 422 (Tunnell 2001). The role of SSOM as a food source for suspension feeders has been demonstrated 423 in similarly shallow, well-mixed estuaries (Blomberg et al. 2017), and in other estuarine habitats 424 such as seagrass beds, and intertidal and subtidal mudflats (Riera and Richard 1996; Lebreton et 425 al. 2011; Kang et al. 2015). Our results highlight the connectivity between these two major habitats: soft sediments where primary production and/or storage of this production occurs, and
Serpulid reefs where macrofaunal consumers make this resource available to higher trophic levels.

428 **4.3 Implications for Conservation and Restoration**

429 Serpulid reefs are limited in their global distribution and at risk from anthropogenic 430 disturbance yet are highly valued for their ecological and conservation importance owing to their 431 high levels of biodiversity (Haines and Maurer 1980). Loss of biogenic reef structure has negative 432 implications for both reef-associated macrofauna and for higher trophic level organisms foraging 433 in these habitats (Kaiser et al. 1999). The only Serpulid found on the reef in the current study, H. 434 dianthus, is known to exhibit gregarious settlement (Haines and Maurer 1980) and rapid growth 435 (up to 66 mm yr⁻¹; Grave 1933). However, it is plausible that *H. dianthus* reef-building activities 436 are affected by the predominantly hypersaline conditions (Cole 1981), reducing the rate of 437 biogenic reef recovery from physical disturbances, e.g., those associated with fishing activities 438 (Kaiser et al. 1999). Biochemical mechanisms may also contribute to reef decline, with common 439 and extreme changes in pH in the bay potentially altering calcification rates and changing the 440 mechanical properties of Serpulid tubes (Chan et al. 2012; Smith et al. 2013; Díaz-Castañeda et 441 al. 2019) and reducing their effectiveness against external attacks and bioerosion by predators 442 (Waldbusser et al. 2011; Wisshak et al. 2012; Hossain and Rahman 2017). Additional research is 443 warranted to understand how Serpulids will respond to environmental change.

Restoration is increasingly being used as a tool to ameliorate the effects of habitat loss for biogenic reef builders (Jaap 2000; De Santiago et al. 2019). For habitats that are rare or limited in distribution, ecological knowledge is needed to promote efficient, effective, and successful restoration efforts (Cook et al. 2021). Although the current extent and size of Baffin Bay's Serpulid reefs are unknown, observations indicate substantial reductions in habitat have occurred from the 449 16 km² reported from surveys conducted in the 1970s (Brown et al. 1977; Hardegree 1997; Tunnell 450 et al. 2001). Additional effort is warranted to update maps of Serpulid reef in Baffin Bay using 451 approaches that have been successful in other systems, including lidar (Noernberg et al. 2010) and 452 side-scan sonar surveys (Moore et al. 2009; Raineault et al. 2012). Our results indicate that 453 Serpulid reef macrofauna abundance increased up-estuary, and that *H. dianthus*, the only reef-454 builder in Baffin Bay, was most numerous at the furthest up-estuary station. Updated maps could 455 be used in combination with these results to help select suitable locations to create restored reefs 456 or protected areas to reestablish lost Serpulid habitat and food resources. Also, restoration success 457 may be enhanced by selecting locations where H. dianthus are found in abundance because H. 458 dianthus settlement relies on chemical cues associated with adults as indicators of habitat 459 suitability (Toonen and Pawlik 1996). Additional information on hydrodynamics and larval 460 dispersal could further help improve restoration planning and protected area design. The creation 461 of short-term (< week) hydrodynamic transport models would be particularly useful for Serpulid 462 management because H. dianthus larvae settle approximately five days after fertilization in the 463 water column (Scheltema et al. 1981).

464

465 **5.** Conclusion

We have shown that Serpulid reefs play a critical role in the functioning of the Baffin Bay ecosystem, supporting specific macrofauna assemblages and providing increased macrofauna biomass. In contrast to macrofauna from soft sediments, Serpulid reef macrofauna abundance and biomass were stable over time, indicating they are more consistently available to higher-level consumers. In periods of hypersalinity common to the bay, when soft sediment macrofauna are limited, Serpulid reefs likely become an essential source of prey supporting *P. cromis* and other 472 sport fish populations. Stable isotope analysis results demonstrate trophic connectivity between 473 Serpulid reef and soft sediment habitats and highlight the importance of sediment organic matter 474 as a food source for the dominant suspension feeders. Previous evidence has shown substantial 475 reductions of Serpulid reef habitat in Baffin Bay compared to historic levels. Our results indicate 476 that further reef degradation and loss will undoubtedly have cascading effects for higher trophic 477 level organisms. Conservation actions may be needed to reestablish lost Serpulid habitat and food 478 resources, and results from the current study could help in selecting suitable locations for 479 restoration or protection. An improved understanding of the ecological structure and function of 480 Serpulid reef habitats is important because it will increase the probability of restoration success of 481 this rare and vulnerable habitat.

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723 <u>Tables</u>

Table 1. Spearman rank correlation coefficients and p-values among macrofaunal community
 measurements and water quality parameters. Analyses included four soft sediment and three
 Serpulid reef stations sampled between June 2018 and March 2019.

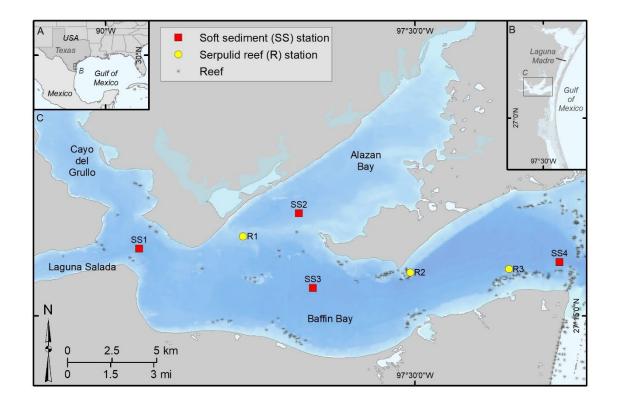
Habitat Variable (unit)		Salinity	Temperature (°C)	рН	Dissolved Oxygen (mg L ⁻¹)	
	Album dan as (m. I. J.)	rho	0.112	0.046	0.098	0.056
Serpulid	Abundance (n L ⁻¹)	р	0.729	0.888	0.762	0.863
Reef	Biomass (mg L-1)	rho	-0.238	-0.459	-0.203	0.385
		р	0.457	0.134	0.527	0.217
	Abundanaa (n. I.d.)	rho	-0.499	-0.473	-0.550	0.389
Soft	Abundance (n L ⁻¹)	р	0.069	0.088	0.042	0.169
Sediment	Biomass (mg L ⁻¹)	rho	-0.341	-0.292	-0.682	0.134
		р	0.233	0.311	0.007	0.648

730 **Table 2**. Stable isotope compositions ($\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$, %) of taxa and organic matter samples 731 collected from June 2018 to March 2019. SPOM = suspended particulate organic matter, SSOM

732 = surface sediment organic matter.

				δ ¹³ C		$\delta^{15}N$	
Location Collected	Sample Type	Species Name	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
	0	SPOM	25	-24.7	1.6	3.5	2.4
	Organic matter	SSOM	14	-21.0	0.7	4.6	0.3
	Suspension	Mulinia lateralis	19	-20.5	0.8	5.8	1.0
	feeder	Pectinariidae	10	-21.1	0.5	7.1	1.2
		Armandia agilis	1	-21.6		7.9	
G G		Ampeliscidae	2	-19.6	1.0	5.6	0.5
Soft Sediment	Deneral fraden	Ampharetidae	3	-22.1	2.2	7.7	0.3
Seument	Deposit feeder	Amphipoda	1	-20.8		7.3	
		Goniadidae	4	-20.9	1.1	9.7	1.1
		Nassarius vibex	1	-15.0		6.1	
		Acteocina canaliculata	2	-19.7	1.0	7.6	2.2
	Predator/	Nemertea	1	-21.8		10.1	
	scavenger	Turbellaria	2	-20.9	0.4	7.5	0.0
	Primary	Algae	20	-18.4	4.0	5.0	1.6
	producer /	SPOM	20	-24.4	1.6	3.4	1.7
	Organic matter	SSOM	12	-20.8	2.0	4.2	0.7
	Suspension	Balanus eburneus	36	-19.3	1.1	7.9	0.9
		Brachidontes exustus	29	-21.6	0.6	5.3	0.6
	feeder	Hydroides dianthus	29	-21.1	0.9	7.0	0.9
Serpulid		Apocorophium louisianum	33	-20.4	1.2	6.5	0.7
Reef		Cerapus tubularis	2	-18.7	1.5	7.2	1.6
		Hargeria rapax	1	-19.8		6.4	
		Orbiniidae	4	-20.3	0.5	7.0	0.3
		Terebellidae	3	-20.4	0.2	7.6	0.1
		Cnidaria	6	-20.8	0.3	10.0	0.9
	Predator/ scavenger	Nereididae	29	-19.7	1.2	8.4	1.0
		Xanthidae	4	-17.9	0.8	8.5	0.7
	Fich	Archosargus probatocephalus	1	-18.9		11.0	
Baffin		Cynoscion nebulosus	13	-17	1.5	13.5	0.7
Bay		Lagodon rhomboides	8	-16.4	2.5	9.9	1.1
ď		Pogonias cromis	23	-16.8	2.8	10.2	1.7
		0					

734 Figure Captions



735

Figure 1. Map of the Baffin Bay complex showing reef (R) and soft sediment (SS) sampling locations. Approximate locations of reef are derived from NOAA electronic navigation charts

- 738 (NOAA 2018). Almost all reefs in the map are Serpulid reefs (some in the Laguna Madre are rock
- 739 *reefs*).

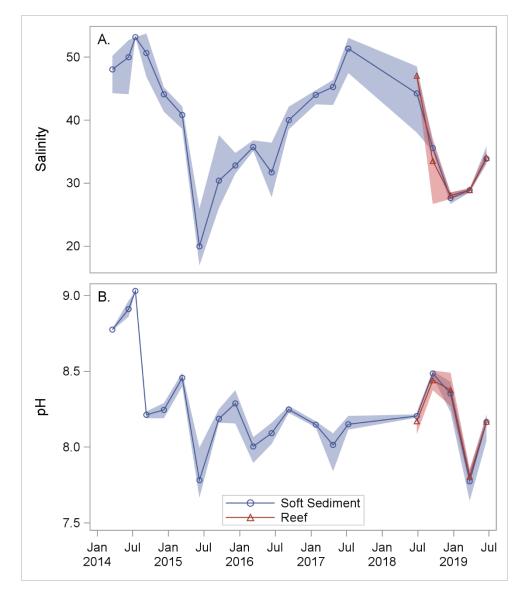


Figure 2. Salinity and pH measured at soft sediment (blue) and Serpulid reef (red) stations.

Shaded regions represent minimum and maximum salinities in each sampling period. Values
before 2018 are plotted for reference only.

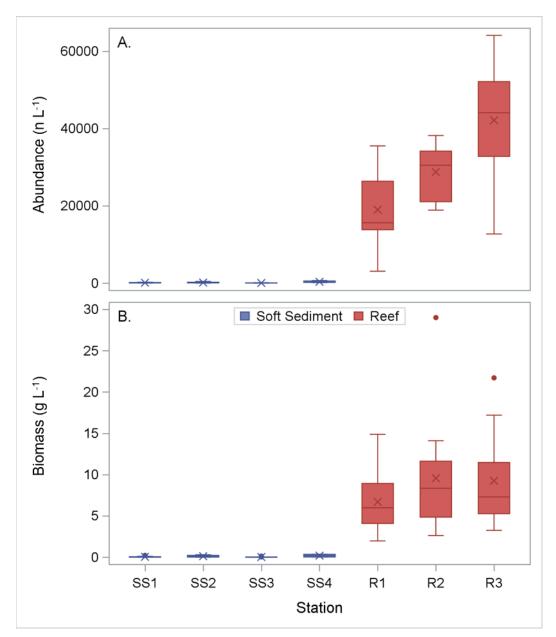


Figure 3. Abundance (top), and biomass (bottom) of fauna (n L⁻¹) in the top 3 cm of soft
sediment (blue) and 3 pieces (approximately 3 cm³) of Serpulid reef (red) from June 2018-March
2019. In each boxplot, the line represents the median, x symbol represents the mean, the upper
and lower box limits represent the upper and the lower quartile, upper and lower whiskers

represent the minimum and maximum values (excluding outliers).

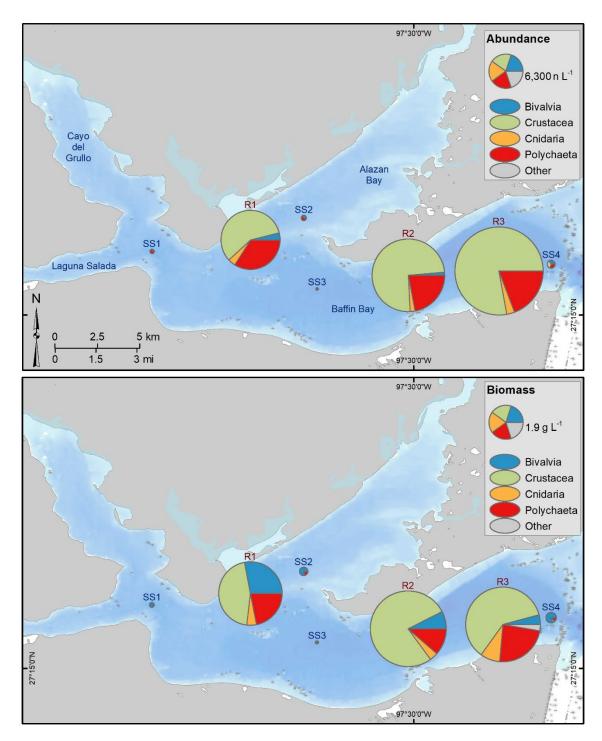


Figure 4. Mean abundance (top) and biomass (bottom) of major faunal groups occurring in soft
 sediment and Serpulid reef stations from June 2018-March 2019. Pie graph size is indicative of

757 relative macrofaunal abundance and biomass, respectively.

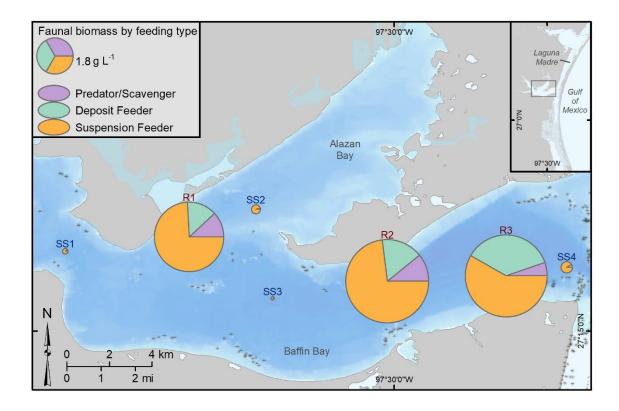


Figure 5. Mean biomass of macrofauna by feeding type in soft sediment and Serpulid reef stations

761 from June 2018-March 2019. Pie graph size is indicative of relative macrofaunal biomass.

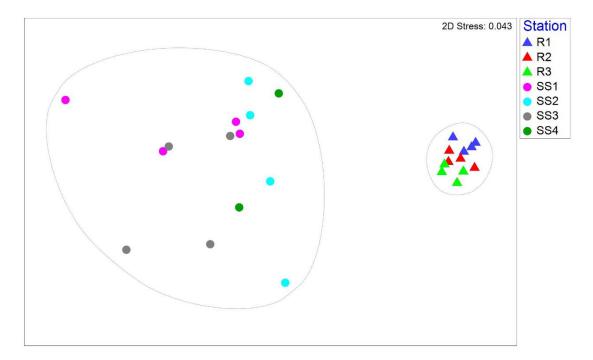


Figure 6. Nonmetric multidimensional scaling plot of macrofaunal communities from Serpulid reef (R1-R3; triangles) and soft sediment stations (SS1-SS4; circles) from June 2018-March 2019.

Ellipses represent 3% similarity groupings determined by cluster analysis.

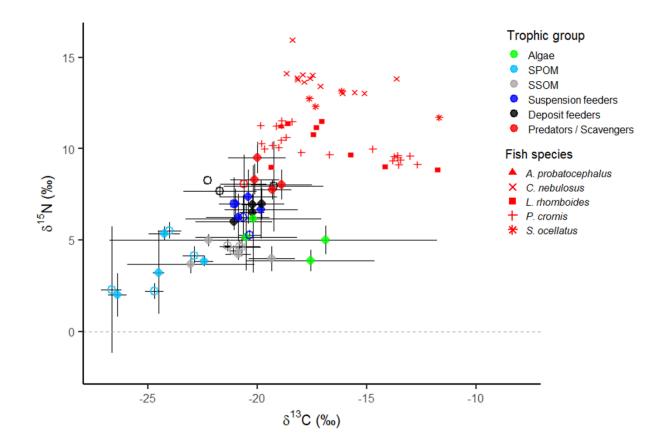


Figure 7. Stable isotope compositions ($\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$, %) of potential food sources and fish. Fish

are shown as individual samples. All other samples are averaged by season (mean \pm standard

deviation). Sources from the Serpulid reef are represented by solid symbols and those from soft

sediment by hollow symbols. SPOM = suspended particulate organic matter, SSOM = surface

774 sediment organic matter.

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