Drivers of octopus abundance and density in an anchialine lake: <u>a 30 year comparison</u>

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27 Abstract

28 Anchialine systems are isolated from the sea and often support species' populations distinct from 29 their marine counterparts. Sweetings Pond, an anchialine lake on the island of Eleuthera in The 30 Bahamas was identified as a site of high Caribbean reef octopus, Octopus briareus (Robson, 31 1929) density, relative to coastal populations. However, observed deterioration in local benthic 32 habitat and increased anthropogenic influence over the last 30 years imply that this octopus 33 population may have undergone density and distribution shifts in response to these changing 34 conditions. Here, we assess the system wide octopus density to provide an updated estimate. We 35 hypothesize that despite depressed habitat availability in the 1980s, it will now support octopus 36 densities less than historical estimates because of increasing human impact on the system. 37 Drivers of abundance were also modelled, testing ecological hypotheses of the relationship 38 between octopus count and prey, habitat coverage, and human disturbance. Octopus briareus were found in 7 of 27 of surveys with a mean survey count of 0.630 ± 1.25 per 900 m². Octopus 39 40 density did not vary significantly between sites. Octopus count was predicted to increase with 41 increasing cover of calcareous rubble and the density of a preferred prey species, and 42 intriguingly, counts decreased as a function of natural den abundance. System wide octopus density was comparable to earlier studies from the 1980s (1982 = 717.38 per km²; 1983 = 282.5943 44 per km²; 2019 = 643.81 per km²) with no significant difference between years. Given the 45 ecosystem's unique and closed ecological community and the population dynamics and 46 distribution drivers we present, Sweetings Pond has the potential to act as a 'natural laboratory' 47 to explore further questions about marine insular systems and their influence on species 48 populations in terms of ecological and behavioural change.

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50 Keywords: abundance; anchialine; Bahamas; marine; octopus; Octopus briareus

52	<u>Abbreviations</u>
53	CR – Calcareous Rubble
54	IR – Individual Recognition
55	MO – Mytilopsis species
56	OR – Odds Ratio
57	PR – Pinctada radiata
58	RR – Incidence Rate Ratios
59	SPE – Sweetings Pond Ecosystem
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73 1. Introduction

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75 Octopus are soft-bodied cephalopod molluscs comprising a group of more than 800 extant 76 species found globally in all seas (Jereb et al., 2014). They are considered an important 77 component of artisanal fisheries, where they contribute 3.8% mass to global landings (FAO, 78 2018). Due to their lack of external hard parts, octopus may display specific habitat preferences 79 in order to establish protective dens and mitigate vulnerability to predation (Mather and Scheel, 80 2014) or, alternatively, to provide a sheltered area appropriate for the attachment of eggs (Hanlon 81 and Messenger, 1996; Garci et al., 2015). Consequently, the substrate upon which their early life 82 stages settle (Villanueva et al., 2016) and adults colonise will have a significant influence on 83 octopus survival and distribution (Hanlon and Messenger, 1996). However, there are few 84 examples where such preferences have been identified (Hermosilla *et al.*, 2011). We hypothesize 85 that octopus abundance and density is therefore likely to be driven by habitat quality, availability 86 and reduced predation pressure rather than any social interaction or aggregation with 87 conspecifics (Mather and Scheel, 2014). The Caribbean reef octopus, Octopus briareus Robson, 88 is considered exempt from the common perception that octopus are typically asocial in nature, 89 with little to no interactions with conspecifics (Hanlon and Messenger, 1996). This exemption is 90 based upon work from The Bahamas by Aronson (1986), who presented an unexpectedly high-91 density population of this species compared to coastal populations, in an isolated marine lake on 92 the island of Eleuthera.

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Octopus briareus is a common tropical water cephalopod, distributed from the southeast Gulf of
Mexico, through the Caribbean to the north coast of South America (Roper *et al.*, 1984). This
species is ubiquitous within the littoral zone of a variety of tropical habitats, including coral
reefs, seagrass meadows and soft sediment ecosystems (Roper *et al.*, 1984). In these

environments, *O. briareus* functions as an important mesopredator, predating upon juvenile
spiny lobster, *Panulirus argus* (Butler and Lear, 2009), coral polyps (Jereb *et al.*, 2014) and
multiple bivalve species (Aronson, 1989). Although accurate fisheries data are lacking for this
species, *O. briareus* supports a minor fishery in the Caribbean and Gulf of Mexico (Voss, 1971;
Jereb *et al.*, 2014) and is postulated to contribute to common octopus, *Octopus vulgaris* (Cuvier,
1797) catch in the western central Atlantic fishing area (Roper *et al.*, 1984), which reported a net
catch of 14,246 tonnes in 2017 (FAO, 2019).

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106 Despite their abundance and perceived importance as mesopredators globally, very little is 107 known of octopuses' most basic life-history and ecology. This is also true for O. briareus in the 108 Caribbean, although for this species exceptions currently extend to laboratory-based research 109 into the potential biomedical and captive mariculture uses (Borer, 1971; Cowden and Curtis, 110 1973; Hanlon, 1977; Hanlon and Wolterding, 1989) under laboratory conditions with few 111 empirical data on wild populations. With limited information, the population dynamics research 112 of Aronson (1986) on wild O. briareus populations in the Sweetings Pond Ecosystem (SPE) 113 have become the benchmark for O. briareus ecology.

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115 The SPE is a large anchialine lake 1.6 km long by 0.8 km wide, that displays typical subtropical 116 environmental characteristics for a marine system (Masonjones et al., 2019) and supports a 117 dynamic community of low mobility species (Aronson and Harms, 1985), such as the lined 118 seahorse, *Hippocampus erectus*, cross-barred venus, *Chione elevata*, and sheepshead minnow, 119 Cyprinodon variegatus variegatus. Due to its isolation from the wider marine environment, 120 linked only by small aquifers in the porous limestone basin, Sweetings Pond's species diversity 121 is low, with the majority of the biomass provided by small invertebrate species. This is 122 evidenced through the unusually high densities of the brittle stars Ophiothrix oerstedii and

123 Ophioderma brevispina (Aronson and Harms, 1985). In the absence of higher trophic level 124 predators (Aronson and Harms, 1985), such as grouper or sharks, the ecosystem has also 125 undergone the equivalent of a mesopredator release (Crooks and Soule, 1999) compared to 126 counterpart coastal populations; although sporadic larger fish species have been observed due to 127 a series of human introductions. The absence of apex predators has potentially led to the high octopus (max 15.2 per km² – Aronson, 1986) and increasing seahorse (max 0.66 per m² – 128 Masonjones et al., 2019) population densities observed at the site. Additionally, there have been 129 130 reports of *Cladophora* algae overgrowth in the patch zone but with its rapid reversion within a 131 year (Aronson, 1989). Such extreme changes in benthic habitat are likely to have influenced the 132 densities of inhabiting species (Rose et al., 2016) and as such, must be considered when drawing 133 conclusions about population dynamics.

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Despite the deficit in research activity at this site, the ecosystem has seen significant increases in anthropogenic incursions, specifically ecotourism, subsistence fishing, and agricultural encroachment to the water's edge. Understanding the temporal changes in density and habitat preferences of an important mesopredator in an atypical tropical ecosystem allows ecological questions to be posed to determine the ecological significance, and therefore conservation value, of similar ecosystems as sites of ecological and socio-economic importance.

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The overall objective of this study was to estimate the *O. briareus* population density and spatial distribution of the SPE patch zone, providing a contemporary population estimate for the first time in over three decades. Specifically, using this system as a model for anchialine lakes, we hypothesise that the influence of depressed hard substrate availability caused by *Cladophora* overgrowth and increasing human disturbance, will result in an *O. briareus* density less than estimates during the 1980's, and that prey items' and habitat availability will drive octopus 149 methodology to obtain an updated density estimate, and applied modelling techniques to predict

150 the drivers of *O. briareus* abundance across the SPE.

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152 <u>2. Materials and Methods</u>

153 2.1. Study Area

154 Sweetings Pond (25°21'40''N, 76°30'40''W) is a tidal marine lake, isolated from the adjacent marine estate of the Great Bahama Banks, located on the island of Eleuthera in the central 155 156 Bahamas. It is separated from the wider marine environment by a limestone ridge running north-157 south along its western boundary and surrounded by agriculture and largely impassable low-158 lying grasslands and white coppice to the north, east and south. Sampling took place from five 159 sites originally identified and named by Aronson and Harms (1985), and further refined by Masonjones and colleagues (2019) (Figure 1). These historic site names refer to identifying 160 161 landmarks or features of the site and consequently have no reference to differences in habitat or 162 other ecological differences between sites.

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Site selection provided sufficient coverage of the heterogeneous gradient of patch zone (shallow region of sponge, coral formations, bivalve clumps and calcareous rubble) identified by Masonjones *et al.* (2019) but unaccounted for by Aronson (1986). No attempt was made to sample the deeper centre of the lake due to the logistical challenge of transporting equipment and to maintain a focus on comparability with Aronson's study. Survey GPS coordinates were randomly generated using the 'random points in extents' research tool in QGIS (QGIS Development Team, 2019) and navigated to using a Garmin handheld GPS unit.

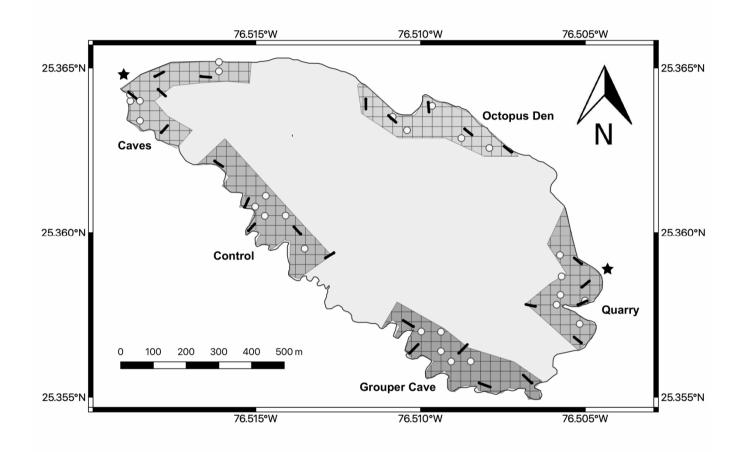


Figure 1. Location of sites within Sweetings Pond, map projected in WGS84. Grey hatched areas represent the area of patch zone designated as a site, within which survey coordinates are randomly selected. White points indicate the northwestern corner of 900 m² (30 x 30 m) octopus survey quadrats randomly projected on to the 30 m square grid overlay. Stars represent public access points and black lines represent a 30 m ecological survey transects.

172 2.2 Population Survey

173 Octopus briareus surveys consisted of 900 m² quadrats (30 x 30 m) randomly replicated 5 times 174 within each of the sites: 'Caves', 'Control' (named for continuity and not considered an 175 'experimental control'), 'Grouper Cave', Octopus Den' and 'Quarry'. A minimum distance of 30 176 m was maintained between replicates in order to ensure spatial independence. This resulted in 27 177 total replicates across all sites including additional sampling effort for 'Quarry' and 'Caves' due 178 to the presence of two lone artificial arrays currently in place for a separate study. Survey 179 methodology elaborated upon Aronson (1986), where the 900 m^2 quadrat was gridded and 180 bisected twice using 30 m transects in a cross pattern, creating a quadrat consisting of four subquadrats. The final sampled area was $24,300 \text{ m}^2$ and encompassed the entirety of the patch zone. 181 In comparison, Aronson (1986) sampled $23,000 \text{ m}^2$ and focussed solely on the site 'Octopus 182 183 Den'.

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In this study, quadrats were aligned along a north-south axis to improve the accurate alignment 185 186 of quadrat borders underwater. Consequently, the random coordinates generated were used to 187 indicate the quadrat's north-western corner (Figure 1). Surveys involved methodical SCUBA 188 diver swims through each sub-quadrat, scrutinising any structure for O. briareus. When an 189 individual was encountered, the den type in which it was found was recorded and the animal 190 itself photographed to provide an estimate of size. To ensure consistency with Aronson (1986), 191 surveys were performed between 10:00 and 13:00. Doing so also ensured that the majority of 192 octopus were residing within dens (Aronson, 1986) to improve the association of octopus count 193 with den ecology.

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Point benthic surveys were performed on the bisecting transects by recording the tape using asingle GoPro Hero 7 white edition. The camera was set to film at 1080p with a wide field-of-

view (270°) and 30 frames-per-second. Camera distance was maintained at 5 to 10 cm above the
transect line.

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200 Structures that could potentially be colonised were also recorded to provide an estimate of natural den availability. Four structure types were identified as potential dens based upon the 201 202 literature (Aronson, 1986) and preliminary observations of octopus colonisations (Masonjones, 203 pers.comms): sponges (e.g. Xestospongia spp.), holes, gastropod shells (namely Fasciolaria 204 tulipa) and vegetation. Sponges were only identified as a potential den if the structure could be 205 overturned without uprooting, as the space required for O. briareus colonisation is absent in 206 well-rooted sponges. Similarly, vegetation was only recorded if the structure was distinct and 207 elevated from the surrounding benthos to allow space underneath for O. briareus occupation. 208

209 2.3 Analytical Methods

210 'Quarry' and 'Caves' were considered disturbed sites due to their proximity to public access to 211 the lake via footpaths and roads. 'Octopus Den' was also assumed to be disturbed owing to the 212 performance of poor agricultural practices on the water's edge, which led to vegetation clearance 213 and deposition into the water. The remaining sites were considered undisturbed. Octopus 214 briareus counts were compared among sites and between human disturbance zones. Animal 215 densities were estimated at both the site and lake spatial scales where density represents the total 216 number of observed individuals divided by the area sampled. As the only overlap of sampling 217 period between this study and Aronson (1986) were the months of May and June, the separate 218 counts for these months were used to estimate yearly octopus density at the kilometre scale, 219 using a negative binomial general linear model (GLM) with a log-link and an offset to account 220 for differences in sampling area. Only two data points are available for each year as Aronson 221 (1986) reports a single O. briareus count per month. Negative binomial count GLMs were also

used to compare between sites and zones and to compare the influence of site and depth in
influencing total natural den number. Human disturbance zone was dropped from this model as
the parameter was not identifiable due to site encoding the same information. GLMs were fitted
using the package 'glmmTMB' (Brooks *et al.*, 2017). The package 'DHARMa' (Hartig, 2019)
was then used to assess the dispersion of model residuals and ensure these were not zero-inflated.

228 Regression models were then used to investigate the ecological drivers behind O. briareus 229 abundance across Sweetings Pond. Total natural den availability, average quadrat depth, 230 calcareous rubble (CR) cover, benthic diversity, preferred prey item (Mytilopsis spp., C. elevata 231 and *P. radiata*) cover, and relative distance to public access points were the predictors of interest 232 as these ecological factors are hypothesised to influence octopus abundance. Site was dropped to 233 model system wide trends with the resulting models ranked by Akaike's Information Criterion 234 (AIC), corrected for a small sample size (AICc). The final non-nested GLM involved the fixed continuous covariates, Calcareous rubble cover, P. radiata cover and total natural den 235 236 abundance.

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238 Transect video data was analysed *ex situ* in real time by trained observers using QuickTime 239 Player V10.5. The benthic species directly below the transect tape was identified and recorded 240 every 25 cm. The most common benthic components identified were, flocculant, sediment, 241 calcareous rubble, Mytilopsis spp., P. radiata, Laurencia spp., Caulerpa sertularioides, Hypnea 242 spp. and *Ecteinascidia turbinata*. The frequency data for the two bisecting transects in the 243 octopus survey were pooled and the percentage cover of each benthic component calculated. 244 Benthic diversity was assessed to determine differences between sites and zones of human 245 disturbance. Diversity was calculated as Simpson's Diversity Index where percentage cover 246 replaced count data (Tomascik and Sander, 1987). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

247 was performed between sites and a Tukey's HSD test used to identify post-hoc differences in 248 diversity index value. A non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination plot was 249 generated to visualise benthic community differences between sites independent of the benthic 250 diversity index. The differences were then assessed via ANOSIM (Oksanen *et al.*, 2013). 251 252 Results of statistical tests were considered significant at p < 0.05 with all analyses performed in

R (R Core Team, 2018). Assumptions of normality were tested using Shapiro-Wilk tests and
equal variances with Levene's tests. All provided uncertainties are given as the standard
deviation.

256 <u>3. Results</u>

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258 <u>3.1 Octopus Population Density Within Sweetings Pond</u>

259 Octopus briareus was the only cephalopod encountered during surveys during the two-month 260 sampling period. In total, 17 individuals were observed during octopus surveys, with a least one 261 octopus individual being present in 7 out of 25 surveys and a probability of observing an octopus 262 in any one 900 m² of 28%. The resulting Sweetings Pond-wide mean octopus abundance was 0.630 ± 1.25 per survey (n = 27). From the GLM model, 2019 octopus density was estimated at 263 643.81 per km² (95% confidence interval: 37.75 - 13634.16) compared to 717.38 per km² (13.24 264 - 38862.50) in 1982 and 282.59 per km² (4.16 - 19203.52) in 1983. No significant difference was 265 266 seen between the 2019 estimate and the 1980s' (GLM: $\beta_{1982} = 0.11$, p = 0.864; $\beta_{1983} = -0.82$, p =267 0.218). In 2019, 'Control' displayed the highest octopus count in 2019 (Table I), followed by 'Grouper Cave' then 'Caves', with zero individuals observed at 'Octopus Den' and 'Quarry'. 268 Octopus counts did not vary significantly between sites (Table II) and months ($\chi^2 = -1.18$, p = 269 270 0.448).

Table I. Site variation in the possible drivers of *O. briareus* abundance across Sweetings Pond.The mean for each variable is reported with the standard deviation provided in brackets.

Site	Absolute octopus abundance per replicate (900 m ²)	Octopus density per km ²	Depth (m)	Benthic Simpson diversity	Absolute natural den abundance per replicate (900 m ²)	Mytilopsis spp. Cover (%)	Pinctada radiata cover (%)
Caves	0.67 (1.63)	0.74 (1.81)	3.05 (1.64)	0.426 (0.24)	23.0 (13.9)	0.069 (0.17)	1.102 (2.70)
Control	1.60 (1.52)	1.78 (1.69)	8.27 (0.86)	0.429 (0.13)	2.0 (4.5)	2.149 (1.99)	1.736 (0.74)
Grouper	1.00 (1.41)	1.11 (1.57)	6.02 (1.51)	0.584 (0.09)	29.8 (15.4)	9.835 (8.62)	4.132 (2.13)
Cave							
Octopus	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	5.88 (2.94)	0.561 (0.10)	27.8 (17.2)	0.000 (0.00)	0.165 (0.23)
Den							
Quarry	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	2.49 (0.07)	0.241 (0.07	15.2 (7.8)	0.059 (0.17)	1.122 (1.45)

Table II. Generalised linear model parameter estimates for the octopus count ~ site + month relationship. Parameter values are given on the link scale.

	Estimate	Standard Error	<i>p</i> value
Intercept	0.470	0.624	0.452
(SiteControl:MonthJune)			
SiteCaves	-0.581	0.999	0.561
SiteGrouper Cave	0.626	1.575	0.722
SiteOctopus Den	-24.43	714.49	1.000
SiteQuarry	-21.79	213.81	0.999
MonthMay	-1.183	1.561	0.448

- Total natural den number also differed significantly between sites and depth (Table III) with
- 276 'Control' being significantly different to all other sites excluding 'Quarry'; 'Control' displayed a
- den abundance 13.2% that of 'Quarry', the next lowest site (Figure 2). Den number was
- 278 negatively related to depth ($\chi^2 = -0.202$, p = 0.003).
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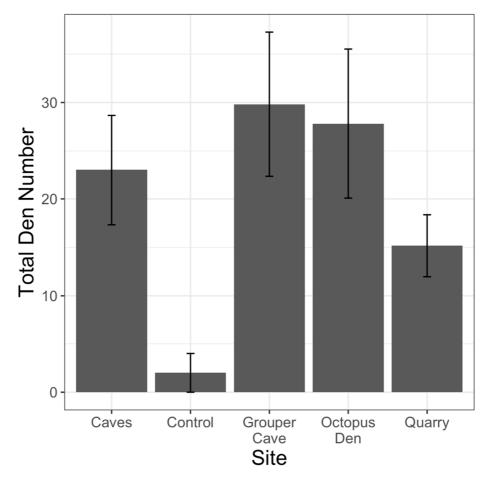


Figure 2. Overall landscape scale variation in natural den number between Sweetings Pond sites presented as bar plots. Plots represent site mean whilst error bars depict the standard error from that mean.

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Table III. Generalised linear model parameter estimates for the natural den count ~ site + depth relationship. Parameter values are given on the link scale.

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	Estimate	Standard Error	<i>p</i> value
Intercept(SiteControl)	2.326	0.661	<0.001 ***
Depth (m)	-0.202	0.067	0.003 **
SiteCaves	1.395	0.553	0.012 *
SiteGrouper Cave	2.190	0.475	<0.001 ***
SiteOctopus Den	2.127	0.468	<0.001 ***
SiteQuarry	0.915	0.575	0.111
* <i>p</i> < 0.0	5 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001		

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288 <u>3.2 Drivers of Octopus Abundance</u>

289 Multi-model comparison did not provide strong evidence for an effect of human disturbance on

290 octopus density. Pinctada radiata (PR) cover was retained as a predictor across the six models

291 with the lowest AICc scores, with quadrats displaying higher PR cover yielding higher O.

292 *briareus* counts. Calcareous rubble (CR) cover was also retained as a predictor across all models.

In the optimal model (Table IV – Model 1), the three predictors influenced octopus density. If

294 predicted coefficients are presented as incidence rate ratios (RR), an increase of 1 PR and CR

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Table IV. Parameter estimates and associated standard deviations presented as model coefficients for the top ranked models predicting *Octopus briareus* abundance across Sweetings Pond. Models were ranked by AICc.

	Dependent	t variable: <i>O</i> .	<i>briareus</i> cou	nt		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	-4.234	-4.891	-4.616	-4.234	-6.813	-20.338
	(1.768)	(2.087)	(2.161)	(1.991)	(2.974)	(16.561)
Average depth (m)					0.404	
					(0.318)	
Benthic diversity						16.000
						(14.690)
CR cover (%)	0.051	0.061	0.064	0.048	0.040	0.179
	(0.020)	(0.025)	(0.026)	(0.022)	(0.027)	(0.140)
MO cover (%)				0.084		0.064
				(0.064)		(0.063)
PR cover (%)	0.725	0.480	0.751	0.817	0.562	0.988
	(0.237)	(0.223)	(0.268)	(0.293)	(0.238)	(0.515)
Distance to public			-2.485			
access (m)			(2.016)			
Total den	-0.066		-0.066	-0.111		-0.149
abundance	(0.027)		(0.027)	(0.051)		(0.074)
AICc	46.58	47.84	47.92	48.10	49.34	49.73
ΔAICc	0.00	1.26	1.34	1.52	2.76	3.15
Model weight	0.34	0.18	0.17	0.16	0.08	0.07

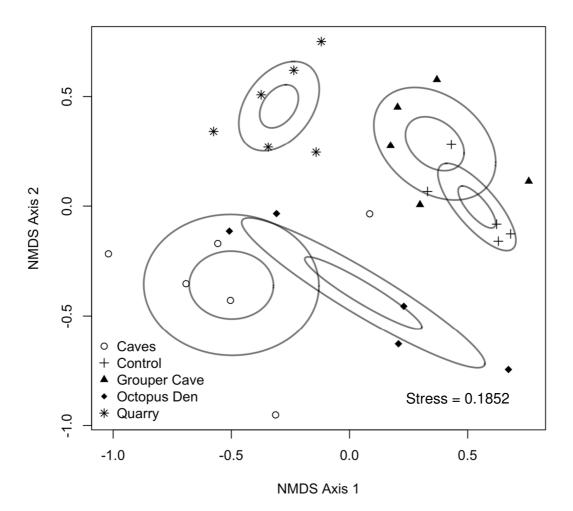


Figure 3. Non-metric multidimensional scaling plot comparing benthic species between Sweetings Pond sites. Inner ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals for each multivariate mean, based upon standard error, whilst outer ellipses represent 50%.

- 297 percentage cover unit increased the density by ~107% (RR = 2.065, p < 0.01) and ~5%
- respectively (RR = 1.052, p < 0.05). However, adding one den per km squared decreases the
- 299 density by ~6% (RR = 0.936, p < 0.05).
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302 *3.3 Benthic Composition Distributions*

Clear differences in benthic composition were observed between certain Sweetings Pond sites, as 303 represented by point clustering during NMDS analysis (Figure 3). ANOSIM interrogation 304 305 suggests that the ratio of within-group to between-group dissimilarities are significantly different (ANOSIM: $R^2 = 0.665$, p < 0.001) whilst the 95% confidence intervals of 'Control' and 306 307 'Grouper Cave' clusters overlap sufficiently to suggest their benthic communities are similar. 308 This is also true for 'Octopus Den' and 'Caves'. 'Quarry' has its own distinct benthic 309 composition, a result confirmed by a significant difference in benthic diversity between sites 310 (One-way ANOVA: $F_{4,22} = 5.02$, p < 0.01). A Tukey HSD post-hoc test indicated that the mean 311 diversity score for 'Quarry' was significantly lower than both 'Grouper Cave' (p < 0.01) and 312 'Octopus Den' (p < 0.01) whilst the remaining pairwise comparisons between sites yielded no 313 statistically significant results. The diversity differences are driven by a higher mean percentage cover of flocculant [Kruskal-Wallis test: $\chi^2 = 19.84$, df = 4, p < 0.001; Dunn's Test with 314 Bonferroni correction: 'Quarry' > 'Octopus Den' (adjusted p < 0.001) & 'Control' (adjusted p < 0.001) 315 0.05)] and reduced mean calcareous rubble cover [$\chi^2 = 20.48$, df = 4, p < 0.001; 'Quarry' < 316 317 'Grouper Cave' (adjusted p < 0.01) & 'Control' (adjusted p < 0.01)] compared to the other sites.

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319 <u>4. Discussion</u>

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321 <u>4.1 Octopus briareus Population Density</u>

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323 This study has shown a large population of *O. briareus* inhabiting the patch zone of the

324 Sweetings Pond ecosystem, with estimates being comparable with earlier work by Aronson

325 (1986) [717.38 per km² in 1982; 282.59 per km² in 1983, 643.81 per km² in 2019]. It is difficult

to make comparisons to other populations due to a lack of data from wild *O. briareus* coastal
populations. Therefore, it is necessary to draw parallels with the common octopus, *O. vulgaris*,
due to it being sympatric to *O. briareus* throughout the Caribbean (Roper *et al.*, 1984),
phylogenetically similar (Albertin *et al.*, 2015; Sanchez *et al.*, 2018), and likely exhibiting
similar niche occupation. Thus, taking *O. vulgaris* as an exemplary, Caribbean octopus species
have been observed at 918.3 per km² in coastal Bermuda (Mather and Odor, 1991), which is also
somewhat comparable to this study and Aronson (1986).

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334 The apparent stability of octopus density over time conflicts with fluctuations in density 335 observed in in other octopus species (Katsanevakis and Verriopoulos, 2006), although our 336 observation of stability is only made based upon the two data points available. It is possible that 337 the SPE population is simply tightly linked to stable ecosystem variables as is commonplace in 338 lake systems (Adrian et al., 2009). It was expected that the population would display transient 339 population dynamics because of an observation of anomalously early and unsuccessful egg 340 brooding in August 1982 (Aronson, 1986) and such populations display the potential for high amplification and attenuation (transient increase and decrease in population size/density 341 342 respectively) when demographic parameters or vital rates are perturbed (Stott et al., 2010). Octopus briareus within the SPE fulfil these dynamics due to the species' ~1-year lifespan 343 344 (Hanlon, 1977; Roper et al., 1984) and 60-day development time of eggs (Aronson, 1989) in a 345 system susceptible to change. However, with similar densities observed in 2019, it is unlikely to 346 be an anomalous event, although the drivers of the unsuccessful system wide egg brooding, 347 observed in 1982, are still unrevealed. This being said, it is appropriate to consider likely drivers/ 348 maintainers of SPE octopus density to support management decisions regarding the site.

350 Vital rates are typically perturbed by density dependent effects (Ray and Hastings, 1996) acting 351 upon ecosystem variables that the population is correlated with: e.g. abiotic factors, predation 352 rate and prey and habitat availability. The environmental characteristics of the system assessed 353 by Masonjones et al. (2019) indicate seasonal and spatial differences in surface temperature and 354 salinity. Temperature in particular is a key environmental driver in altering cephalopod ontogeny 355 (Rosa et al., 2012), with embryonic and juvenile stages being most susceptible; for example, a 3 356 °C increase in temperature compared to the local mean, is sufficient to increase mortality in O. 357 vulgaris juveniles by ~30% under laboratory conditions (Repolho et al., 2014). The surface 358 temperature during this study did not range more than 1.2 $^{\circ}$ C above the seasonal average (~32 $^{\circ}$ 359 versus 30.8 °C in Masonjones et al. 2019) making it unlikely to have altered octopus density. 360 Additionally, the literature consensus is that salinity has minimal influence on Octopus mortality 361 with multiple species displaying euryhaline traits: e.g. O. vulgaris (Delgado et al., 2011) and O. 362 ocellatus (Sakamoto et al., 2015).

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364 Other environmental factors that may drive patterns in octopus density and spatial distribution 365 result from anthropogenic incursion. This is exemplified by increased public traffic to this 366 ecosystem and the apparent harvesting of seahorses, octopus and crabs for use in the aquarium trade and subsistence fishing. Moreover, the construction of a large commercial dry dock 367 368 enterprise in the neighbouring community of Hatchet Bay (~1 mile to the south-east) has the 369 potential to induce ecotoxicity and anoxic changes. Hatchet Bay was a similar lake to Sweetings 370 Pond until the 1920s, when it was exposed to the marine environment for use as a semi-natural 371 harbour. Therefore, it displays the same geological topography as Sweetings Pond (Masonjones 372 et al., in prep.) and feasibly supports subterranean connectivity. This may lead to the transfer of heavy metals and antifouling compounds into the susceptible SPE. The additive effect of such 373 374 pollution with litter associated with tourist traffic is known to induce mortality in aquatic

organisms, alter their distribution (Koelmans *et al.*, 2013, Roldan-Wong *et al.*, 2018) and
feasibly is relevant here. Expanding peripheral agriculture (2 ha yr⁻¹ from 2010 – Masonjones,
unpubl. data) and the associated nitrogenous compound runoff will alter oxygen availability
changes as consistently shown in isolated water bodies (Jeppesen and Søndergaard, 1991;
Jeppesen *et al.*, 2009). Future studies should therefore focus on ecotoxicity thresholds for this
species in order to provide baseline information pertaining to ecotoxicological influence on
confined ecosystems.

382

383 Alternatively, Sweetings Pond has been suggested as undergoing a mesopredator release 384 (Aronson and Harms, 1985) where the absence of traditional apex predators enforces changes in 385 the ecosystem's trophodynamics. Whilst no apex predators were likely ever present in sufficient 386 densities to exert top down control, their absence in Sweetings Pond has enabled traditional 387 mesopredators such as O. briareus, redfin needlefish, Strongylura notata, and West Indian spider 388 crab, Maguimithrax spinosissimus, to inhabit the highest trophic levels (Aronson and Harms, 389 2085, Masonjones, pers. obs). The resulting trophodynamics of this scenario are analogous to 390 those of mesopredator release in open marine environments. The densities observed in this study 391 weaken this theory as octopus density is similar between the Sweetings Pond O. briareus 392 population and coastal O. vulgaris populations, then mesopredator release can be playing no role 393 in increasing density within Sweetings Pond. However, rather than density being driven up by 394 such a release, the lack of predation on O. briareus may leave the population to be regulated by 395 their cannibalistic tendencies (Aronson, 1989; Ibanez and Keyl, 2010). If cannibalism is only 396 considered in the direct sense ('energy gain'), then theory predicts that cannibalism may produce 397 population cycles and possibly chaos in the absence of other density dependent effects (Claessen 398 et al., 2004; Ibanez and Keyl, 2010). The ~1-year lifespan of O. briareus prevents the 399 opportunity for adults to prey on the young-of-the-year, violating the assumptions of the

400 alternative attractor state of population stability, based upon cannibalism as a density stabiliser 401 (Cushing, 1992). Despite no cannibalism events being observed in this study, the combination of 402 theory with Aronson's (1989) 6 direct observations of O. briareus cannibalism, suggests that 403 cannibalism is a driver of octopus population dynamics within the SPE. 404 405 The diversity of potential drivers influencing Octopus abundance in Sweetings Pond further 406 highlights the challenge of establishing robust and effective management decisions regarding this 407 species. This is particularly true at a temporal scale, with this study the first to provide updated 408 estimates and make comparisons to historic data to facilitate future monitoring of an important 409 indicator species. Further study is ultimately required to investigate the relative influence of each 410 of the previously suggested drivers and their synergistic interactions; interactions vital when 411 assessing system responses to change (Crain et al., 2008). 412 4.2 Octopus briareus Spatial Distribution 413 414 415 The spatial distribution of *O. briareus* within the SPE was solely predicted by prey availability 416 and calcareous rubble (CR) cover. Many bivalve species recruit to empty shells which act as 417 solid substrate in the absence of other alternatives (Fulford et al., 2011; Clements et al., 2018). In 418 the patch zone of the SPE, empty shells (i.e. CR) represent the sole pool of potential substrate. It 419 is therefore unsurprising that it and prey item cover predict octopus encounter rates. Multiple 420 studies highlight how prey abundance and distribution drive marine predator abundance (Wirsing 421 et al., 2007, Navarro et al., 2016) and it is in areas of high CR that prey bivalves aggregate and 422 O. briareus are more likely to be encountered.

423

424 There were two unexpected results highlighted in the spatial analysis of octopus, although these 425 conclusions should be qualified as being based upon 17 octopus sightings and a limited temporal 426 dataset. Firstly, that human influence and distance to public access points have no measurable 427 influence on octopus density. This indicates that current levels of anthropogenic disturbance are 428 insufficient to exclude octopus from disturbed areas and as such, little management is required 429 considering the O. briareus population in isolation. However, as the intensity of disturbance is 430 increasing and conclusions can currently only be drawn over the limited temporal scale presented 431 here, repeat monitoring is necessary. Tipping points are common in marine ecosystems (Selkoe 432 et al., 2015) and it is difficult to predict the precise amount of stress required to trigger a cascade. 433 Consequently, there is also a need to monitor water quality in the SPE.

434

The second unexpected result is that total natural den number is negatively associated with octopus abundance in count models. Increasing the availability of a habitat or resource typically promotes the abundance of an organism that utilises it (Recer *et al.*, 1987; Grand and Grant, 1994, Lambert *et al.*, 2006). Here, as natural dens negatively correlate with depth, dens may be localised in areas non-optimal for octopus colonisation, be that due to lack of prey or poor habitat quality. Similarly, whilst colonised dens primarily consisted of sponges, sponge abundance was not represented in the top six optimal models

442

There is also the possibility that adult octopus are cryptically colonising crevices under the rock ledges of the lake edge, rather than searching for dens in the exposed areas of the patch zone randomly sampled in this study. This would cause an artefact where fewer adult octopus were encountered in natural dens than expected due to the inaccessibility of these spaces and low probability of a randomly sampled quadrat bordering the lake edge. The limited access under

- these ledges on standard SCUBA may be mitigated by alternative methods, including the use ofcave diving equipment or baited remote underwater video (BRUV).
- 450

451 <u>4.3 Management Implications</u>

452

453 Sweetings Pond is recognised by the government of The Bahamas as having ecological 454 significance (Bahamas National Trust, 2018), so much so that the conservation value of this site 455 is acknowledged in a global context. A status as one of the most intriguing and important marine 456 lakes in The Bahamas, has been justified through prominent research conducted over the last five 457 years (Rose et al., 2016; Masonjones et al., 2019). Anchialine systems, as unique habitats, 458 function as natural laboratories (Gonzalez et al., 2011, Hoffman et al., 2019) that allow the 459 testing of hypotheses concerning speciation, population dynamics and behaviour, and therefore, 460 any management effort targeting the SPE should attempt to minimise disturbance if use of the 461 system as a natural laboratory is to be continued. Tourist traffic in particular should be a major 462 focus due to its rapid increase, unpredictable effects in anchialine systems, and as its control will 463 simultaneously alleviate the frequency of subsistence fishing.

464

From an impact perspective, the observed abundance of natural dens within the SPE implies that 465 466 Aronson's (1986) suggestion of natural den limitation in the SPE is unlikely, especially as there 467 is no consensus as to whether dens are limiting for many Octopus species and locations. For 468 example, Mather (1982) determined dens were indirectly limiting for the Atlantic pygmy 469 octopus, Octopus joubini, whereas the opposite was true for Mediterranean O. vulgaris (Guerra 470 et al., 2014). Our elaboration upon the framework provided by Aronson (1986; 1989) can simultaneously clarify this consensus and promote Sweetings Pond as a model insular system, 471 472 something that is currently lacking in the Bahamas, as well as the wider regional context.

476 Additionally, the lack of environmental data available for the SPE hinders holistic management 477 decisions. An understanding of temporal or spatial changes in environmental conditions and 478 species distributions are vital for long term planning (Samhouri et al., 2010). For example, for 479 the conservation of O. briareus, the protection and maintenance of the local bivalve populations 480 (P. radiata, C. elevata and Mytilopsis spp.) is vital as these act as both prey and habitat, 481 consequently correlating with octopus abundance across the SPE. Chemical pollution from 482 antifouling paints induce larval mortality in bivalves (Ruiz et al., 1995), heavy metals supress the 483 temperature tolerance of Ostreida oysters (Lannig et al., 2006) and bioaccumulation of 484 microplastics is evident in multiple species globally (Sussarellu et al., 2016, Su et al., 2018). 485 Each of these effects are probable in Sweetings Pond yet in the absence of environmental 486 monitoring it is hard to estimate their impacts.

487

488 In conclusion, this study has demonstrated that the SPE octopus population displays consistent 489 population density with their abundance predicted by prey and habitat availability, reiterating the 490 ecological and evolutionary importance of Sweetings Pond and how minimisation of further 491 human disturbance is necessary to maintain its current status. A 'reference' approach is required 492 (Johnes et al., 1994), establishing environmental standards of baseline lake conditions to be 493 defined for future monitoring. Viable management strategies therefore include: limiting the 494 timings and locations that visitors can access the SPE, guided by the seasonal and spatial use of 495 O. briareus, control/catchment of visitor and agricultural nutrients/chemicals to minimise water 496 quality degradation and licensing of tour operators to prevent overexploitation. Conservation of 497 O. briareus as charismatic species in the SPE can then act as a platform to mould the entire site

498	into a burgeoning experimental system for anchialine and insular marine environments similar to
499	Wytham Woods, Oxford for passerine birds (Savill et al., 2011) or Lake Victoria for cichlid fish
500	(Seehausen et al., 2008). As a result, The Bahamas has the opportunity to formalise the
501	protection of a unique ecosystem and promote it as a conservation site of important evolutionary
502	research and pride for local people.
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518	Glossary
519	Anchialine – tidally-influenced subterranean estuary, facilitated by karst and volcanic terrains,
520	that enables the penetration of seawater inland.
521	
522	Patch zone – a discrete benthic region encompassing the periphery of Sweetings Pond that
523	consists of sponge, coral formations, bivalve clumps and calcareous rubble.
524	
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