

1 **Modeling the Effects of Water Management Actions on Suitable Habitat and**
2 **Abundance of a Critically Imperiled Estuarine Fish (Delta Smelt *Hypomesus***
3 ***transpacificus*)**

4
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19 **Abstract:** The opportunity to manage estuarine inflow to benefit imperiled fishes was
20 tested by modeling the likely effects for delta smelt (*Hypomesus transpacificus*).
21 Endemic solely to the euryhaline portion of the San Francisco Estuary, delta smelt is a
22 small, annual species that is on the verge of extinction. During autumn when delta smelt
23 are nearing adulthood, the amount of suitable abiotic habitat is positively associated with
24 estuarine inflow and has a measurable effect on recruitment of juveniles the following
25 summer. Long-term declines in delta smelt abundance have coincided with a decline in
26 the area of suitable abiotic habitat. Simulations based on a set of linked models for the
27 abundance of pre-adult and subsequent juvenile delta smelt showed that management
28 strategies allowing either (1) randomly occurring or (2) variable but persistently high
29 estuarine inflow produced higher abundance than scenarios of (3) variable but peristantly
30 low or (4) non-variable median inflow. Our results suggest managing estuarine inflow
31 offers one possible tool to help assist the conservation of imperiled fish species by
32 enhancing habitat space and other beneficial ecological processes.

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36 Introduction

37 Human-caused habitat degradation represents a major threat to biota across the globe
38 (Turner 1996; Hoekstra et al. 2005; Dobson et al. 2006). The problem is exemplified in
39 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems alike. A major problem for aquatic systems is that
40 demands for water often conflict between services provided to the environment and to
41 humans (Richter et al. 1997; Freeman et al. 2001). Effective conservation and
42 management of aquatic resources in the face of increasing development requires
43 understanding how development affects abiotic habitat and how abiotic habitat suitability
44 affects populations of fish and invertebrates. Fundamental ecological theory suggests a
45 correlation between habitat area and the number of species or individuals (MacArthur and
46 Wilson 1967; Williamson 1981; Begon et al. 1996). Reasons that area can support more
47 species or individuals include increased habitat diversity and resource availability, and
48 reduced probability of extinction.

49 The ubiquity of species- or individuals-area relationships in ecology has focused
50 much conservation-oriented research on defining the habitat of organisms and how
51 habitat manipulations affect abundance. Reviews on this topic have confirmed that
52 habitat loss and degradation is a major factor in the loss of species worldwide (Wilcove et
53 al. 1998; Brooks et al. 2002). As a consequence, tools to quantify the amount of area for
54 species based on habitat suitability remain popular among many resource managers
55 (Reiser et al. 1989; Layher and Brunson 1992; Johnson and Swift 2000). However
56 applying such techniques in estuaries is difficult because habitat suitability is dynamic in
57 space and time on tidal, seasonal, and annual time scales (Kimmerer 2002; Feyrer et al.
58 2007).

59 Animals with annual life cycles and limited distributions are particularly
60 vulnerable to habitat loss or degradation. Such characteristics can lead to extreme risk of
61 extinction from both pulse perturbations such as unusual or catastrophic events, and press
62 perturbations such as steady long-term habitat degradation. The case of delta smelt
63 (*Hypomesus transpacificus*), a species on the brink of extinction, exemplifies such a risk.
64 Delta smelt is an annual fish species endemic solely to the euryhaline segment of the San
65 Francisco Estuary (Moyle et al. 1992; Bennett 2005). Formerly one of the more abundant
66 fishes in the estuary, a long-term decline - plus recent years with record - low indices of
67 abundance - led federal (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service) and state (California
68 Department of Fish and Game, CDFG) authorities to list the species as threatened with
69 extinction (Moyle 2002).

70 There are many interacting factors that affect the abundance of delta smelt,
71 including the effects of lowered adult stock, changes in the abundance and composition
72 of prey, predation, and water diversions (Moyle 2002; Bennett 2005; Sommer et al. 2007;
73 Feyrer et al. 2007). Recent studies have identified habitat degradation as a key factor
74 likely to be important in the long-term decline (Bennett 2005; Feyrer et al. 2007; Nobriga
75 et al. 2008). In particular, abiotic habitat conditions for delta smelt have deteriorated
76 over time in much of the estuary during both summer for juveniles (Nobriga et al. 2008)
77 and autumn for maturing individuals (Feyrer et al. 2007), which we term "pre-adults".
78 Summer habitat degradation has restricted juvenile delta smelt distribution (Nobriga et al.
79 2008), while autumn habitat degradation likely also affects the fitness of pre-adults,
80 which may have exacerbated the effects of lowered stock since the mid-1980s (Feyrer et
81 al. 2007).

82 The grave situation for delta smelt exemplifies the elevating worldwide problem
83 of balancing water resources between ecosystems and growing human populations. San
84 Francisco Estuary is highly modified and managed to supply water to over 25 million
85 people as well as a multibillion-dollar agricultural industry (Nichols et al. 1986). Control
86 of the estuary's hydrodynamics and water exports are closely tied to protecting delta
87 smelt on a daily basis during substantial portions of the year, but this has not prevented
88 long-term decline in estuarine fish including delta smelt (Sommer et al. 2007). Conflicts
89 between the needs of humans and those of the estuarine environment for a limited amount
90 of freshwater received international attention recently when water exports were
91 dramatically reduced by court order to protect delta smelt (Service 2007; Sommer et al.
92 2007). The concern triggered by this event illustrates the pressing need to base water
93 management decisions on sound science. At the most fundamental level this requires
94 understanding how management activities affect estuarine biota. Hence, our primary
95 objective herein was to evaluate whether estuarine inflow can be managed as a
96 conservation measure to benefit delta smelt habitat and abundance. Our basic approach
97 was to expand upon our recent descriptive modeling of delta smelt habitat (Feyrer et al.
98 2007) by (1) determining how suitable abiotic habitat is affected by estuarine inflow, (2)
99 how, in turn, suitable abiotic habitat affects abundance, and (3) modeling the likely
100 effects of several estuarine inflow scenarios on the future abundance of delta smelt. Our
101 results will immediately enable resource managers to consider the effects of water project
102 operations on this imperiled fish species, and therefore aid real-world decisions about
103 allocating a limited resource between humans and the environment.

104

105 Methods

106 The first step in our analyses involved updating our recent descriptive modeling of delta
107 smelt habitat (Feyrer et al. 2007) with two years of new data (2005 and 2006). We used a
108 generalized additive model (GAM) to determine how three water quality variables
109 measured during fish sampling – temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), Secchi depth (m), and specific
110 conductance ($\mu\text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$) – affect the presence of delta smelt (Feyrer et al. 2007). The data
111 analyzed originate from a midwater trawl survey conducted during autumn at 100 stations
112 across the estuary by CDFG (Stevens and Miller 1983). We used a binary response
113 (presence or absence) rather than a measure of abundance to minimize the influence of
114 outliers (i.e., extremely anomalous abundance values) and bias associated with previously
115 reported abundance declines through time. Recent simulations based on assumed
116 underlying distributions suggest that habitat curves based on presence-absence are
117 conservative relative to catch per trawl because high frequencies of occurrence could be
118 associated with both high and moderate catch per trawl (Kimmerer et al. 2008). We
119 evaluated models by traditional statistical significance and approximate coefficients of
120 determination which describe how each independent variable reduces the null deviance in
121 the model.

122 The second step of our analyses involved translating the GAM-generated
123 occurrence probabilities into a measure of surface area (ha) of suitable abiotic habitat.
124 Because the occurrence probability values range from 0.0 to 1.0, this translation required
125 setting criteria which define suitable abiotic habitat within that range. Rather than setting
126 a single arbitrary value, we chose an approach analogous to a model sensitivity analysis
127 by evaluating three different values representing a range of increasingly strict criteria.

128 The values we selected (≥ 0.10 , ≥ 0.25 , and ≥ 0.40) approximately bracketed the
129 frequency distribution of the 12,874 values for each sample generated by the GAM;
130 values for the median and third quartile were 0.11 and 0.31, respectively. We used a
131 subset of 62 of the 100 sampling stations for this analysis, excluding stations on the
132 periphery of the sampling grid where delta smelt were rarely encountered or where the
133 sampling record was inconsistent. Total surface area of suitable abiotic habitat was the
134 sum of the 62 individual surface areas representing each sampling station in which the
135 criteria were met. The surface areas represented by these stations were obtained from
136 CDFG and are shown in our previous study (Feyrer et al. 2007). Individual surface areas
137 for each station ranged from 90 to 1,251 ha, with a total of 18,781 ha. In a few instances
138 of missing environmental observations, the spatial autocorrelation in the data (i.e.,
139 conditions at adjacent stations were similar) permitted us to fill blanks with data from
140 immediately adjacent stations (Feyrer et al. 2007).

141 The third step of our analyses was to describe the relationship between the total
142 amount of suitable abiotic habitat and freshwater flow. We plotted these variables and
143 used locally weighted regression scatterplot smoothing (LOWESS) to develop data-
144 driven curves defining the relationships. We used the position of the 2‰ isohaline
145 (termed X2) as an indicator of estuarine inflow. X2 is defined as the distance (km) from
146 the Golden Gate to the location in the estuary where mean bottom salinity is 2‰ (Jassby
147 et al. 1995). Because the position of X2 has ecological relevance with positive
148 correlations to the abundance or survival of numerous estuarine biota (Jassby et al. 1995;
149 Kimmerer 2002), it is an important regulatory tool used to manage inflows in San
150 Francisco Estuary. Although previous analyses have not shown simple relationships

151 between X2 and delta smelt abundance (Jassby et al. 1995; Kimmerer 2002; Bennett
152 2005), recent studies have identified links between estuarine salinity and recruitment of
153 juveniles (Feyrer et al. 2007). Moreover, X2 clearly affects the spatial distribution of
154 delta smelt in the estuary. For this analysis, we plotted X2 position averaged from
155 September to December against the three scenarios of total surface area of suitable
156 habitat. Consistent with our previous study (Feyrer et al. 2007), we focused on the entire
157 four month autumn period to avoid issues surrounding the aliasing of the sampling data
158 that occurs at shorter temporal scales because samples are taken irrespective of tidal
159 conditions across a geographic region with large tidal excursions. Furthermore, from a
160 management perspective, manipulating X2 at shorter temporal scales is particularly
161 challenging.

162 The forth step of our analyses was to determine the effect of habitat on delta smelt
163 abundance. In this analysis, we tested the hypothesis that the combined effects of pre-
164 adult abundance and the amount of suitable abiotic habitat (or X2) during autumn affect
165 recruit abundance the following summer. The abundance indices we used for these
166 models were obtained from CDFG and are available at <http://www.delta.dfg.ca.gov/>.
167 Similar to previous studies (Moyle et al. 1992; Bennett 2005; Feyrer et al. 2007), we used
168 the fall midwater trawl abundance index as an estimate of pre-adult (spawning stock)
169 abundance and the summer townet abundance index as an estimate of recruit abundance.
170 The base model was a simple linear regression of pre-adult stock versus recruit
171 abundance. We then evaluated additional models which included fall stock abundance
172 and one of the three habitat area estimates or mean autumn X2 position. We ran the
173 regressions for all years combined and separated the time series into two segments, 1968-

174 1986 and 1987-2007. Similar to our previous study (Feyrer et al. 2007), separation of the
175 two time periods allowed us to examine the role of suitable abiotic habitat area during
176 periods of high and low food abundance in the estuary. This time point captures an
177 ecological change in the food web of the estuary stemming from the invasion of the
178 overbite clam *Corbula amurensis* (Kimmerer 2002). We compared models within each
179 series by traditional means (level of statistical significance and comparison of r-squared
180 values), and evaluated the relative fit of each model with an information-theoretic
181 approach based upon Akaike's information criterion (AIC). We further evaluated the fit
182 of significant regression models by visually examining residual plots for homogeneity of
183 variance and used the Anderson-Darling test to determine if the residuals were normally
184 distributed.

185 The fifth and final step of our analyses was to model the likely effects of various
186 management scenarios of estuarine inflow on the future abundance of delta smelt.
187 Modeling the effects of environmental factors on population dynamics can take many
188 forms from simple stock-recruit models (Hilborn and Walters 1992) to extremely
189 complex state-space models (Thomas et al. 2005). Delta smelt has an annual life cycle
190 and exhibits statistically significant relationships between both pre-adult to juvenile and
191 juvenile to pre-adult abundance (Bennett 2005; Feyrer et al. 2007). A set of linked
192 models for the abundance of pre-adult and juvenile delta smelt were formulated and fit to
193 assess the effect (on abundance) of manipulating X2 during autumn. The general
194 formulation is as follows:

$$195 \quad j_t = f(\text{pre-adult}_{t-1}, X2_{t-1}, \beta, \varepsilon_t)$$

$$196 \quad \text{pre-adult}_t = g(j_t, \gamma, \eta_t),$$

197 where j_t is the abundance of juveniles in year t , $pre - adult_t$ is the abundance of pre-
 198 adults, and $X2_t$ is the X2 value, β and γ are vectors of parameters, and ε_t and η_t are
 199 random variables. As above, summer townet survey indices and the fall midwater trawl
 200 indices are the observations for juveniles and pre-adults, respectively.

201 To ensure that predicted values would not be negative, lognormal distributions
 202 were assumed for both juvenile and pre-adult abundance. For juveniles, a linear
 203 relationship with previous year pre-adults and previous year X2 values was fit (see step
 204 four above and in results). We assumed density dependent effects on the survival of
 205 juveniles (Bennett 2005), so we used Ricker Ricker and Beverton-Holt type models to
 206 predict pre-adult abundance from juvenile abundance (Bennett 2005). Based on AIC, the
 207 Ricker model was slightly better than the Beverton-Holt, and both were significantly
 208 better than linear (density independent) models. The resulting models fit were:

$$209 \quad j_t : \text{Lognormal}(\ln[\beta_0 + \beta_1 pre - adult_{t-1} + \beta_2 X2_{t-1}], \sigma_\varepsilon^2) \quad (1)$$

$$210 \quad pre - adult_t : \text{Lognormal}(\ln[\gamma_0 j_t \exp(-\gamma_1 pa_t)], \sigma_\eta^2) \quad (2)$$

211 AD Model Builder (ADMB; Otter Research) was used to calculate maximum
 212 likelihood estimates and associated standard errors of the seven parameters (β_0 , β_1 , β_2 ,
 213 σ_ε , γ_0 , γ_1 , and σ_η). As a technical aside, there is a constraint that the median of the
 214 lognormal distribution is positive, i.e., $\beta_0 + \beta_1 pre - adult_{t-1} + \beta_2 X2_{t-1} > 0$ and
 215 $\gamma_0 j_t \exp(-\gamma_1 j_t) > 0$. This constraint must be met for all values of the covariates
 216 ($pre - adult_{t-1}$, $X2_{t-1}$, and j_t) and finding suitable initial values for the optimization
 217 algorithm was critical. To do so, the two models were fit separately first, with initial
 218 values for the β 's in the juvenile model (1) coming from a normal approximation fit

219 (Table 2). The standard error for the X2 coefficient (β_2) in the juvenile model is large
220 relative to the point estimate; thus while the point estimate is negative, indicating that
221 juvenile abundance decreases as X2 increases, the degree of uncertainty about the
222 relationship is relatively high. Thus, the expected values for the pre-adult model tended
223 to be overestimates of the lower values and underestimates of the higher values.

224 We considered four different management scenarios based on X2: (1) Scenario 1
225 (random); X2 varies randomly according to its historical distribution of values, 1967-
226 2007 (2) Scenario 2 (static): X2 is constant and equals the median historical value, (3)
227 Scenario 3 (random high): X2 varies randomly according to the historical distribution of
228 values at or above the median historical value, (4) Scenario 4 (random low): X2 varies
229 randomly according the historical distribution of values at or below the median historical
230 value. In all cases the historical distribution of X2 values was based upon the period
231 1967 through 2007.

232 To evaluate the effects of these four scenarios, abundances were simulated using
233 two stages of randomization. First, uncertainty in the parameter values was simulated by
234 generating β 's and γ 's from two multivariate normal distributions with mean vectors
235 equal to the maximum likelihood estimates and covariance matrices based on the
236 standard errors and correlation matrix (Table 2). According to large sample theory,
237 maximum likelihood estimates are approximately multivariate normal. Second, given
238 these simulated parameter values, a simulated sequence of 50 years of X2 values
239 (simulated according to each scenario), and an initial adult abundance, two time series of
240 juvenile and pre-adult abundances were simulated forward in time, 10,000 times, using

241 the lognormal distributions (equations 1 and 2), alternating between simulation of
242 juveniles and pre-adults.

243 A practical complication was the fact that values of the β 's and the γ 's simulated
244 from the multivariate normal distributions do not necessarily satisfy the condition that the
245 median values of the lognormal distributions remain positive for all combinations of
246 covariates. Once a median value went negative, the future time series could not be
247 projected forward; one could make an argument that the frequency of times that such an
248 event occurred was a prediction of the probability of extinction. However, such events
249 were also a function of uncertainty of parameter values. The percentage of times that
250 projections led to negative abundances varied considerably between scenarios. For
251 Scenario 1 (random), about 54% of the projections went negative, while for Scenario 2
252 (static) it was about 23%, for Scenario 3 (random high) it was about 52%, and for
253 Scenario 4 (random low) it was about 33%. However, the probability of negative
254 abundances was largely a function of uncertainty in the parameter values as increasing
255 the initial number of adult fish in the fall, even to 1,000, did not noticeably affect the
256 probabilities. If uncertainty in the parameter estimates is ignored, i.e., the maximum
257 likelihood estimates are treated as constants, then the probability of negative abundances
258 is 0% for Scenarios 1 (random) and 3 (random high) and about 12% for Scenarios 2
259 (static) and 4 (random low).

260

261 **Results**

262 The GAM results indicated that water temperature, Secchi depth, and specific
263 conductance were all statistically significant predictors of the occurrence of delta smelt

264 (P -values < 0.05). Individually, specific conductance accounted for the most deviance
265 (18.3%), followed by Secchi depth (13.1), and temperature (0.1%). Although
266 temperature was a statistically significant variable, we excluded it from our final model
267 because it accounted for negligible deviance. Our final model included specific
268 conductance and Secchi depth and captured 25.3% of the deviance in the data set. The
269 response predictions generated by this model exhibited a unimodal trend against specific
270 conductance and a negative trend against Secchi depth, indicating that delta smelt was
271 most likely to occur at intermediate salinity (~2 ppt) with low water transparency (Figure
272 1).

273 The three different criteria for suitable abiotic habitat expectedly produced
274 different values for total surface area (medians for each time series: 0.10 = 14,109 ha;
275 0.25 = 8,059 ha; 0.40 = 3,532 ha) but exhibited very similar long-term trends and were
276 were all significantly correlated with each another (Pearson correlation coefficients \geq
277 0.85, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 2). Since about 2000, each time series had values consistently
278 well below their long-term medians. This had also occurred during a period from about
279 the mid 1980s to early 1990s, and also in 1976-1977. The first two of these instances
280 corresponded with droughts while the most recent instance occurred during wetter
281 hydrologic conditions.

282 Surface area for each of the three different criteria of suitable abiotic habitat
283 exhibited negative relationships with X2 (Figure 2). This indicates that under each
284 criterion the total surface area of suitable abiotic habitat for delta smelt increased when
285 X2 was closer to the Golden Gate. The LOWESS Curves for the two most stringent
286 abiotic habitat scenarios (0.40 and 0.25) were approximately sigmoidal, with surface area

287 responding primarily to X2 between approximately 65 and 85 km. The curve for the least
288 stringent abiotic habitat criterion (0.10) exhibited a more smooth logarithmic shape, with
289 a similar asymptote but with an immediate response to X2 position.

290 The results of the stock-recruit modeling support the hypothesis that the amount
291 of available habitat has affected delta smelt abundance during 1987-2007 (Table 1).
292 None of the regression models for the entire study period, nor the 1968-1986 period, were
293 statistically significant ($P > 0.05$). However, all 1987-2007 models were statistically
294 significant ($P < 0.004$). Based upon r-squared and AIC values (Table 1), the models
295 ranked from worst to best in the following order: stock, stock + 0.10, stock + 0.25, stock
296 + 0.40, stock + X2. The highest AIC-ranked model, stock + X2, accounted for 66% of
297 the variability in recruit abundance, with the next best model accounting for 61%. The
298 residuals for this model were normally distributed (Anderson-Darling P-value = 0.21) and
299 exhibited no distinct trend versus time or the predicted values, indicating a linear fit was
300 appropriate.

301 The modeling simulations indicated that Scenario 4, where the X2 values vary at
302 random but below the historical median, yielded the highest autumn abundances after
303 projecting 50 years into the future (Figure 3). Median abundance for this scenario was an
304 order of magnitude greater than that which has occurred during the recent years of record
305 lows and is near the median value for 1987-2007. Scenario 1 (random X2) provided a
306 similar range of values but with a lower median. Scenario 2 (static) and Scenario 3
307 (random high) had median values much lower than Scenarios 1 and 4.

308

309

310 Discussion

311 Simulation models are not expected to provide accurate and precise predictions of future
312 population dynamics (Rose 2000). Rather, they allow, in this case, to compare the
313 relative effects of different inflow management strategies on future abundance of delta
314 smelt. Explicit in this approach is the assumption that the relationships developed for the
315 model hold true in the future. The degree to which this actually happens is uncertain
316 given that San Francisco Estuary is the most highly invaded and managed estuary in the
317 world (Nichols et al. 1986; Service 2007). Future changes to climate may also have
318 important consequences on spring-summer water temperatures and water supply, which
319 could affect the ability to manage estuarine inflows to benefit delta smelt (King et al.
320 1999; Jones et al. 2006). Nonetheless, our results clearly demonstrate the importance of
321 abiotic habitat to the persistence of delta smelt given its current population dynamics.
322 The best way to deal with future changes in the ecosystem is to maintain an adaptive
323 management approach, whereby the relative importance of abiotic habitat, as well as
324 other factors, can be reevaluated as needed.

325 Our results suggest that managing estuarine inflow via freshwater flow or X2
326 during autumn can have positive effects on delta smelt habitat and abundance. These
327 results are somewhat different than that for habitat conditions during spring, when delta
328 smelt are spawning and in their larval stages. Freshwater habitat volume based on
329 salinity is somewhat affected by variation in the position of X2 during spring (Kimmerer
330 et al. 2008), but delta smelt is one of the few low-salinity zone species in the estuary that
331 has not covaried with spring X2 (Jassby et al. 1995; Kimmerer 2002; Bennett 2005).
332 This contrast is a consequence of the different life stages and distribution patterns of delta

333 smelt during autumn and spring. In autumn, delta smelt are pre-adults distributed
334 downstream in broad channels and expansive bays at the western-most portion of their
335 range. However, during spring they are distributed upstream primarily in smaller
336 freshwater channels at the eastern-most portion of their range where adults spawn and
337 juveniles rear before migrating downstream in summer (Moyle et al. 1992; Dege and
338 Brown 2004). Whereas salinity in the broad downstream channels and bays during
339 autumn is greatly influenced by X2, the narrow relatively homogeneous upstream
340 channels where delta smelt spawn during spring are typically well upstream of X2 where
341 the amount of habitat may not vary substantially. Potential mechanisms for the observed
342 effect in autumn are several fold, although none have been directly studied. First,
343 positioning X2 seaward during autumn provides a larger habitat area which presumably
344 lessens the likelihood of density-dependent effects (e.g., food availability) on the delta
345 smelt population. For example, food availability during autumn for adult haddock
346 (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*) likely improves juvenile recruitment the following year
347 (Friedland et al. 2008). Second, a more confined distribution may increase the
348 probability of stochastic events that increase mortality rates of adults. For delta smelt,
349 this includes both predation, as well as anthropogenic effects such as contaminants or
350 water diversion loss (Sommer et al. 2007).

351 A key question regarding the immediate applicability of our study is whether delta
352 smelt is currently habitat limited given its extremely low abundance. Our results strongly
353 suggest that delta smelt are habitat limited over the long term. Comparing the first ten
354 years of the time series to the last ten years, the amount of suitable abiotic habitat for
355 delta smelt during autumn has decreased anywhere from 28% to 78%, based upon the

356 least and most restrictive habitat definitions, respectively (Figure 2). Our previous
357 studies have demonstrated that the majority of this habitat loss has occurred along the
358 periphery, limiting the distribution of delta smelt mainly to a core region in the vicinity of
359 the confluence of the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers (Feyrer et al. 2007; Nobriga et
360 al. 2008). Concurrently, delta smelt abundance as measured by the fall midwater trawl
361 has decreased by 63%. Determining the extent to which delta smelt is habitat limited at
362 any given point in time is dependent upon having a full understanding of all factors
363 affecting delta smelt and their relative importance, an exceptionally difficult task.

364 Optimal management requires consideration of both habitat space and the
365 ecological processes which allow populations to expand (Levin and Stunz 2005);
366 managing the position of X2 accomplishes both of these goals. The weight of evidence
367 suggests that abiotic habitat constriction is at least one of the primary factors affecting
368 delta smelt. Effects of salinity on estuarine organisms was a large part of the rationale for
369 the development of springtime X2 standards in the San Francisco estuary (Jassby et al.
370 1995; Kimmerer 2002). Our results indicate that managing habitat via X2 during autumn
371 would likely provide additional benefits to the delta smelt population. Specifically, our
372 simulations of different potential management scenarios suggest that manipulations of
373 autumn X2 could result in substantially different population levels of delta smelt.
374 However, because the specific mechanisms by which X2 affects delta smelt remain
375 poorly understood, “real world” applications of these results should incorporate an
376 adaptive management approach, allowing resource manager to adjust actions in response
377 to new data collected on delta smelt habitat conditions and use.

378 In summary, estuarine fish populations and their habitats are under increasing
379 pressure from human population growth and associated development. In the San
380 Francisco Estuary, the ability to manipulate freshwater inflows and diversions provides a
381 real opportunity to manipulate abiotic habitat for the benefit of an imperiled species.
382 With such actions, it is also important to consider the costs to other ecosystem services
383 expected by humans. One such example is that the benefits to delta smelt may have to be
384 balanced against costs to upstream habitats for salmonids, which may be affected by
385 reservoir releases needed to manipulate X2. The relative success of this approach
386 depends on our ability to learn from evaluations of different management actions, and to
387 address major data gaps in our understanding of the basic biology of rare fishes such as
388 delta smelt.

389

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489 Table 1. Regression statistics for stock-recruit models for the 1987-2006 time period.
 490 The models were based on delta smelt catch in the fall midwater trawl (FMT), three
 491 different levels of GAM habitat suitability criteria (>0.10 , >0.25 , >0.40), and X2 position

492

| 493 | Constant | FMT | ≥ 0.10 | ≥ 0.25 | ≥ 0.40 | X2 | <i>P</i> | <i>r</i> ² | AIC |
|-----|----------|--------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------|----------|-----------------------|------|
| 494 | 28.4 | 0.0077 | | | | -0.323 | <0.001 | 0.66 | 34.2 |
| 495 | -0.29 | 0.0066 | | | 0.0008 | | <0.001 | 0.61 | 39.2 |
| 496 | -1.32 | 0.0071 | | 0.0004 | | | 0.001 | 0.56 | 41.3 |
| 497 | -1.18 | 0.0076 | 0.0002 | | | | 0.004 | 0.48 | 44.8 |
| 498 | 1.15 | 0.0082 | | | | | 0.001 | 0.46 | 45.6 |

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500

501 Table 2. Maximum likelihood estimates, standard errors, and correlation matrix for the
 502 juvenile and pre-adult models. Estimates are separable and are shown as such.

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505

| | $\hat{\theta}$ | SE | Correlation matrix | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|--------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|
| | $\hat{\theta}$ | SE | β_0 | β_1 | β_2 | σ_ε |
| β_0 | 3.0170 | 5.4024 | 1.0000 | 0.0878 | -0.9983 | 0.0000 |
| β_1 | 0.0094 | 0.0023 | 0.0878 | 1.0000 | -0.1297 | 0.0000 |
| β_2 | -0.0338 | 0.0647 | -0.9983 | -0.1297 | 1.0000 | 0.0000 |
| σ_ε | 0.6997 | 0.1080 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.0000 |

| | $\hat{\theta}$ | SE | Correlation matrix | | |
|---------------|----------------|---------|--------------------|------------|---------------|
| | $\hat{\theta}$ | SE | γ_0 | γ_1 | σ_η |
| γ_0 | 161.0800 | 39.6670 | 1.0000 | 0.7418 | 0.0000 |
| γ_1 | 0.1502 | 0.0435 | 0.7418 | 1.0000 | 0.0000 |
| σ_η | 0.7568 | 0.1168 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.0000 |

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507

Figure captions

Figure 1. Surface plot summarizing the effects of Secchi depth and specific conductance on the probability of occurrence of delta smelt generated by a generalized additive model.

Figure 2. Top panel: Time series for three scenarios of total surface area (ha) of suitable abiotic habitat for delta smelt from 1967 to 2006. Bottom panel: Three scenarios of total surface area (ha) of suitable abiotic habitat for delta smelt plotted against the geographic position of the 2‰ salinity isohaline, X2. The three scenarios are: $a = 0.10$, $b = 0.25$, and $c = 0.40$. See the text for full descriptions of the scenarios. Lines are LOWESS smoothers.

Figure 3. Boxplots showing the median (based on 10,000 simulations) predicted autumn abundances of delta smelt following 50 years of projections, along with the 5th and 95th percentiles, for each of four X2 management scenarios.

Figure 1.

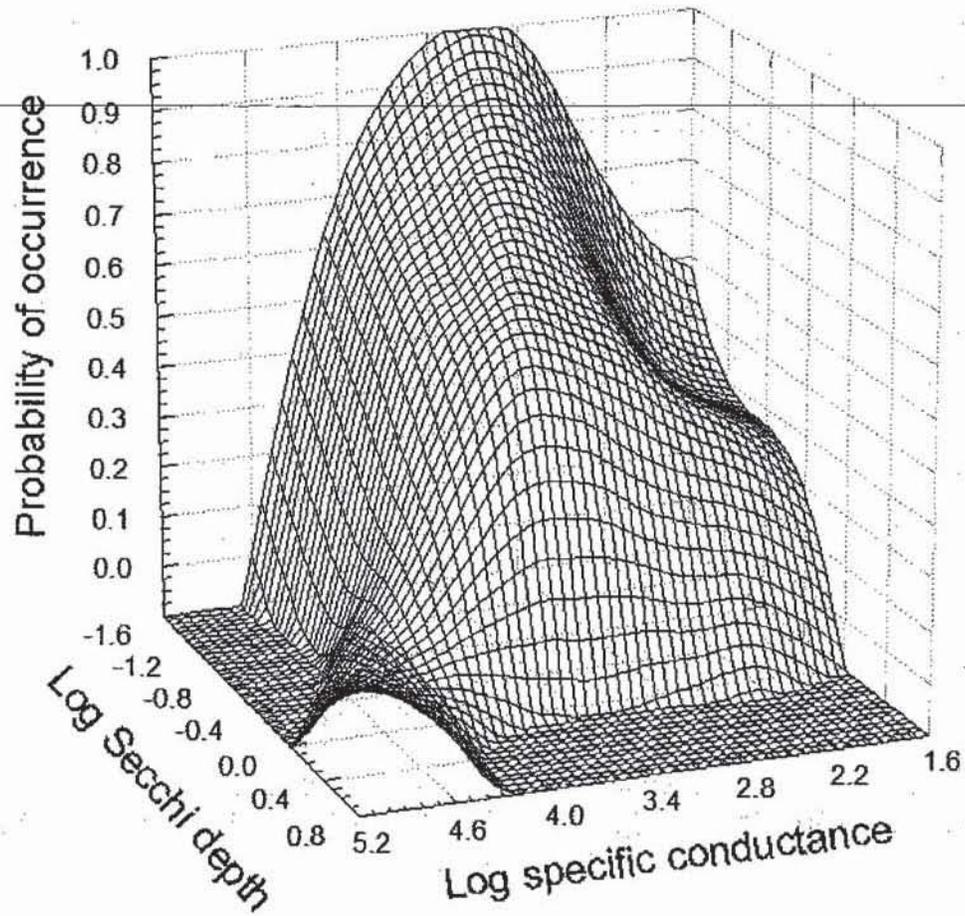


Figure 2.

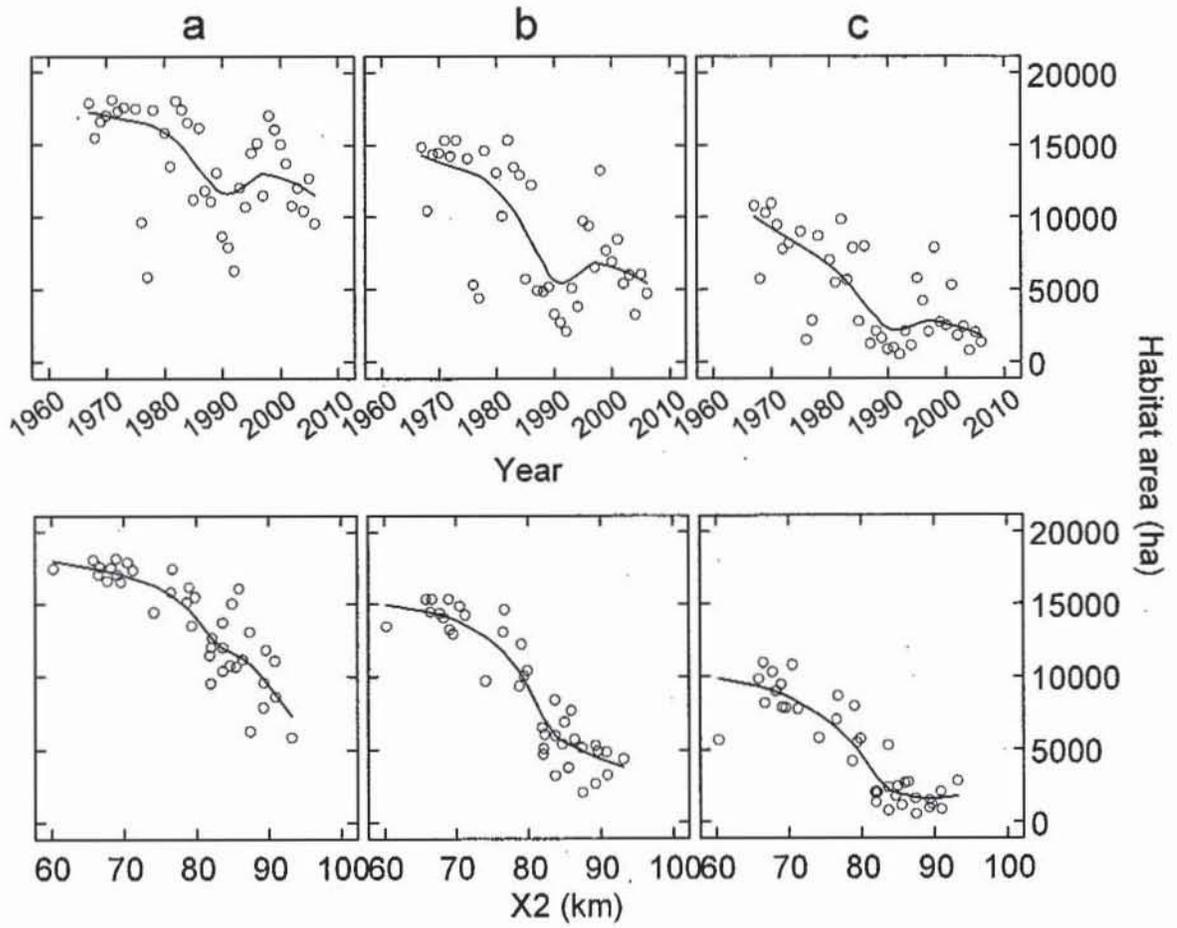


Figure 3.

