

1 **Original Research Paper – Fisheries Research**

2 **Movement patterns of an iconic recreational fish species, mulloway**
3 **(*Argyrosomus japonicus*), revealed by cooperative citizen-science tagging**
4 **programs in coastal eastern Australia.**

5
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41 **Highlights**

- 42 • Knowledge of movement patterns are vital for management of exploited fish
43 stocks.
- 44 • Patterns of movement were therefore examined for *Argyrosomus japonicus* in
45 eastern Australia.
- 46 • Released over 1000 km and three decades, tagged *Argyrosomus japonicus*
47 were recaptured at a rate of 15.1%.
- 48 • Movements occurred predominantly over small spatial scales (<10 km) in
49 eastern Australia.
- 50 • Fish tagged at lower latitudes, at larger sizes and over longer periods at liberty
51 moved greater distances.
- 52 • Current spatial management of the stock may consequently need to be re-
53 examined.
- 54 • Citizen science was key in the cost-effective generation of the broad-scale
55 tagging dataset used.

56

57 **Abstract**

58 Information on the movements and population structure of an exploited fish species is
59 vital for determining the appropriate spatial scale at which management should occur
60 to ensure sustainable harvesting. However, such information exists for very few
61 exploited recreational species. Broad-scale Large-scale patterns and drivers of
62 movement were therefore-examined for an iconic recreational sciaenid species,
63 mullet (*Argyrosomus japonicus*), in coastal eastern Australia using an angler-
64 assisted tag-recapture dataset. Over 4,300 individuals were tagged and released across
65 1,005 km of coastline over three decades (1988 – 2017). 657 individuals were
66 subsequently recaptured at a rate of 15.1% over the same time period. Average time at
67 liberty was 216 (\pm 9) days (range: 0 – 1,954 days) with distances moved ranging from
68 0 to 355 km. Median movement distance was 4 km and a large proportion of
69 individuals (73%) were recaptured within 10 km of release locations. Thirty one
70 percent of individuals were recaptured at release locations (<1 km) and 81% in the
71 same estuary, however 7% moved distances of >100 km. Linear regression also
72 indicated that recapture latitude was strongly predicted by release latitude ($r^2 = 0.95$).
73 Generalised additive modelling revealed that release latitude, season body size and
74 time at liberty were significant predictors of distance moved. Greater distances moved
75 were observed for fish tagged at lower latitudes, in autumn at larger sizes and over
76 longer periods at liberty. Results indicate that *A. japonicus* are primarily restricted to
77 small movements (<10 km) in eastern Australia and display strong site fidelity,
78 despite being capable of movements over larger scales (100s of km). This spatial scale
79 of movement is also much smaller than the current ‘jurisdictional’ scale of
80 management in this region (~1,000 km). Assessment and management of *A. japonicus*
81 in eastern Australia may therefore need to be re-examined considering these findings
82 and potentially undertaken at more localised spatial scales in the future. This study
83 also highlights the importance of citizen science in the cost-effective generation of a
84 sufficiently broad spatio-temporal dataset required to detect the movement patterns
85 revealed here.

86 1. Introduction

87

88 Populations of organisms that occur over large spatial scales are frequently structured,
89 consisting of multiple subpopulations that exist as discrete groups within the spatial
90 extent of the overall population (Kritzer and Sale 2004). Information on the stock
91 structure of an exploited fish species is vital for determining the appropriate spatial
92 scale at which a species should be managed to ensure sustainable harvest (Begg et al.
93 1999, Pauly et al. 2002). The application of management measures that fail to
94 recognise the extent of spatial stock structure can lead to localised depletions, and
95 changes in demography, productivity and the genetic diversity of isolated stocks
96 (Begg & Waldman 1999, Dominguez-Petit et al. 2008, Moore et al. 2011) without
97 significant supplementation from neighbouring stocks (Bailey 1997). Despite the
98 importance for management, spatial scales of population structure and connectivity
99 remain unknown for most exploited marine fishes (Begg et al. 1999).

100

101 For spatially structured populations of marine species, connectivity is facilitated at
102 two life history stages; by transport of eggs and larvae via oceanographic processes
103 (Cowen & Sponaugle 2009), and by ~~direct migratory~~ movement of post-settlement
104 stages (juveniles and adults) (Hughes et al. 2016). Both have the potential to
105 significantly influence the genetic **structure**, demography and ecology of
106 subpopulations (Cowen & Sponaugle 2009, Lowe & Allendorf 2010, Williams et al.
107 2012), which may have flow-on impacts on productivity and resilience to exploitation
108 (**Childs et al. 2015**, Fowler et al. 2018). For most coastal ~~marine~~-species, the pelagic
109 larval phase is the dominant dispersal stage with the potential for advection of scales
110 of up to 1000s of km (Leis 2006). Consequently, considerable focus has been placed
111 on this stage and the processes that influence it in addressing issues of population
112 connectivity in marine systems (Cowen & Sponaugle 2009, Jones et al. 2009, Green
113 et al. 2015).

114

115 However, direct ~~migratory~~ movements **and dispersal** of adults or juveniles has also
116 been shown to take place **over distances comparable to pelagic larval dispersal** over
117 seasonal and lifetime temporal scales (e.g. Hughes et al. 2016, Fowler et al. 2018,
118 Brodie et al. 2018). Despite **the** ~~such-critical~~ importance **of such information**, the
119 influence of these movements on the stock structure of many exploited fish species

120 are poorly understood (Begg et al. 1999, Gruss et al. 2011). ~~Approaches used to~~
121 ~~examine the movements of post-settlement fish range from electronic radio, acoustic,~~
122 ~~satellite tagging (e.g. Taylor et al. 2006, Harasti et al. 2015, Lédée et al. 2021) to the~~
123 ~~use of natural tags like otolith elemental or isotopic composition (e.g. Ferguson et al.~~
124 ~~2011, Hughes et al. 2016) and parasites (e.g. Poulin & Kamiya 2015). These~~
125 ~~techniques can deliver movement information at both fine individualised scales, as~~
126 ~~well as at the population scale, but are expensive, computationally intensive, or both.~~
127 Mark-recapture techniques represent a traditional approach used to examine the
128 movements of post-settlement fish, ~~Before the development and widespread use of~~
129 ~~such approaches, movement was traditionally investigated using mark-recapture~~
130 ~~techniques~~ providing individualised movement information based on the distance
131 between release and recapture locations of tagged individuals (Hilborn et al. 1990).
132 ~~Tag-recapture methods have the advantage of providing individualised movement~~
133 ~~information over large distances, with both a known start and finish location, but~~
134 ~~cannot resolve additional movement that potentially occurs between these two points~~
135 ~~during time at liberty (e.g. Takahashi et al. 2003). Although tag-recapture studies~~
136 ~~provide little information on fine-scale behaviour of individuals, they are useful for~~
137 ~~investigating broad-scale patterns such as area utilization and the structure of~~
138 ~~movement by groups and populations of individuals (e.g. Takahashi et al. 2003,~~
139 ~~Espeland et al. 2008).~~

140

141 Tag-recapture investigations are in many cases subject to low recapture rates
142 (Gillanders et al. 2001), but this shortcoming can be compensated for by the
143 recruitment and participation of large numbers of recreational fishers to report
144 recaptured individuals, or given appropriate training, conduct the tagging effort
145 themselves (Lucy & Davy 2000). Cooperative recreational fisher tagging programs
146 are a form of effective citizen science, where members of the public can voluntarily
147 tag, release, and recapture certain fish species, thus contributing to robust data
148 collection ~~using equipment and~~ within a framework designed and managed by
149 professional scientists (e.g. Arlinghaus et al. 2007, Brodie et al. 2018). Although
150 cooperative tag-recapture programs have a number of identified biases (e.g. Arnason
151 & Mills 1981, Dunlop et al. 2013, Gil et al. 2017), they are ~~not only~~ able to provide
152 movement information over extremely large spatiotemporal scales (e.g. Brodie et al.
153 2018, Fowler et al. 2018, Stewart et al. 2019)., ~~but are far more cost-effective and less~~

154 ~~computationally intensive than many of the abovementioned contemporary~~
155 ~~approaches.~~

156

157 **Mulloy *Argyrosomus japonicus* (Temminck & Schlegel, 1844) is a large coastal**
158 **sciaenid species widespread around southern Australia, the north-western Pacific**
159 **Ocean and the Indian Ocean as far west as South Africa (Silberschneider & Gray**
160 **2008).** It has a wide distribution in Australia, spanning more than 6,000 km from the
161 Burnett River in Queensland, around the southern coast of the continent to North
162 West Cape in Western Australia (WA; Silberschneider & Gray 2008). Within this
163 broad distribution, *A. japonicus* occur around inshore rocky reefs and ocean beaches
164 in nearshore coastal waters (<100 m depth) and are often abundant in estuaries and the
165 lower reaches of rivers (Taylor et al. 2006, Silberschneider et al. 2009). **Juveniles are**
166 **found in estuarine and nearshore coastal environments, with estuaries representing a**
167 **key nursery area (Gray & McDonall 1993, Silberschneider & Gray 2008).** Significant
168 commercial and recreational fisheries for the species are supported throughout these
169 habitats with a long history of exploitation (Silberschneider & Gray 2008, Earl et al.
170 2018). The commercial catch of *A. japonicus* in Australia was reported to be in excess
171 of 210 t in 2018, of which more than 70 t was taken from New South Wales (NSW)
172 waters alone (Earl et al. 2018). The species is also a highly prized recreational target
173 species with an estimated 260 t landed in 2013/14, again with a substantial proportion
174 (103 t) taken in NSW waters (West et al. 2015, Earl et al. 2018). Heavy historical
175 exploitation of the species has resulted in an ‘overfished/depleted’ assessment of the
176 NSW component of the stock since 2004/05 (Silberschneider et al. 2009, Stewart et
177 al. 2015, Earl et al. 2018) and has recently been subject to significant management
178 changes in an effort to arrest the decline in *A. japonicus* fisheries here
179 (Silberschneider et al. 2009, Earl et al. 2018).

180

181 In Australia, **population genetic studies have revealed** ~~regional differences in *A.*~~
182 ~~*japonicus* genetic analyses suggest~~ significant **broad large-**scale spatial structuring
183 with the overall ***A. japonicus*** population divisible into four discrete genetic stocks - an
184 east coast (NSW) stock, a west coast (WA) stock, and a stock in each of the eastern
185 and western parts of the Great Australian Bight (Barnes et al. 2016). Current
186 management of *A. japonicus* in Australian waters is undertaken at jurisdictional (state-
187 wide) scales of 100s to 1000s of km, which roughly corresponds with this reported

188 ~~broad~~ large-scale spatial stock structure (Earl et al. 2018). However, discriminant
189 otolith morphology and chemistry analyses carried out in South Australia (SA) have
190 shown evidence of much finer scale population sub-structuring within management
191 units (Ferguson et al. 2011). In eastern Australia, spawning occurs in the lower
192 reaches of estuaries and nearshore coastal waters between November and March
193 (Silberschneider et al. 2009) with pelagic larvae recorded in offshore shelf waters
194 (>30 km) between January and April (Neira et al. 1998, Smith 2003). This period
195 corresponds with the highest seasonal intensity of the poleward flowing East
196 Australian Current (EAC; Ridgway & Godfrey 1997) suggesting high potential for
197 offshore mixing and considerable downstream advection of larvae driving consequent
198 genetic homogeneity in this region.

199

200 Population structure and connectivity in the species may also be driven by the
201 movement of post-settlement stages, however little is known about the ~~broad~~ large-
202 scale movements of *A. japonicus* here (e.g. Taylor et al. 2006, Silberschneider & Gray
203 2008, Taylor et al. 2014). A synopsis of previous *A. japonicus* tagging studies in both
204 Australia and South Africa indicate that juvenile fish (<2 years) appear to be relatively
205 sedentary in estuaries, but sub-adults and adults can move greater distances (>200 km;
206 Silberschneider & Gray 2008). Previous studies using small numbers of fish tagged
207 with acoustic transmitters in estuaries have also shown that *A. japonicus* has a
208 relatively small home range in both NSW (<17.7 km² in area; Taylor et al. 2006) and
209 southern Africa (1.2 – 10.3 km in river length; Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje et al. 2012).
210 Scales of connectivity and population structure may therefore exist over finer scales
211 than that of current management of the biological (genetic) stock in this region.

212

213 To address knowledge gaps regarding large-scale and long-term movements, we
214 ~~aimed to~~ ~~therefore~~ investigated the movement patterns of *A. japonicus* in eastern
215 Australia using an angler-assisted tag-recapture dataset covering 9.5° of latitude and
216 spanning 30 years. Specific ~~objectives included~~ ~~ally, we aimed to~~: 1) determine the
217 extent ~~and likelihood~~ of movement along the coast, 2) examine the levels of habitat
218 ~~connectivity and multiple estuary use~~, and 3) identify ~~the influence of~~ body size, time
219 at liberty ~~and~~ latitude ~~and season~~ ~~on movement~~ ~~distance~~ ~~patterns~~ ~~biological and~~
220 ~~environmental factors influencing movement~~. This study provides ~~the first~~ ~~key~~
221 information on the ~~broad~~ large-scale movement ~~patterns~~ of *A. japonicus* in eastern

222 Australia, data essential for evaluating whether the current spatial scale of assessment
223 and management are appropriate for the species in this region.

224

225

226 **2. Materials & Methods**

227

228 **2.1 Tagging programs**

229 Tagging of *A. japonicus* were undertaken by two NSW DPI Fisheries' initiatives,
230 which were combined to create a large tag-recapture dataset. Between 1988 and 1994,
231 *A. japonicus* were collected by research trawling in estuaries between the Richmond
232 River and Burrill Lake spanning latitudes 28 to 35°S (Fig. 1; summarised in
233 Silberschneider & Gray 2005, 2008). Most releases occurred on 29 occasions (May
234 1988 – November 1989) in the Richmond River, on 30 occasions (March 1988 –
235 January 1990) in the Clarence River and on 37 occasions (November 1992 –
236 November 1994) in the Shoalhaven River. Additional releases also occurred in Burrill
237 Lake (once), Lake Conjola (12 occasions) and the Macleay River (3 occasions)
238 between October 1990 and December 1994 (West 1993). Between 2013 and 2017,
239 recreational anglers involved in a DPI Fisheries' citizen science initiative, the NSW
240 Research Angler Program ([dpi.nsw.gov.au/fishing/recreational/resources/fish-
241 tagging/researchangler](http://dpi.nsw.gov.au/fishing/recreational/resources/fish-tagging/researchangler)), captured and tagged *A. japonicus* from estuarine and
242 nearshore marine waters from latitudes between 29 and 36°S (Fig. 1). Captured *A.*
243 *japonicus* in both initiatives were measured to the nearest 0.1 cm total length (TL),
244 tagged with a uniquely-numbered plastic single barb dart tag, and released. Fish
245 captured by trawling were tagged with a 5 cm PDX tag and fish captured by angling
246 were tagged with an 8 cm PDS tag (Hallprint Pty Ltd, South Australia). Information
247 was also recorded on capture date and location. This information was also recorded
248 when a tagged individual was recaptured by a recreational angler, commercial fisher
249 or researcher. Individuals recaptured by recreational anglers were reported to the DPI
250 Fisheries Gamefish Tagging Program
251 (dpi.nsw.gov.au/fishing/recreational/resources/fish-tagging/game-fish-tagging).

252

253 **2.2 Data processing**

254 Data was checked for potential reporting errors prior to analysis. The coordinates of
255 reported release and recapture location were checked in Google Earth

256 (earth.google.com/web/) and matched to location descriptions. Implausible or
257 mismatched location coordinates were rectified where possible. Improbable fish
258 lengths were defined using published size information for the species (Hutchins &
259 Swainston 1986, Kuitert 1993) and removed. Linear distance between release and
260 recapture locations was used to estimate distances moved (km) for each individual.
261 Locations were recorded to 3 decimal degrees allowing for resolutions of
262 approximately 0.093 km in an east-west direction and 0.107 km in a north-south
263 direction. Individuals recorded moving less than these distances were therefore
264 recorded as having a movement of 0 km.

265

266 **2.3 Data analysis**

267

268 *Argyrosomus japonicus* that were deemed to have moved a detectable distance were
269 further investigated using a generalised additive model (GAM). The model was used
270 to examine whether distance moved (km, hereafter “Distance”) was influenced by
271 latitude of release (in degrees, hereafter “Latitude”), body size at release (total length
272 in cm, hereafter “Length”) or days at liberty (hereafter “Days”) ~~or austral season of~~
273 ~~release (Spring, Summer, Autumn, Winter, hereafter “Season”).~~ GAMs were used
274 following preliminary data exploration which indicated potentially complex non-
275 linear relationships between the response variable and the continuous predictor
276 variables. The gamma distribution with a log link was used due to the positive,
277 continuous response variable and pattern of model residuals relative to that from an
278 equivalent model employing the normal distribution. Model improvement using the
279 gamma distribution relative to the normal distribution was confirmed through
280 comparison of AIC values.

281

282 Modelling was conducted using the *gam* function in the ‘mgcv’ package (Wood 2011)
283 in R (R Core Team Development Team). Smooth model terms were included for all
284 continuous predictor variables, ~~while “Season” was included as a parametric~~
285 ~~predictor.~~ Selection of model terms and optimisation of smoothing functions was
286 achieved automatically using the ‘select’ argument (with maximum likelihood
287 estimation) within the *gam* function in the ‘mgcv’ package. This argument adds an
288 extra penalty to each smooth so that terms with parameters that tend toward infinity
289 are penalised to zero and dropped from the model (Marra & Wood 2011). The upper

290 limit to the effective degrees of freedom (edf) for smooth terms was set at $k = 6$
291 reduce model overfitting and the suitability of this choice was examined using the
292 *gam.check* function to ensure edfs were not overly restricted. The deviance explained
293 by the final model was used to assess the quality of the model fit.

294

295 Data were explored prior to analyses using boxplots, Cleveland plots and scatterplots
296 following the protocol of Zuur et al. (2010). Potential concurvity among model terms
297 was investigated using the *concurvity* function in the ‘mgcv’ package. Concurvity is a
298 generalisation of co-linearity that occurs when a smooth term in a model could be
299 approximated by one or more of the other smooth terms (Wood 2011).

300

301

302 **3. Results**

303

304 ***3.1 Tagging location and period***

305 Overall, between 1988 and 2017, 4,357 *A. japonicus* individuals were tagged and
306 released along 1,005 km of coastline between latitudes 28 to 36°S (Fig. 1). Releases
307 were unevenly distributed along the coast, with 89% of individuals released in either
308 latitudes 28-29°S (41.2%) or latitudes 33-34°S (48.2%), corresponding with the
309 Northern Rivers and Greater Sydney – Shoalhaven regions, respectively. Releases
310 were also unevenly distributed through time, with ~79% of individuals released in
311 either 1988-89 (37.5%) or 2014-16 (41.8%).

312

313 Between 1988 and 1994, 2,510 *A. japonicus* of 16.5 – 72.6 cm TL (mean 32.6 ± 0.2
314 cm SE) caught by research trawling were tagged and released between latitudes 28
315 and 35°S, primarily in three major estuaries, the Richmond (46%), Clarence (21%)
316 and Shoalhaven Rivers (31%; Fig. 1). The number of fish released per tagging event
317 ranged between 1 and 157 with an average of 22.4 ± 3.0 (SE) fish released per event.
318 The sizes of these fish revealed that the majority were likely juveniles. Between 2013
319 and 2017, 1,847 tagged fish of 35.0 – 155.5 cm TL (mean 74.0 ± 0.3 cm SE) were
320 released by anglers in estuarine and nearshore marine waters between 28 and 36°S,
321 with most (71%) occurring in the vicinity of Greater Sydney (Fig. 1). The vast
322 majority (93.2%) of tagged fish were released in estuaries with only 6.8% of tagged
323 fish released in nearshore marine waters. Fish tagged in estuaries ranged between 16.5

324 and 155.5 cm TL (mean 48.7 ± 0.4 cm SE) and fish tagged in nearshore marine waters
325 ranged between 35.0 and 152.5 cm TL (mean 72.8 ± 1.2 cm SE).

326

327 *3.2 Recapture location and period*

328 Six hundred and fifty seven of the 4,357 tagged *A. japonicus* were subsequently
329 recaptured at a recapture rate 15.1% (Fig. 1). The recapture rate of fish tagged by
330 researchers and recreational fishers was 20.3% and 7.9%, respectively. Recaptures
331 occurred over a period of 30 years from 1988 to 2017. Average time at liberty (\pm SE)
332 was 215.7 (\pm 8.9) days (median 158 days) and ranged from 0 to 1954 days (~5.4
333 years). The time-at-liberty distribution was best described by a negative exponential
334 function ($y=12.849^{-0.002x}$, where x is time-at-liberty). Length at recapture ranged from
335 26.0 to 147.0 cm TL. There were 18 fish that were recaptured more than once (17 fish
336 recaptured twice, and one fish recaptured three times). For 15 of these, both
337 recaptures occurred in the same location where the fish were originally tagged. For
338 the other three fish, none were subsequently recaptured in the tagging location after
339 being recaptured elsewhere.

340

341 Recaptures were recorded from 1,002 km of coastline between latitudes 26 and 35°S
342 (Fig. 1). Latitudes with the greatest number of recaptures aligned closely with release
343 latitudes, with 86% of individuals recaptured in the main release locations – either
344 latitudes 33-34°S (56.3%) or latitudes 28-29°S (29.5%; Fig. 1). The most significant
345 locations for recaptures were the Shoalhaven, Richmond, Clarence and Hawkesbury
346 Rivers. Even though releases and recaptures occurred over a similar geographic range
347 (~1000 km), some recaptures (2.6%) occurred at latitudes (26-27°S) further north than
348 the most northern release latitude (28°S; Fig. 1). There were no recaptures recorded
349 from 36°S, despite a small number of releases occurring at this latitude.

350

351 The vast majority (91.2%) of tagged fish were recaptured in estuaries with only 8.8%
352 of recaptures occurring in nearshore marine waters. Most (86.0%) recaptured fish
353 were both tagged and recaptured in estuaries, with just 1.2% tagged and recaptured in
354 nearshore marine waters. 9.9% of recaptured fish were tagged in estuaries but
355 recaptured in nearshore marine waters, and just 1.2% were tagged in nearshore marine
356 waters and recaptured in an estuary. 80.5% of fish were tagged and recaptured in the

357 same estuary with just 7.2% tagged and recaptured in different estuaries. For fish
358 tagged in estuaries in the northern half of NSW (from Newcastle north; Fig. 1), 64.1%
359 were recaptured in the same estuary and 15.0% were recaptured in a different estuary.
360 In comparison, for fish tagged in estuaries in the southern half of NSW (from
361 Newcastle south), a much higher proportion were recaptured in the same estuary
362 (90.9%) with just 5.5% recaptured in a different estuary.

363

364 Median distance between tagging and recapture locations was 4.0 km, increasing to
365 just 4.3 km when individuals at liberty for <30 days were excluded (Fig. 2). A large
366 majority (72.6%) of tagged fish were captured within 10 km of their release location,
367 82.9% within 20 km and 89.0% within 50 km (Fig. 2). ~~Recapture latitude was~~
368 ~~strongly predicted by release latitude (linear regression; $r^2 = 0.95$, $df = 656$, $p < 0.001$;~~
369 ~~Fig. 3A) and this did not change when individuals at liberty <30 days were excluded~~
370 ~~($r^2 = 0.95$, $df = 580$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3B).~~ A large proportion of fish (30.5%, 201
371 individuals) were recaptured at, or in close proximity (<1 km) to, their release
372 location, spending between 0 and 934 days at liberty (~2.6 years). This proportion
373 reduced to 28.3% when individuals at liberty <14 days were excluded and 25.5%
374 when individuals at liberty <30 days were excluded. For fish originally caught by
375 trawling ($n = 510$), distances between tag and recapture locations ranged from 0 to
376 355 km with an average (\pm SE) of 21.9 ± 2.3 km. Distances between tag and recapture
377 locations for fish originally caught by angling ($n = 147$) ranged between 0 and 264 km
378 with an average (\pm SE) of 15.6 ± 3.0 km. For fish initially caught in estuaries ($n =$
379 630), distances between tag and recapture locations ranged from 0 to 355 km with an
380 average (\pm SE) of 20.2 ± 2.0 km. Distances between tagging and recapture locations
381 for fish initially caught by in nearshore marine waters ($n = 27$) ranged between 0 and
382 264 km with an average (\pm SE) of 28.3 ± 11.7 km. The average time-at-liberty was
383 192.3 ± 7.7 days (range: 0 – 1,903 days, $n = 572$) for fish tagged and recaptured in
384 estuaries and 285.4 ± 55.6 days (range: 15 – 838 days, $n = 18$) for fish tagged and
385 recaptured in coastal waters.

386

387 A small proportion of fish (6.5%, 43 individuals) were recorded moving distances
388 >100 km and were recaptured after an average of 187 days at liberty (Fig. 2). This
389 reduced to 4.0% (26 individuals) for fish which moved >150 km and 2.3% (15

390 individuals) for fish moving >200 km with average time at liberty of 222 and 259
391 days, respectively. The largest movement recorded was 355 km and coincided with
392 the longest period at liberty of 1,954 days (~5.4 years) for an individual tagged in the
393 Richmond River (28.9°S) when 27.4 cm TL and recaptured at Old Bar (32.0°S) when
394 75.0 cm TL (Fig. 1). For the small proportion of fish (16.7% of the total, 110
395 individuals) which were recaptured north or south from their tagging locations,
396 overall 60.9% (67 individuals) moved north and 39.1% (43 individuals) moved south
397 (Fig. 3). For fish that moved north, distances ranged from 5 to 264 km with a mean (\pm
398 SE) of 99.0 ± 7.8 km, and for fish that moved south, distances ranged from 4 to 355
399 km with a mean (\pm SE) of 99.3 ± 16.6 km. For fish tagged in the northern half of
400 NSW (from Newcastle north; Fig. 1; $n=81$), movements occurred both north and
401 south from release locations (Fig. 3A). However, for fish tagged in the southern half
402 of NSW (from Newcastle south; $n=29$), movement direction was predominantly
403 northwards from release locations (Fig. 3B).

404

405 3.3 Movement modelling

406 Model selection using the 'select' argument retained all predictor variables for
407 distance moved (Fig. 4, Table 1). Latitude was a significant predictor of distance, with
408 greater movement predicted for fish tagged at lower latitudes (Fig. 4A). Movement
409 also increased rapidly with days at liberty until ~200 days, beyond which movement
410 increased more gradually until a plateau was reached at ~700 days (Fig. 4B). An
411 marginal increase in movement with body length was apparent between ~45 and 70
412 cm TL with only a marginal increase apparent beyond this length which → 50 cm TL
413 (Fig. 4C); ~~but this effect was not significant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level (Table 1) with the~~
414 ~~largest 100 individuals (15%) showing the same median distance between tagging and~~
415 ~~recapture locations (4 km) as all recaptures combined (see 3.2). Less movement was~~
416 ~~predicted in summer relative to autumn, with intermediate values observed in spring~~
417 ~~and winter (Fig. 4D, Table 1).~~ Overall, the selected model explained only 35.86.7% of
418 null deviance.

419

420

421 4. Discussion

422

423 Despite being a species of considerable recreational and commercial value in eastern
424 Australia, *A. japonicus* has been managed at the jurisdictional level (Earl et al. 2018),
425 equivalent to ~9 degrees of latitude and >1000 km, without detailed knowledge of
426 small-scale population structure and connectivity derived from direct examination of
427 movement patterns. Instead, the current spatial scale of assessment and management
428 corresponds with previous proposed *A. japonicus* population structuring which
429 indicated an “East Coast” stock based on genetic analyses (Barnes et al. 2016). Our
430 results indicate that, although some individuals can travel large distances (up to 355
431 km), the movement of the majority of *A. japonicus* are restricted to much smaller
432 spatial scales than the current scale of management in eastern Australia. This is
433 reflected by a median distance between tag and recapture locations of just 4 km, 73%
434 of tagged individuals being captured <10 km from their release location and a high
435 proportion of recaptures occurring at release locations (30%) or in the same estuary
436 (81%), despite an average of >200 days between tagging and recapture.

437

438 The generally small scale of movement and strong estuarine site fidelity for *A.*
439 *japonicus* in eastern Australia found in the current study is consistent with results of
440 tag-recapture studies done on the species from South Africa (Griffiths 1996), which
441 showed *A. japonicus* to be primarily resident with evidence of site fidelity and likely
442 to be recaptured within 10 km of release locations or within the same estuary despite
443 long periods at liberty (up to 1,713 days). Similar to results presented here, Griffiths
444 (1996) also reported that only 5% of tagged fish moved >30 km, 3% >150 km and the
445 greatest distance recorded was just ~250 km. Our results are also consistent with
446 acoustic telemetry studies carried on the species in both eastern Australia (Taylor et
447 al. 2006, 2014) and South Africa (Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje et al. 2012). For
448 example, in the Georges River, eastern Australia, 21 acoustically-tagged *A. japonicus*
449 were found to have a relatively small home range within the estuary (<17.7 km²) and
450 displayed strong site fidelity, with all individuals remaining within the estuary over a
451 monitoring period of 11 months (Taylor et al. 2006). Similarly, in the Great Fish
452 River estuary in South Africa, small numbers of juvenile *A. japonicus* implanted with
453 acoustic transmitters moved distances within the estuary of 1.2 – 10.3 km over a
454 period of ~6 months (Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje et al. 2012).

455

456 Despite the generally small scale of movement and strong estuarine site fidelity found
457 in the present study, approximately 11% of individuals tagged in either estuarine or
458 nearshore marine waters were subsequently recaptured in adjacent marine or estuarine
459 habitats revealing the importance of habitat connectivity for the species in eastern
460 Australia. Studies on the species in South Africa also showed that up to 60% of
461 individuals tagged in estuaries undertook movements into adjacent nearshore marine
462 waters where they remained for an average duration of ~3.5 days before returning
463 (Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje et al. 2012). Similarly, Childs et al. (2015) showed that *A.*
464 *japonicus* demonstrated high residency and site fidelity to tagging locations in both
465 estuarine and marine waters, even though one third of tagged individuals visited
466 adjacent marine or estuarine habitats.

467

468 Even though there was the potential for substantial increases in body size between
469 release and recapture, a significant increase in distance moved was found with
470 increasing size at release. Consistent with this finding, increased movement distances
471 with increasing body size have been observed for many fish species from diverse
472 families (e.g. Nottestad et al. 1999, Griffiths & Wilke 2002, Edgar et al. 2004)
473 including sciaenids (e.g. Bacheler et al. 2009, Zarada et al. 2019). This pattern
474 conforms to the models that body size drives maximum dispersal distance among
475 species through its effects on metabolism and the cost of locomotion (Hein et al.
476 2012). For example, there was a significant relationship between fish length and
477 movement distance found for *Sciaenops ocellatus* ~~the temperate reef labrid~~ *Notolabrus*
478 *tetricus*, which were shown to ~~display reduced site fidelity and~~ be at large for longer
479 and travel significantly larger distances with increased body size (Bacheler et al.
480 2009 ~~Edgar et al. 2004~~). Similarly, Zarada et al. (2019) were able to show that
481 maximum distance travelled was greater for larger female *Cynoscion nebulosus* than
482 for smaller males over three seasons at a spawning aggregation site. ~~had a the extent~~
483 ~~of migration increases with increasing body length for a suite of pelagic planktivores~~
484 ~~(*Clupea harengus*, *Micromestistius poutassou*, *Scomber scombrus* and *Mallotus*~~
485 ~~*villosus*)~~. For *A. japonicus*, Taylor et al. (2006) showed that home ranges and daily
486 movements within an individual estuary were significantly correlated with body
487 length – large individuals moved further and had a larger home range than smaller
488 individuals. Even though residence in each habitat in the present study was similar, a
489 larger proportion (~10%) of fish recaptured in coastal waters had been tagged in an

490 estuary compared with just ~1% of fish recaptured in an estuary after being tagged in
491 coastal waters. In combination with the overall larger size of individuals both tagged
492 and recaptured in marine waters (73 cm *cf* 49 cm TL), this suggests the potential for a
493 general life-history driven movement from estuaries to the open coast with increasing
494 size. Childs et al. (2015) also showed that the number of marine excursions
495 undertaken by juvenile *A. japonicus* tagged in estuaries was positively related to fish
496 length.

497

498 Many such relationships between fish size and movement distance are also often
499 related to size-at-maturity (e.g. Griffiths & Wilke 2002, Maggs et al. 2019). For
500 example, adult *S. ocellatus* were shown to move progressively larger distances than
501 juveniles related to movements from estuaries into spawning habitat in offshore
502 waters (Bacheler et al. 2009). Similarly, Maggs et al. (2019) showed that life history
503 stage was a significant predictor of wide-ranging movement behaviour in the teleosts
504 *Lutjanus rivulatus*, *Lichia amia* and *Dichistius capensis* as well as two species of
505 elasmobranchs. It has been previously suggested that as fish reach maturity, *A.*
506 *japonicus* begin undertaking extended coastal long shore spawning migrations in both
507 eastern Australia (~80 cm TL; West 1993) and southern South Africa (~100 cm TL;
508 Griffiths 1996). Modelling results from the present study are somewhat consistent
509 with this suggestion, which shows that for the small proportion of individuals which
510 did move, there was a slight, but non-significant increase in movement with body
511 length beyond ~45 cm TL. While smaller than the size-at-maturity for female *A.*
512 *japonicus* (68 cm TL), this length corresponds to the size-at-maturity for male *A.*
513 *japonicus* (Silberschneider et al. 2009) and the size at which sensory and caudal fin
514 development of *A. japonicus* begin to plateau in south eastern Australia (Taylor et al.
515 2020). Griffiths (1996) also showed that of the small proportion of *A. japonicus* that
516 did move substantial distances in South Africa, distances moved by mature-sized
517 individuals were slightly larger than those moved by immature-sized individuals.
518 Evidence consistent with a spawning migration in the present study was also provided
519 by the very similar distances moved in either north or south directions (~100 km) for
520 the small proportion of individuals which were recaptured north or south of their
521 tagging locations, potentially representing movements to and from spawning
522 locations. The movement patterns exhibited by these fish are consistent with previous
523 studies on *A. japonicus* from South Africa, where the species movement type has been

524 described as 'resident/migratory' displaying primarily 'station-keeping' behaviour
525 together with less common periodic 'migratory' behaviour (Griffiths 1996, Mann et
526 al. 2015).

527

528 Alternatively, the large variation in distances moved by individuals may be related to
529 different contingents within *A. japonicus* populations which exhibit different
530 movement behaviour (*sensu* Secor 1999). A small number of *A. japonicus* individuals
531 in the current study were demonstrated to have moved 100s of km over a sub-yearly
532 temporal scale (e.g. two individuals moved ~300 km in 4-5 months), confirming the
533 movement capabilities of the species (Barnes et al. 2019), however most (73%) were
534 recaptured within 10 km of release locations (including 30% at the release location
535 itself and 81% in the same estuary) after an average of >200 days at liberty. It
536 therefore appears that although most *A. japonicus* are highly resident displaying
537 strong site fidelity or homing behaviour, others display less site fidelity and undertake
538 extensive long-distance movements. Multiple contingents which exhibit variable
539 movement behaviours have also been previously demonstrated to occur in numerous
540 other species of fish from both marine (e.g. Boje 2002, Fukumori et al. 2008, Harasti
541 et al. 2015, Conroy et al. 2018, Fowler et al. 2016, 2018) and freshwater environments
542 (e.g. Jonsson & Jonsson 1993, Morinville & Rasmussen 2006, Comte & Olden 2018).
543 Childs et al. (2015) have suggested that high levels of residency *A. japonicus* in South
544 Africa may indicate that juveniles exist as metapopulations consisting primarily of
545 non-dispersing subpopulations, each with distinct estuarine and marine contingents;
546 connectivity between habitats driven by the small number of individuals that display
547 exploratory/migratory behaviour (Secor 1999) and best described as 'partial
548 migration' (Kerr et al. 2009).

549

550 The distances moved by *A. japonicus* in this study suggest high potential for
551 demographic sub-structuring within the eastern Australian population. Just 7% of
552 individuals were recaptured >100 km from their release location, suggesting that
553 locations separated by greater distances may experience extremely limited exchange
554 of individuals through post-settlement movement. Given the distributional range of *A.*
555 *japonicus* in eastern Australia (>1000 km), exchange of individuals is therefore likely
556 restricted between at least some parts of the coast. As with all tag-recapture studies,

557 the direct distance between tagging and recapture locations is likely an underestimate
558 of actual total distances moved by individuals (e.g. Takahashi et al. 2003, Attwood &
559 Cowley 2005, Fowler et al. 2018, Stewart et al. 2019). Together with the lack of
560 multiple estuary use found in the current study, there is also considerable evidence
561 from finer-scale acoustic telemetry studies that *A. japonicus* likely exhibits strong site
562 fidelity to natal estuaries and homing behaviour (Taylor et al. 2006, Cowley et al.
563 2008, Næsje et al. 2012, Childs et al. 2015). For example, both Cowley et al. (2008)
564 and Næsje et al. (2012) showed that even though some individuals made repeated
565 excursions to the ocean adjacent to the estuary of residence, all individuals returned to
566 the estuary each time.

567

~~568 Long-shore spawning migrations in coastal waters have also been observed to occur
569 in both Australia (West 1992) and southern Africa (Griffiths 1996), with individuals
570 hypothesised to make a post-spawning return migration. Although our modelling
571 found a significant effect Season on *A. japonicus* movement, despite a considerable
572 proportion (0.14–0.29) of tagged fish being of mature sizes. In fact, summer was the
573 season when the least movement was predicted, despite movements related to
574 spawning likely occurring primarily during the summer spawning period for *A.*
575 *japonicus* in eastern Australia (November–March; Silberschneider et al. 2009, Taylor
576 et al. 2014). The limited and counter-intuitive effect of season on movement may be a
577 result of the strong site fidelity and homing behaviour demonstrated for *A. japonicus*
578 in this, and other studies on the species (Taylor et al. 2006, Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje
579 et al. 2012, Childs et al. 2015), with movement primarily occurring over short
580 distances between estuaries and adjacent coastal spawning areas. Such small
581 movements would reduce the model's ability to detect temporal relationships,
582 particularly given the coarse categorical nature of the Season factor used in the
583 current study. Future investigations should consider resolving sub-annual temporal
584 relationships to the level of month, if sufficient data is available at that level.~~

585

586 Limited exchange of individuals may lead to variation in demography among *A.*
587 *japonicus* populations along eastern Australia driven by spatial variation in
588 environmental conditions, historic and current fishing pressure, or a combination (e.g.
589 Williams et al. 2003, D'Anatro et al. 2011, Hughes et al. 2017, Fowler et al. 2018). In
590 eastern Australia, there exists a strong latitudinal environmental gradient from north

591 to south in water temperature (Ridgway & Dunn 2003), nutrient loads (Rochford
592 1984) and productivity (Suthers et al. 2011), driven primarily by the activity of the
593 dominant oceanographic feature in the region, the poleward flowing East Australian
594 Current (EAC). For fish species with distributions which span similar latitudinal
595 scales, this environmental gradient may influence the productivity and demographic
596 characteristics of fish populations, such as growth, mortality and longevity at smaller
597 spatial scales (e.g. Kuparinen et al. 2016, Hughes et al. 2017). There is also evidence
598 of latitudinal variation in historical fishing pressure on *A. japonicus*, with populations
599 in central NSW historically subject to greater fishing pressure than those further north
600 (Silberschneider et al. 2009, NSW DPI unpublished data). This has resulted in
601 historical declines in commercial landings of *A. japonicus* in central NSW from at
602 least the 1980s onwards (Silberschneider et al. 2009, NSW DPI unpublished data).
603 Such sustained fishing pressure may result in the truncation of size and age structures
604 of populations due to the systematic removal of large, old individuals (Stewart 2011),
605 which our movement patterns demonstrate would not be replaced substantially by
606 immigration from neighbouring areas. Indeed, there is evidence of a temporal change
607 in the length structure of *A. japonicus* in this region, with substantial reductions in the
608 proportion of fish of mature lengths in commercial landings from the mid-1990s
609 through to the mid-2000s (Silberschneider et al. 2009, NSW DPI unpublished data).
610 The consequences of such limited exchange of individuals must therefore be
611 considered together with the effects of fishing pressure and environmental change on
612 the demographic structure of eastern Australian *A. japonicus* populations.

613

614 Whilst limited spatial exchange of individuals demonstrated by this study is likely to
615 influence demographic sub-structuring of the *A. japonicus* population in this region, it
616 is unlikely to influence the overall genetic structure of *A. japonicus* in eastern
617 Australia. *Argyrosomus japonicus* possess pelagic eggs and larvae (Neira et al. 1998,
618 Smith 2003) which are spawned in the lower reaches of estuaries and in nearshore
619 marine waters around the mouths of estuaries and in surf zones between November
620 and March (Silberschneider et al. 2009, Taylor et al. 2014). Dispersal of these life
621 history stages routinely occurs over much larger spatial scales (100s – 1000s of km;
622 Leis 2006) than the movements described here. In addition, downstream advection via
623 the poleward flowing EAC would potentially be maximised during the spawning
624 season for *A. japonicus* in eastern Australia, which is also when the strength and

625 intensity of the EAC is at its greatest (Ridgway & Godfrey 1997). The homogenous
626 genetic structure of *A. japonicus* in eastern Australia (Barnes et al. 2016) is therefore
627 likely determined primarily by larval dispersal patterns rather than the movement of
628 post-settlement life history stages as so few individuals move over comparable
629 spatial scales. Management of the *A. japonicus* fishery in South Australia also
630 assumes a single stock, based on genetics (Barnes et al. 2016), however regional
631 differences in the elemental chemistry and morphology of otoliths suggest that three
632 separate populations occur along eastern, central and western coasts of South
633 Australia (Ferguson et al. 2011). The spatial separation of these populations in South
634 Australia (~150 – 450 km) are considerably larger than the scales of movement
635 routinely demonstrated here for *A. japonicus* in eastern Australia and were also shown
636 to be consistent with regional differences in demographic characteristics (Ferguson et
637 al. 2008, 2014). Griffiths & Hecht (1995) have similarly suggested that whilst the
638 population of *A. japonicus* in South Africa is likely a single genetic stock, analysis of
639 otolith shape and demographic parameters indicates at least three separate regional
640 populations.

641

642 Latitude was found to be a significant predictor of movement for *A. japonicus* in the
643 current study. Fish released at lower latitudes moved greater distances both north and
644 south from release locations compared with those released at higher latitudes, which
645 moved smaller distances and primarily north. A higher degree of multiple estuary use
646 was also evident in the northern part of the study region revealed by the 15.0% of
647 estuary releases that were recaptured in different estuaries in the north compared with
648 just 5.5% in the southern part of the study region. The NSW coast contains 184
649 estuary systems; however, they are unevenly distributed over the 1090 km spatial
650 extent of the state's coastline with a much greater density in southern NSW than
651 further north (West et al. 1985). There are almost twice as many estuaries in southern
652 NSW (89) than there are in northern NSW (55) with concomitant distances between
653 major estuary systems greater in northern NSW than further south. For example, there
654 are just 12 estuaries in the ~150 km between the major estuary systems Tweed and
655 Clarence Rivers in northern NSW (~28-29°S). In comparison, over a comparable
656 distance between the Shoalhaven River and Wagonga Inlet systems in southern NSW
657 (~35-36°S), there are 34 estuaries. Because of the demonstrated importance of
658 estuaries for *A. japonicus* (Taylor et al. 2006, Cowley et al. 2008, Næsje et al. 2012,

659 Taylor et al. 2014), the small number of individuals which do move are therefore
660 likely to move between estuary systems. Combined with the overall small scale of
661 movement and low degree of multiple estuary use in southern NSW, it is thus likely
662 that any inter-estuarine movements are more likely to occur between estuaries that are
663 in close proximity to one another, as occurs in southern NSW. The larger distances
664 moved by *A. japonicus* in northern NSW are therefore potentially related to the higher
665 degree of multiple estuary use, movement in both directions, and the increased
666 distances between estuaries in the region north of ~30°S.

667

668 This study contributes to a growing body of work which demonstrates the value that
669 can be added to studies of movement of recreationally-important fish species by the
670 involvement of anglers (e.g. Brodie et al. 2018, Fowler et al. 2018, Stewart et al.
671 2019). Primarily by utilising recreational anglers to report the capture of tagged
672 individuals, this study was able to examine the movements of *A. japonicus* at large
673 spatial and temporal scales (>1000 km over 30 years). Such scales would be difficult
674 to achieve in a cost-effective manner using many contemporary approaches (e.g.
675 radio, acoustic, or satellite tagging, otolith elemental or isotope composition,
676 parasites). This large spatio-temporal scale is particularly valuable for examining the
677 movements of species like *A. japonicus*, which this study has shown are capable of
678 occasional long-distance movements (100s of km) that may occur over extended time
679 periods (~5 years) because the chance of capturing such movements are greatly
680 increased.

681

682 However, despite the demonstrated value of angler-assisted tag-recapture datasets,
683 they do have several acknowledged biases and limitations (e.g. Arnason & Mills
684 1981, Gillanders et al. 2001, Dunlop et al. 2013, Gil et al. 2017). One such bias in the
685 current dataset concerns the spatial variability in patterns of recreational fisher effort
686 which may have influenced relative release and recapture patterns (Bacheler et al.
687 2009, Fowler et al. 2018). In this study, patterns of *A. japonicus* recaptures suggested
688 that recreational fisher effort was likely higher in some key estuaries such as the
689 Richmond (~28°S), Clarence (~29°S), Hawkesbury (~33°S) and Shoalhaven Rivers
690 (~34°S), than elsewhere in eastern Australia. When combined with the strong site
691 fidelity demonstrated for the species here, anecdotal evidence regarding the popularity
692 of these estuaries with recreational *A. japonicus* fishers (West 1992), could have

693 resulted in shorter distances being estimated between tagging and recapture, because
694 individuals released in these specific estuaries were more likely to be recaptured there
695 than at locations further away. Ultimately however, fine-scale recreational fishing
696 surveys (e.g. Steffe et al. 2007) would be required to fully understand spatial and
697 temporal patterns in effort for *A. japonicus* in this region at the spatial scale of
698 individual estuaries to detect, and correct for, such a bias. Even when appropriately
699 trained, using anglers to carry out the tagging effort in tag-recapture studies may also
700 result in higher post-release mortality and tag loss than when carried out by trained
701 scientists, due to a lack of experience and the consequent use of suboptimal handling
702 and tagging procedures. *Argyrosomus japonicus* are also a species which are
703 particularly susceptible to barotrauma which does affect their survival after tagging,
704 even over long periods post-release (Hughes & Stewart 2013, Hughes et al. 2019). In
705 the current study, more than 40% of *A. japonicus* individuals were tagged by anglers,
706 with the remainder tagged by researchers. This may have increased mortality of fish
707 tagged offshore, reducing recapture rates from this environment. Although the above
708 issues could not be specifically addressed in the current study, none of them would be
709 expected to influence estimates of actual distances moved.

710

711 The fisheries for *A. japonicus* in NSW have been in decline since at least the mid-
712 1970s and the 'East Coast' genetic stock has been assessed to be 'depleted' or
713 'overfished' since the early-2000s (Silberschneider et al. 2009). Despite substantial
714 management changes implemented to arrest the decline in commercial and
715 recreational fisheries for *A. japonicus* in NSW, the stock continues to remain in a
716 'depleted' state (Earl et al. 2018). This situation may partly relate to findings from our
717 work which demonstrates that despite being capable of moving long distances, *A.*
718 *japonicus* generally exhibits extremely restricted movement patterns and strong
719 estuarine site fidelity in this region, a combination of features which have previously
720 been suggested to result in increased vulnerability to exploitation for the species in
721 South Africa (Childs et al. 2015). Such increased vulnerability is potentially
722 manifested in the high (15.1%) recapture rate recorded for *A. japonicus* in this study,
723 a rate more than double that of any other species tagged as part of the NSW Gamefish
724 Tagging Program (NSW DPI 2020). In the presence of spatially variable historical
725 fishing pressure and environmental gradients, such limited connectivity may have led
726 to demographic population structuring at spatial scales (<10 km) which are potentially

727 several orders of magnitude smaller than the current 'jurisdictional' scale of
728 management (>1000 km) for the species in this region. A re-examination of the
729 appropriateness of current spatial scales of assessment and management for *A.*
730 *japonicus* in eastern Australia is therefore strongly recommended with future
731 assessment and management potentially required at substantially smaller spatial scales
732 (e.g. individual estuaries or catchments) in order to sustain local fisheries.

733

734 This conclusion is consistent with the increasing evidence that species from disparate
735 fish families which exhibit limited movement can drive small-scale demographic
736 population structuring, even if some individuals demonstrate movement abilities over
737 much larger spatial scales (e.g. *Mugil cephalus*; Fowler et al. 2016, *Arripis trutta*;
738 Hughes et al. 2016, *Sardinops sagax*; Izzo et al. 2017, *Pseudocaranx georgianus*;
739 Fowler et al. 2018, *Chrysophrys auratus*; Stewart et al. 2019). An in-depth
740 understanding of such population sub-structuring and patterns of connectivity are
741 therefore integral to successful holistic fisheries management practices (Begg et al.
742 1999, Goethel et al. 2011, Ferguson et al. 2011). This study demonstrates how
743 traditional tag-recapture studies can contribute to this understanding of the
744 demography of species with broad distributions and high swimming abilities instead
745 of more expensive and computationally-intensive approaches such as acoustic
746 telemetry or otolith chemistry. This study also highlights the importance of citizen
747 science in the cost-effective generation of a dataset with sufficiently large spatio-
748 temporal coverage to detect the overall small-scale of movement revealed here.

749

797

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