

1 Mass mortality of eastern oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*) in the western Mississippi Sound
2 following unprecedented Mississippi River flooding in 2019

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23 **Abstract**

24 Globally, precipitation is expected to increase along with the rise of temperatures due to
25 climate change, increasing the likelihood of freshwater intrusion into coastal ecosystems. In the
26 spring and summer of 2019, heavy rainfall and snowmelt in the midwestern United States caused
27 historic flooding of the Mississippi River, warranting two openings of the Bonnet Carré Spillway
28 (BCS) to reduce pressure on levees in New Orleans, Louisiana. These openings released an
29 unprecedented volume of freshwater into Lake Pontchartrain, and subsequently into the
30 Mississippi Sound. This study investigated the impacts of these freshwater releases on eastern
31 oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) populations and water quality in the western Mississippi Sound
32 and the Bay of St. Louis. Platforms housing oysters and water quality sensors that measured
33 dissolved oxygen, salinity, and temperature, were deployed at oyster reef sites. At each reef,
34 native oyster populations were assessed via dredge sampling to determine oyster survival. After
35 13 days, deployed oysters suffered 100% mortality at all sites except Henderson Point Reef and
36 Kittiwake Reef, the sites farthest east of the BCS. On 27 September 2019, 62 days following the
37 BCS closing, dredge sampling revealed no live native adult oysters or spat, even at sites where
38 living oysters were collected earlier in the summer. If BCS openings increase in frequency or
39 duration due to elevated precipitation, oyster populations in Mississippi could remain
40 unsustainable for harvesting unless future freshwater intrusions are incorporated into
41 management planning.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Disturbances to coastal ecosystems due to climate change, such as elevated temperature,
45 ocean acidification, sea level rise and frequency and/or severity of storms, are predicted to

46 increase dramatically over the next several decades (Hoegh-Guldberg & Bruno 2010, Fischer et
47 al. 2014, Wong et al. 2014). Due to their proximity to land and natural sources of freshwater
48 influx, estuaries often experience high fluctuations in environmental conditions, such as
49 dissolved oxygen (DO), temperature, and salinity, and these interact with local anthropogenic
50 stressors, such as biological invasions, habitat disturbance, eutrophication and pollution, to affect
51 survival of marine organisms in estuarine environments (Lenihan & Peterson 1998, Ko et al.
52 2014, Tweedley et al. 2015, Cheng et al. 2017, Pusack et al. 2019). As global temperatures rise,
53 both storm intensities and precipitation rates associated with tropical cyclones are predicted to
54 increase, which will affect estuarine environments adversely (Knutson et al. 2010, Sobel et al.
55 2016, Liu et al. 2019). Independent of tropical cyclones, heavy precipitation events have also
56 increased as a result of a warming climate (Peterson et al. 2008, Lehmann et al. 2015). As storms
57 grow in strength, frequency, and produce more rain, their potential to cause human fatalities and
58 severe economic losses due to flooding, also increases (Pielke et al. 2008, Rappaport 2014).

59 In 2019, the Mississippi River basin experienced one of the wettest years in recorded
60 history (Frederick 2019, NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information 2019),
61 resulting in severe flooding. In Greenville, Mississippi, the Mississippi River remained at flood
62 stage for a record-breaking five months, finally subsiding on 21 July 2019 (Erdman 2019). At
63 Red River Landing, Louisiana, flood stage lasted for 226 days from 28 December 2018 to 10
64 August 2019 (National Weather Service 2019). In May 2019, a total of 68 river gauges in the
65 Mississippi River Basin recorded their highest levels ever (Erdman 2019). The 2019 flood broke
66 records set only by the ‘Great Mississippi Flood of 1927’, which inundated roughly 27,000
67 square miles with approximately 30 feet of water (Risk Management Solutions 2007).

68 In 1931, in response to the flood of 1927, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers constructed
69 the Bonnet Carré Spillway (BCS), a flood control structure at the southern end of the Mississippi
70 River system that reduces the threat of flooding in the New Orleans area by diverting a portion of
71 Mississippi River flow into Lake Pontchartrain (Lane et al. 2001). Prior to 2008, the BCS had
72 been opened only eight times during high water events, but the openings have become more
73 frequent as increased precipitation and subsequent flooding has threatened the areas surrounding
74 the lower Mississippi River. More recently, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers has opened the
75 BCS during spring or summer months in 2008 (31 days), 2011 (42 days), 2016 (22 days), and
76 2018 (30 days) (US Army Corps of Engineers, New Orleans District 2019: Table 1). On 27
77 February 2019, Mississippi River water levels reached heights sufficient to warrant opening the
78 BCS for 44 days, with a maximum flow rate of 213,000 ft³/s, finally closing on 11 April 2019.
79 Approximately one month later, the Mississippi River again reached dangerous heights,
80 warranting a second spillway opening on 10 May 2019. This second opening lasted 79 days, with
81 a maximum flow rate of 161,000 ft³/s, finally closing on 27 July 2019 (US Army Corps of
82 Engineers, New Orleans District 2019). The BCS openings in 2019 represent the first time in
83 history that the spillway was opened in two consecutive years (2018 and 2019), and twice in the
84 same year (2019).

85 As a result of this extreme flooding event, an unprecedented volume of freshwater from
86 the Mississippi River was released through the BCS into Lake Pontchartrain and subsequently
87 into the Mississippi Sound. While there are clear policy rationales for diverting flooding away
88 from residential areas in Louisiana, these freshwater intrusions can have devastating impacts on
89 coastal ecosystems. Studies of Mississippi coastal water quality following the 2008 and 2011
90 openings of the BCS found frequent development of bottom water hypoxia, which is known to

91 impact marine organisms negatively (Ho et al. 2019). In addition to hypoxia, increased
92 abundances of *Vibrio cholerae*, a potentially deadly human pathogen endemic to coastal waters
93 that favors low salinity, were confirmed in Mississippi waters following the 2011 opening of the
94 BCS (Griffitt & Grimes 2013). According to economic assessments and recovery models,
95 commercial oyster harvest landings in Mississippi were estimated to have suffered \$21.8 – 46
96 million in losses following the 2011 BCS opening (Posadas & Posadas 2017).

97 Extended freshwater intrusion events into estuarine systems clearly have negative
98 impacts on both water quality and estuarine life (NOAA Fisheries 2019, Spraggins 2019), not
99 only due to the low salinity itself, but also due to an influx of excess nutrients and other
100 pollutants from agricultural and urban runoff (Turner et al. 2002, Bargu et al. 2011). Excess
101 nutrients can cause harmful algal blooms (HAB) which can impact estuarine organisms, human
102 health, commercial fishing, and tourism due to beach closures (Ansari et al. 2011, Mississippi
103 Department of Environmental Quality 2019). Following the 1997 opening of the BCS, an
104 expansive HAB of *Anabaena circinalis* and *Microcystis aeruginosa* persisted for approximately
105 two months in Lake Pontchartrain after the closing of the spillway, and resulted in extensive fish
106 kills and subsequent decomposition-induced hypoxia (Lane et al. 2001).

107 The eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) is an estuarine species that provides numerous
108 ecosystem services, including enhancement of biodiversity, water quality improvement,
109 shoreline stabilization, and is an important economic resource to coastal economies (Cressman et
110 al. 2003, Peterson et al. 2003, Grabowski et al. 2012). On the Louisiana Gulf Coast, oyster
111 landings have an inverse relationship with Mississippi River discharge (Turner 2006). Variability
112 in salinity can impact oyster reproduction, larval recruitment and settlement, feeding ability, and
113 susceptibility to parasitism and predation (La Peyre et al. 2003, Pollack et al. 2011, Pusack et al.

114 2019). The threat of extended freshwater events could ultimately result in the loss of important
115 oyster reef ecosystem services that are vital to healthy and productive estuarine ecosystems.

116 The focus of this study was to investigate how the 2019 openings of the BCS impacted
117 oyster populations in the western Mississippi Sound by assessing mortality of deployed and
118 native oysters at sites representing an easterly distance gradient from the BCS over time. In
119 addition to oyster mortality, *in situ* water quality parameters such as salinity, temperature, and
120 DO were also measured at these sites during and following the freshwater intrusion event.

121

122 **Materials and Methods**

123 **Oyster collection and maintenance**

124 Oysters (*C. virginica*) were obtained from the Auburn University Shellfish Laboratory in
125 Bayou La Batre (Dauphin Island, AL) in early April 2019. Oysters were transported to the Gulf
126 Coast Research Laboratory (Ocean Springs, MS) and placed in a flow-through holding tank
127 supplied with water from Davis Bayou, where salinity and temperature were similar to their
128 previous holding conditions. Oysters were held overnight in the tank before being placed into
129 sensor platforms and deployed in the field on 23 April 2019.

130 **Field deployment and water quality measurements**

131 Field deployment began on 23 April 2019 (T-0), following the first 2019 opening of the
132 BCS, continued through the entire second opening of the year and for two months beyond, for a
133 total of 157 days. Twenty oysters were selected randomly from holding tanks and placed in each
134 of 12 oyster sensor platforms (Bell 2019). Sensor platforms were equipped with water quality
135 sensors (HOBOWare® loggers; Onset Computer, Bourne, MA, USA) that measured DO (U26-
136 001), conductivity (U24-002-C), and temperature (measured by both the DO and conductivity

137 loggers) for the duration of the deployment, and housed oysters on trays enclosed within crates
138 on each platform, with holes to allow adequate water flow (Fig. 1). Two platforms were
139 deployed at each of six field sites (Fig. 2) along the Mississippi Gulf Coast from 23 April – 6
140 May 2019 (T-1): a site with no oyster reef in the back of Bay St. Louis (Back Bay St. Louis:
141 30°21'03.6"N, 89°21'16.8"W), The Nature Conservancy (TNC) Bay St. Louis Reef
142 (30°20'42.2"N, 89°17'41.5"W), St. Stanislaus Reef (30°18'02.7"N, 89°19'10.7"W), Waveland
143 Reef (30°16'22.7"N, 89°22'12.9"W), Henderson Point Reef (30°17'33.5"N, 89°16'16.1"W), and
144 Kittiwake Reef (30°19'56.8"N, 89°09'54.7"W). Following T-1, sensor platforms at Back Bay St.
145 Louis and St. Stanislaus Reef were relocated temporarily for a separate study. On 24 May 2019
146 (T-2), after the 31 days of oyster deployment, ten sensor platforms were moved to the TNC Bay
147 St. Louis Reef to record water quality for the remainder of the freshwater event, and a pH sensor
148 (HOBOWare® MX2501) was attached to one of the sensor platforms. The sensor platforms were
149 recovered on 27 September 2019 (T-3).

150 In addition to the *in situ* sensors on the platforms, a YSI™ Professional Plus Handheld
151 Multiparameter meter (6050000, Xylem Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA) was used to measure
152 water quality at each site on every sampling day. Unless otherwise indicated, two measurements
153 were taken, one at the surface for which the probe was submerged just below the surface of the
154 water and one at the bottom. Parameters measured included: temperature, conductivity, dissolved
155 oxygen, salinity, and pH (Table 2). Data from the *in situ* conductivity logger were extracted as
156 specific conductance and converted to salinity using calibration points collected from the
157 multimeter data in Table 2. To evaluate the spatial and temporal scale of freshwater intrusion
158 across the broader Mississippi Gulf Coast during the study period, *in situ* salinity data were

159 extracted from United States Geological Survey (USGS) monitoring sites (USGS National Water
160 Information System 2019).

161 **Deployed and native oyster mortality**

162 Deployed oyster mortality in each platform was recorded after 13 days (6 May 2019: T-1)
163 and 31 days (24 May 2019: T-2) of *in situ* exposure in each platform. To assess survival in native
164 oyster populations, three dredge transects were conducted at each field site except for Henderson
165 Point Reef, where six dredge transects were conducted due to its larger size. Each transect was
166 305 m long x 0.61 m wide (186.05 m²). Following each dredge pull, the numbers of live and
167 dead adult and juvenile (spat) oysters were counted. Oysters that were gaping, had both valves
168 attached, and would not close their valves were counted as dead. Results are reported in percent
169 living adults or spat per square meter.

170

171 **Results**

172 **Water quality measurements**

173 Back Bay St. Louis, TNC Bay St. Louis Reef, St. Stanislaus Reef, and Waveland Reef all
174 experienced salinities of < 1 from 23 April to 24 May 2019 (Table 2). The two reef sites farthest
175 east of the spillway, Henderson Point Reef and Kittiwake Reef, had salinities of 3.14 and 4.21,
176 respectively, on 23 April 2019. Throughout the deployment, even these easternmost reefs
177 showed a steady decrease in salinity, reaching salinities as low as 0.18 and 0.48, respectively, by
178 31 days post-deployment (24 May 2019). Measurements obtained on 27 September 2019, 63
179 days following the second closing of the spillway, showed recovery of salinity to 15 – 21 at all
180 sites (Table 2). Salinity data from *in situ* sensors were in concordance with YSI™ multimeter
181 measurements. From 23 April – 24 May 2019, *in situ* sensors measuring salinity at TNC Bay St.

182 Louis Reef recorded extremely low salinities of ≤ 2 , which was sustained for approximately
183 three months. These sensors captured a temporary peak in salinity when Hurricane Barry made
184 landfall in Mississippi on 13 July 2019, but salinity quickly (3 d) returned to the prior low levels.
185 Following the second closing of the BCS on 27 July 2019, salinity increased gradually to normal
186 concentrations over ~60 days (Fig. 3). Similarly, USGS sensors at Rigolets and St. Joseph Island
187 Light, the two sites closest to the BCS (Fig. 4a), recorded a prolonged period of low salinity (<
188 5), comparable to data from the oyster sensor platforms (Fig. 4b). In contrast, at Biloxi Bay and
189 Gulfport Light, the easternmost sites, salinity dropped to < 5 for only a few weeks at the
190 beginning of the second BCS opening (Fig. 4c).

191 **Deployed and native oyster mortality**

192 Percent mortality of the 20 deployed oysters deployed in each of the 12 oyster sensor
193 platforms was calculated for each site at T-1 and T-2. There was 100% mortality after 13 days of
194 deployment (25 days following the first closing of the BCS) at all sites except Henderson Point
195 Reef (62.5% mortality) and Kittiwake Reef (30% mortality), the two most distant reefs from the
196 BCS. At T-1, all live oysters remaining in the sensor platforms at Henderson Point Reef were
197 collected for another study. At T-3 (14 days following the second opening of the BCS), the
198 remaining oysters at Kittiwake Reef suffered an additional 14.3% mortality, resulting in an
199 overall loss of 35% over the 31 days at that site.

200 Dredge sampling on 24 May 2019 (T-2) revealed the largest proportions of dead adult
201 and spat oysters at Waveland Reef and TNC Bay St. Louis Reef (Fig. 5a). Of oysters sampled at
202 Waveland Reef, the site closest to the spillway, 98% of adult oysters and 86.4% of spat collected
203 were dead. At St. Stanislaus Reef, despite 100% mortality of deployed oysters, dredge sampling
204 revealed 77% dead adult oysters and 32.9% dead spat. At TNC Bay St. Louis Reef, 100% of

205 adult oysters and 77.8% of spat collected were dead. The greatest number of live native oysters
206 at T-2 was at Henderson Point Reef, where nearly 80 live adults (9.6% dead) and > 200 live spat
207 (7.5% dead) were collected in dredges (Fig. 5a). More dredge pulls (n = 6) were performed at
208 this site due to its large size, but when standardized by area, the live oyster population was still
209 highest at this site, with St. Stanislaus Reef having the second highest calculated average density
210 of both adults and spat. Surprisingly, there were no live native oysters collected by dredging at
211 Kittiwake Reef at T-2. Dredge data from 24 May 2019 are reported as population density and
212 percent live and dead oysters (Fig. 5).

213 Due to a HAB and associated water contact warnings issued for the Mississippi Gulf
214 Coast from July 2019 through the summer, as a result of the BCS openings, it was not possible to
215 return to these field sites until 27 September 2019 (T-3), two months following the second
216 closing of the BCS. At T-3, follow-up dredge sampling yielded no live native oysters at any of
217 the five reef sites, despite the recovery of salinity to ≥ 15 .

218

219 **Discussion**

220 Spring and summer of 2019 marked first time that the BCS was opened twice in one year,
221 as well as the first time that the spillway was opened in two consecutive years. These openings of
222 the BCS resulted in detrimental impacts on marine habitats of the Mississippi Gulf Coast,
223 causing the declaration of an Unusual Mortality Event of dolphins (NOAA Fisheries 2019), a
224 HAB that represented a risk to human health both through recreational and seafood consumption
225 exposure (Mississippi Department of Environmental Quality 2019), and local testimonies of
226 decimated oyster populations (e.g., Lee 2019, Spraggins 2019).

227 In typical years, the Mississippi Sound is a well-mixed estuary fringed with brackish salt
228 marshes with various natural freshwater inputs and salinities ranging from 5 – 20 in nearshore
229 areas heavily influenced by local rivers, and 20 – 25 in offshore areas with greater exposure to
230 Gulf of Mexico (GoM) waters (Orlando et al. 1993, Griffitt & Grimes 2013). Oysters can tolerate
231 a wide range of salinities, from roughly 5 to 40, with an optimal range of 14 to 28 (Galtsoff
232 1964). Oysters have their greatest potential for growth and reproduction in typical Gulf Coast
233 estuarine salinities within this range (Shumway 1996). During the 2019 freshwater intrusion
234 event, salinities dropped well below this range of oyster tolerance, to as low as 0.18 to 4.21.
235 Because of the low salinity, deployed oysters experienced 100% mortality by 13 days of
236 deployment (25 days after the first closing of the BCS) at the four sites closest to the BCS. In
237 contrast, at T-1, there was 37.5 – 70% survival of deployed oysters at the two easternmost sites,
238 where salinities measured 1 – 3. Although all remaining live deployed oysters at Henderson
239 Point Reef were harvested at T-1, live oysters remained in the sensor platforms at Kittiwake Reef
240 at 31 days of deployment (T-2; 14 days after the second opening of the BCS).

241 Generally, oysters are resilient in the face of large salinity fluctuations due to their ability
242 to osmoconform, and can tolerate stressful salinity conditions for short periods of time by closing
243 their valves. Extended periods of valve closure, however, results in mortality either from hypoxia
244 and acidosis of the hemolymph or from starvation (La Peyre et al. 2013, Lavaud et al. 2017).
245 Deployed oyster survival at Kittiwake Reef may have been higher due to the more gradual
246 decline in salinity relative to sites closer to the BCS. When exposed to a rapid decline in salinity
247 to < 1 , oysters were not able to acclimate, as seen by the 100% mortality of deployed oysters at
248 all other field sites. In a laboratory study in which salinity was gradually reduced to < 1 over a
249 period of 48 hr, oysters in the low salinity treatments showed no significant difference in

250 mortality when compared to controls following three weeks of exposure to freshwater (La Peyre
251 et al. 2003).

252 Historically, oyster reefs in the western Mississippi Sound were among the most
253 productive reefs in the GoM. In spite of declining oyster landings over the past several decades
254 (Posadas 2015), between 2006 and 2012, Mississippi Department of Marine Resource oyster
255 sampling recorded an average of 74 oysters (shell size > 25mm) per square meter across several
256 subtidal reefs (Mississippi Department of Environmental Quality, National Fish and Wildlife
257 Foundation 2016), a density two orders of magnitude greater than in this study (Fig. 5). Although
258 these reefs have been impacted severely by stressful environmental conditions, recovery of the
259 native oyster populations is vital in order to regain the benefits of the valuable ecosystem
260 services they provide (e.g., Peterson et al. 2003).

261 Eastern oyster recruitment generally occurs in spring and summer, when temperatures
262 reach $\geq 25^{\circ}\text{C}$ and salinities range from 10-30 (Dekshenieks et al. 1993); however, warmer
263 temperatures, combined with low salinity, can be lethal to oysters. Extended periods of low
264 salinity (< 5) during warmer summer months ($> 25^{\circ}\text{C}$) has caused significant negative impacts
265 on oyster spawning, settlement, growth, and survival in the northern GoM (La Peyre et al.,
266 2013). In the same study, La Peyre et al. (2013) found that at temperatures $< 25^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the spring
267 and early summer, low salinity conditions still affected recruitment negatively, while mortality
268 and growth were less impacted. Temperatures over the course of the monitoring dates ranged
269 between 24 and 29 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Table 2), suggesting that the high mortality suffered by native oyster
270 populations could have been exacerbated by the combination of extremely low salinity and warm
271 temperatures. Furthermore, oysters were unlikely to spawn in these conditions (Shumway 1996).

272 Despite 100% mortality of native oyster populations at all five reef sites in this study, the
273 hard substrate produced by their shells remains. If oyster larvae encounter these reefs, they could
274 settle upon the remaining dead oyster shells, providing an opportunity for natural recovery.
275 Spawning and settlement are critical to ensuring the longevity and success of native oyster
276 populations, and consequences of limited recruitment could affect the future availability of hard
277 substrate for larval oysters to settle on, future population viability, and ultimately the availability
278 of market-sized oysters for harvest and reproduction (Supan & Wilson 2001, Powell et al. 2009).
279 Additionally, if restoration efforts are successful in other locations in the GoM, larval
280 recruitment could increase through connectivity to the Mississippi Sound (e.g., Reeb & Avise
281 1990).

282 Because hypoxia and extended freshwater intrusion have been demonstrated to impact
283 oyster reefs negatively (Turner 2006, Jeppesen et al. 2018), long-term *in situ* water quality
284 monitoring is essential to identify areas suitable for restoration. This study clearly demonstrates
285 the decimation of oyster reefs caused by the extended freshwater release flowing east from the
286 BCS at least as far as Kittiwake Reef (approximately 120 km from the BCS). Further, the Gulf
287 Coast Research Laboratory recorded that the freshwater intrusion extended to their easternmost
288 station, approximately 180 km from the BCS, near Pascagoula, MS in July 2019 (Gulf Coast
289 Research Laboratory 2019). Oceanographic data collected by the USGS indicate that sites farther
290 east in the Mississippi Sound exhibited less dramatic declines in salinity and for shorter
291 durations, with more rapid recovery than sites in the western Mississippi Sound (Fig. 4, USGS
292 National Water Information System 2019).

293 Historically, oyster populations in Mississippi have been able to recover from naturally
294 occurring environmental stressors, but have been less resilient to anthropogenic stressors. For

295 example, oyster landings declined after Hurricane Katrina in 2005, but returned to pre-storm
296 levels within three years (Mississippi Department of Marine Resources 2019). After the
297 Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill in 2010, oyster harvest was halted due to the potential for oil
298 contamination. Since then, harvests have remained at < 80,000 sacks per year, a > 75% decline
299 from 2009, and the threats of overharvesting and climate change are only increasing (Mississippi
300 Department of Marine Resources 2019). Heavy rainfall events have increased in the past several
301 decades, with the twelve months preceding February 2019 recorded as the wettest period in 124
302 years over the upper Midwestern U.S. (Kunkel et al. 2003, Groisman et al. 2004, Frederick
303 2019), ultimately resulting in the unprecedented dual openings of the BCS in 2019. Models
304 predict that most of the globe will experience a 16-24% increase in heavy precipitation intensity
305 by 2100 due to climate change (Sun et al. 2007, Fischer et al. 2014). Therefore, the frequency of
306 the BCS openings could increase in the future. An abrupt spike in salinity was observed when
307 Hurricane Barry made landfall on the Mississippi Gulf Coast on 13 July 2019 (Fig. 3), but
308 salinity quickly returned to extreme lows the following week. This increase in salinity suggests
309 some potential for hurricanes to alleviate salinity stress temporarily in estuaries due to wind-
310 induced mixing. Still, hurricanes can bring heavy rainfall and enhance erosion of coastlines and
311 river basins, likely increasing particulate matter and contaminant runoff into coastal areas
312 (Bianucci et al. 2018) which could impact resident oyster populations negatively.

313 The results of this study clearly demonstrate the widespread decimation of oyster reefs in
314 the western Mississippi Sound due to the unprecedented freshwater release from the 2019 BCS
315 openings. Whereas these openings were unique to date, BCS openings should be expected to
316 increase in frequency under climate change scenarios that predict increasing extreme flooding
317 events. Water quality in the eastern Mississippi Sound is impacted less heavily by freshwater

318 intrusion from BCS openings than in the western region. Thus, oyster management on the
319 Mississippi Gulf Coast should focus oyster reef restoration efforts in locations less impacted by
320 low salinity stress. For oyster reef management to be successful, restoration of natural
321 populations may need to focus on areas farther east, or on more western coastlines, such as
322 Louisiana and Texas, that are “upstream” of the Mississippi River discharge into the GoM. In
323 addition, in-water aquaculture efforts should be established farther offshore (e.g., near the barrier
324 islands of Mississippi) where salinity is more stable. It is vital to understand how these
325 freshwater events impact native populations of oysters and other commercially important species
326 in the Mississippi Sound. Without careful consideration of future conditions, oyster reef habitat
327 could continue to diminish on the Mississippi Gulf Coast.

328

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343

344 **Conflicts of interest**

345 The authors have no conflict of interests.

346

347 **Compliance with ethical standards**

348 Research was conducted under Mississippi Department of Marine Resources Scientific Research
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350

351 **Availability of data and material**

352 Data from this study are hosted at <https://data.gulfresearchinitiative.org/> and can be accessed
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518 **Table 1.** Duration and maximum daily flow rates for Bonnet Carré Spillway openings from
519 2008-2019 (data from U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, New Orleans District 2019)

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Year	Days Open	Maximum Flow Rate (ft³ s⁻¹)
2008	31	114,286
2011	42	235,714
2016	22	203,000
2018	30	196,000
2019(1)	44	213,000
2019(2)	79	161,000

Table 2. Oceanographic data collected via handheld YSI multimeter at each field site in the Mississippi Sound on all sampling days.

Units: salinity (ppt), temperature (°C), dissolved oxygen (mg l⁻¹). NM = not measured

Site/Depth	Parameter	T-0 23-Apr-19		T-1 6-May-19		T-2 24-May-19		T-3 27-Sep-19	
		Surface	Bottom	Surface	Bottom	Surface	Bottom	Surface	Bottom
Back Bay St. Louis 1.34 m	Salinity	0.67	NM	0.4	.39	0.18	0.18	NM	
	Temperature	21.7	21.5	24.4	24.3	27.2	27.2		
	Dissolved Oxygen	9.84	10.03	7.66	7.2	7.14	7.04		
	pH	7.4	NM	7.49	7.33	7.28	7.12		
TNC Bay St. Louis Reef 1.49 m	Salinity	0.54	NM	0.64	0.64	0.14	0.19	15.3	15.3
	Temperature	22	21.5	24.7	24.6	27.4	27.4	28.3	28.4
	Dissolved Oxygen	10.71	10.03	7.5	7.41	7.36	7.23	8.55	7.9
	pH	8.5	NM	7.61	7.6	7.07	6.94	7.7	7.8
St. Stanislaus Reef 1.89 m	Salinity	0.4	NM	0.33	0.35	0.24	0.19	16.8	16.88
	Temperature	21.2	21	24.7	24.1	29.4	28.6	28.9	28.6
	Dissolved Oxygen	9.71	9.6	7.92	7.1	9.29	8.15	9.1	7.16
	pH	8.5	7.98	7.72	7.58	8.18	7.91	7.92	7.66
Waveland Reef 2.56 m	Salinity	0.32	NM	0.25	0.33	0.18	0.19	16.39	16.34
	Temperature	21.2	21.1	24.8	24.5	29.7	28.9	30.6	28.6
	Dissolved Oxygen	9.54	9.42	7.55	7.08	9.21	7.76	10.2	6.88
	pH	7.4	7.68	7.56	7.52	8.14	7.51	8.16	7.93
Henderson Point Reef 3.05 m	Salinity	3.14	NM	1.24	1.3	0.18	0.18	17.2	17.3
	Temperature	21.1	21.7	15	24.9	28.5	28.1	29.7	28.7
	Dissolved Oxygen	12.5	9.7	8.17	7.96	7.38	7.57	12.25	8.3
	pH	8.8	8.8	7.89	8	7.6	7.59	8.21	8.07
Kittiwake Reef 2.26 m	Salinity	4.21	NM	2.31	2.45	0.48	0.48	18.9	21.06
	Temperature	22.1	21.7	26	25.8	28.3	28.2	29.4	28.5
	Dissolved Oxygen	12.75	11.6	8.11	7.9	8.29	7.76	11.23	4.19
	pH	8.88	8.74	8.45	8.42	7.72	7.73	8.11	7.74

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Oyster sensor platform (a) exterior and (b) interior. Platforms were equipped with HOBOWare® water quality sensors that measured dissolved oxygen, conductivity, temperature and pH for the duration of the deployment. Oysters were housed on trays enclosed within crates on each platform, with holes to allow adequate water flow.

Figure 2. (a) Map of the Mississippi/Louisiana Gulf Coast. Black arrows depict the direction of freshwater flow from the BCS. (b) Map of sites where sensor platforms were deployed. (c) Timeline of sensor platform deployment in relation to the 2019 BCS openings.

Figure 3. *In situ* salinity measurements from sensors deployed at TNC Bay St. Louis Reef from 23 April 2019 to 27 September 2019. Highlighted period depicts spike in salinity due to Hurricane Barry, which made landfall on 13 July 2019.

Figure 4. (a) Map of USGS monitoring sites east from the BCS across the Mississippi Sound. *In situ* salinity at (b) three sites nearer the BCS (Rigolets, St. Joseph Island Light, Grand Pass), and (c) two farther sites (Gulfport Light, Biloxi Bay at Point Cadet Harbor). Highlighted areas show BCS openings (27 Feb – 11 April and 10 May – 27 July 2019). Data from USGS National Water Information System 2019.

Figure 5. (a) Population density of adult and spat oysters at the reefs where live native oysters were found on 24 May 2019. Bars represent mean population density \pm SEM ($n = 3-6$ dredge pulls per site). (b) Cumulative percentage of live (white) and dead (black) adult and spat oysters

collected by dredge pulls on 24 May 2019. Number above each bar represents the total number of oysters collected. Back Bay St. Louis is not an oyster reef site, and Kittiwake Reef yielded no live native oysters.

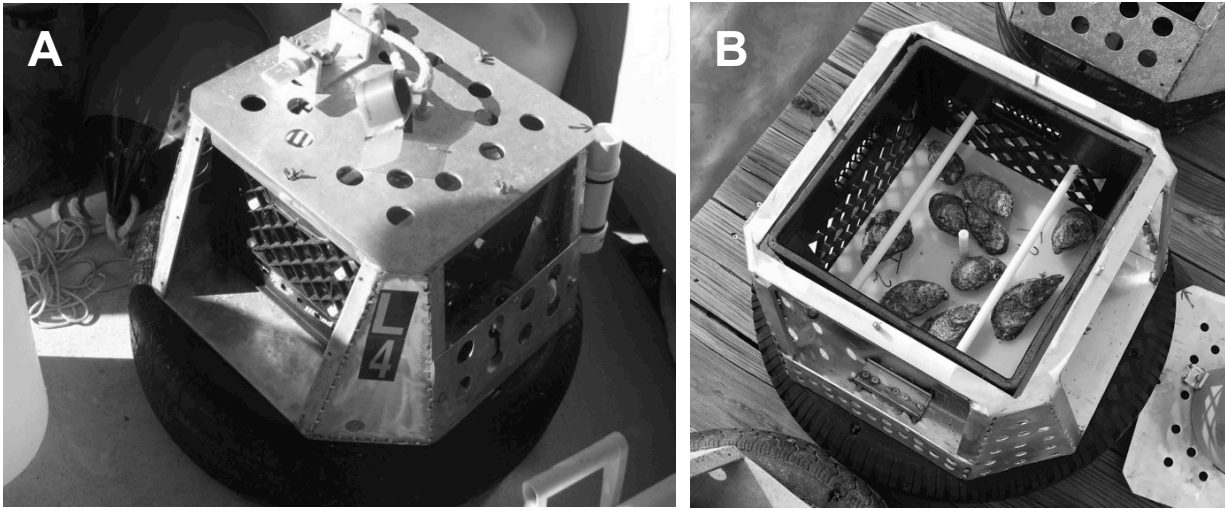


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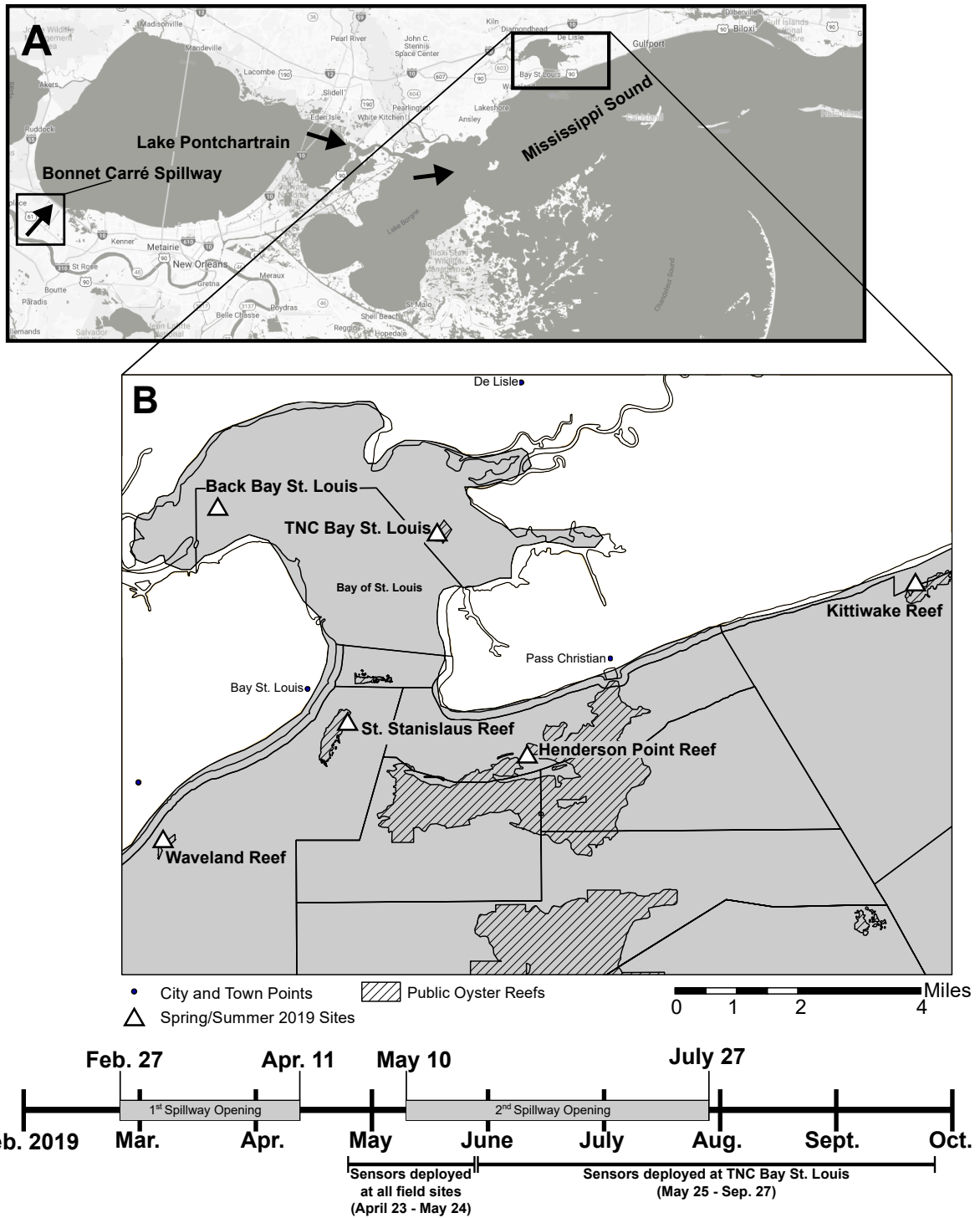


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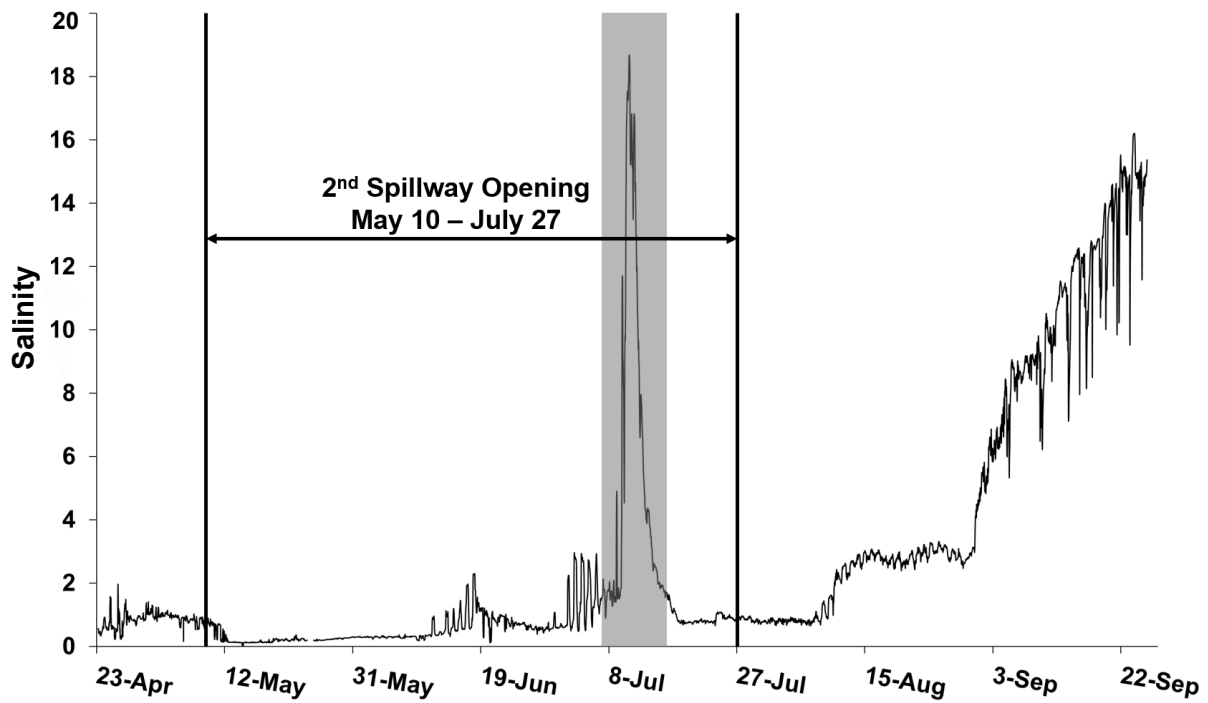


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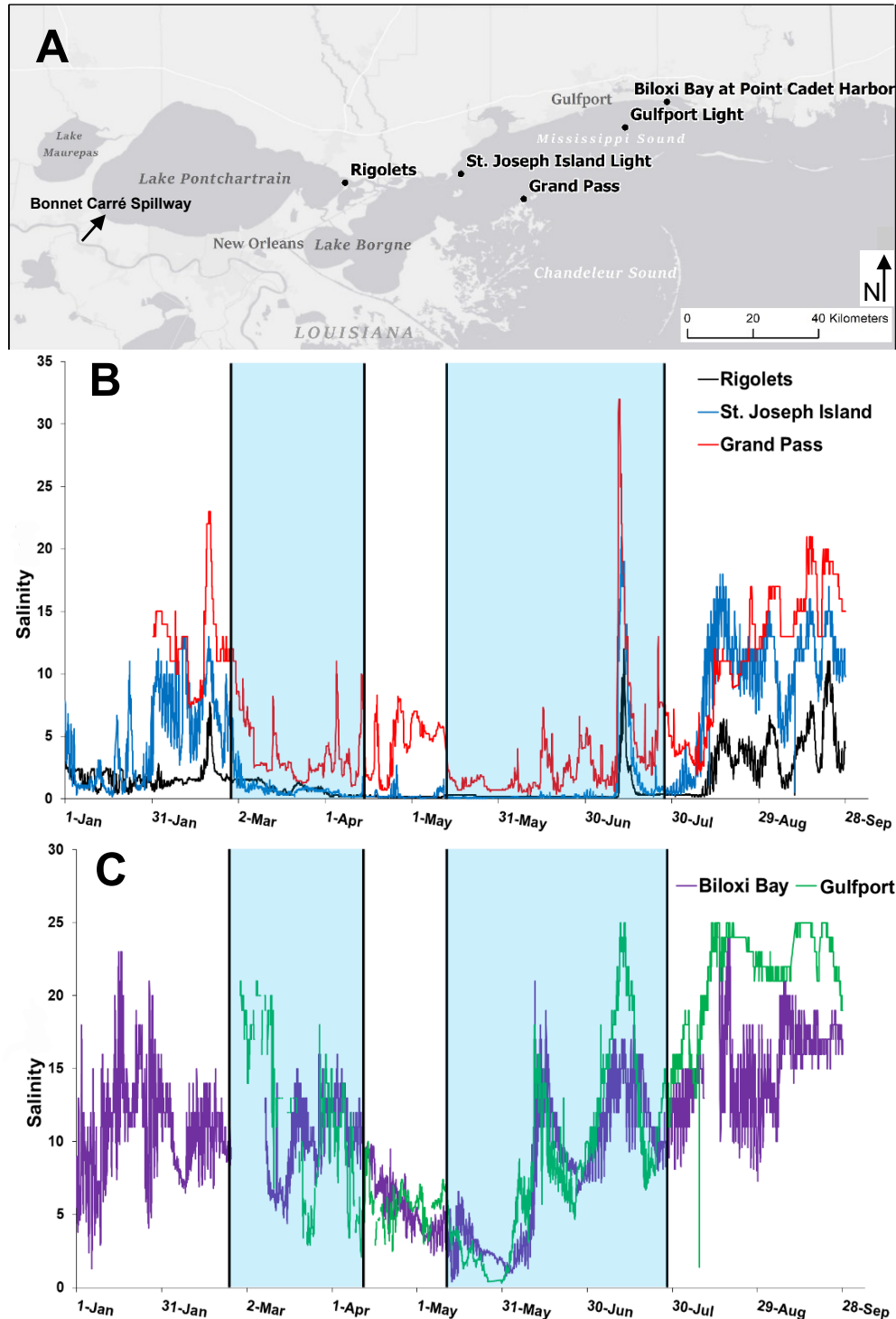


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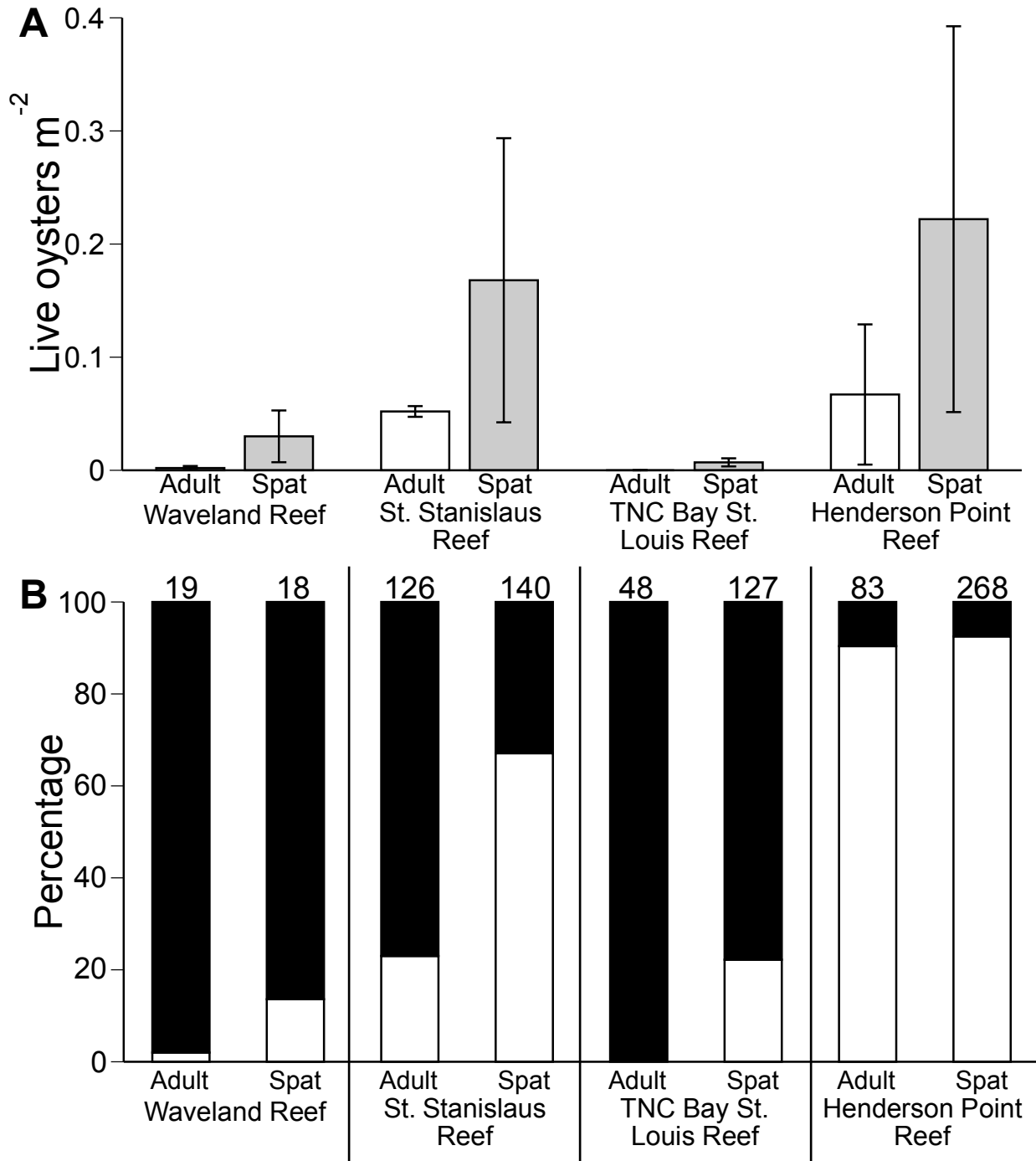


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