

1 **Title:**

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3 Estuarine molecular bycatch as a landscape-wide biomonitoring tool

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5 **Authors:**

6 Mariani S.¹, Harper L.R.¹, Collins R.A.², Baillie C.³, Wangensteen O.S.⁴, McDevitt A.D.³,
7 Heddell-Cowie M.⁵, Genner M.J.²

8

9 ¹ *School of Biological & Environmental Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University,*
10 *Liverpool L3 3AF, UK*

11 ² *School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, BS8 1TQ, UK*

12 ³ *School of Engineering & Environment, University of Salford, M5 4WT, UK*

13 ⁴ *Norwegian College of Fishery Science, Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø*

14 ⁵ *Fisheries, Biodiversity & Geomorphology, Environment Agency, Newcastle, NE4 7AR,*
15 *UK*

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24 Correspondence to:

25 *Stefano Mariani,*

26 *School of Biological & Environmental Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University,*

27 *Byrom Street Campus, Liverpool L3 3AF, UK*

28 s.mariani@liverpool.ac.uk

29

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38 **Author Contributions**

39 SM and MG conceived the study, OSW and MHC participated in sampling, OSW and CB
40 carried out lab work, LRH and RAC analysed the data, and SM and LRH drafted the
41 manuscript. All authors contributed to data interpretation.

42

43 **Abstract**

44 Environmental DNA analysis is rapidly transforming biodiversity monitoring and bolstering
45 conservation applications worldwide. This approach has been assisted by the
46 development of metabarcoding PCR primers that are suited for detection of a wide range
47 of taxa. However, little effort has gone into exploring the value of the non-target DNA
48 sequences that are generated in every survey, but subsequently discarded. Here we
49 demonstrate that fish-targeted markers widely employed in aquatic biomonitoring can also
50 detect birds and mammals present in the surrounding habitats. We showcase this feature
51 in three temperate estuaries over multiple seasons, where dozens of bird and mammal
52 species offer valuable insights into spatial and temporal faunal variation. Our results
53 indicate that existing metabarcode sequence data sets are suitable for mining and
54 exploration of this ‘molecular by-catch’, and that any future eDNA-based surveys can be
55 designed to accommodate this enhanced property of this widely applicable tool.

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58 **Keywords:**

59 biomonitoring, birds, coastal, conservation, environmental DNA, estuaries, mammals,
60 metabarcoding

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62

63 **Introduction**

64

65 The speed with which environmental DNA (eDNA) analysis has broadly permeated
66 biomonitoring studies worldwide is arguably unprecedented in the history of DNA-based
67 applications to environmental science (Hering et al. 2018; Tsuji et al. 2019). As is typically
68 the case with novel approaches, limitations and pitfalls have led to eDNA-based methods
69 facing much scrutiny, and technological developments remain the ongoing focus of a
70 thriving technical literature (Deiner et al. 2017; Harper et al. 2019a; Kelly et al. 2019;
71 Loeza-Quintana et al. 2020). However, for every caveat raised, elegant solutions are
72 proposed, and new advantages of the methods realised (Thomas et al. 2019; Salter et al.
73 2019; Russo et al. 2020).

74 Aquatic environments have been the main beneficiaries of this ‘eDNA revolution’,
75 largely owing to the utility of eDNA-based methods for exploring inherently poorly
76 accessible realms, and the relative ease of collecting water, within which DNA naturally
77 disperses, thus facilitating species detection. The utility of the methods ranges from the
78 relatively straightforward recovery of rare (Boussarie et al. 2018) and invasive (Imamura
79 et al. 2020) species, to more sophisticated inference on habitat gradients (Sigsgaard et al.
80 2019), productivity dynamics (Kelly et al. 2016; Djurhuus et al. 2020) and ecosystem
81 structure (Aglieri et al. 2020; Harper et al. 2020). It is now possible consider aquatic eDNA
82 as a useful tool for tackling some of the most pressing biodiversity conservation
83 challenges in a swift, affordable and standardised way, particularly given growing interest
84 in the generation and curation of reference DNA sequence databases. Moreover, the
85 utility of aquatic eDNA may stretch into biomonitoring of associated terrestrial habitats.
86 Recently, it has been shown that DNA retrieved from smaller water bodies can be used to
87 map the distribution of terrestrial mammals that are active in proximity of the aquatic
88 source (Harper et al. 2019b; Sales et al. 2020), suggesting water masses can act as
89 natural biodiversity ‘collectors’.

90 Fundamental to the success of multi-species eDNA investigations is the choice of the
91 genetic marker, which should be ‘universal’ across the whole taxonomic group of interest,
92 and ‘specific’ enough to minimise the amplification of DNA from non-target taxa (Collins et
93 al. 2019; Leese et al. 2020). As the most abundant and speciose vertebrate class on
94 Earth, bony fishes (Osteichthyes) have played a major role in the development and
95 consolidation of eDNA applications in marine and freshwater systems (McElroy et al.
96 2020), and there are now a widely recognised set of procedures that have proven
97 successful globally (Miya et al. 2020). Interestingly, even the most efficient ‘fish’ primers
98 tend to also amplify some DNA from other vertebrates, and whilst such components
99 typically amount to rather pervasive biological material shed by humans and farmed
100 animals (e.g. cattle, pig, chicken), they may sometimes unveil taxonomic records of
101 substantial ecological and conservation value (Mariani et al. 2019).

102 Here we explored the concept that eDNA in estuarine areas, at the interface between
103 land and sea, would originate from across the river drainage basin. We therefore
104 examined samples from three UK estuaries flowing into the North Sea, collected as part of
105 the routine monitoring operations of the UK Environment Agency, using a metabarcoding
106 workflow designed for teleosts. Results confirm the versatility of the assay, which, beyond
107 the 93 fish species identified as part of the primary survey, was also able to detect at least
108 32 birds and eight mammals, including marine, freshwater and terrestrial taxa as well as
109 endangered and exotic species. Spatial and temporal analyses also showed significant
110 variation in richness and community structure, which reflected the known landscape
111 features and seasonality of the studied region. We conclude that future eDNA monitoring
112 programmes along the coastal zone could harness this ‘molecular by-catch’ gathered by
113 estuaries as a valuable catchment-wide biodiversity assessment tool without incurring any
114 additional costs.

115

116 **Methods**

117 *Data Collection*

118 Sample locations included estuarine segments of the Rivers Tweed, Tees and Esk,
119 situated along the North Sea coast of Britain, between 55°46'N, 1°59'W and 54°29'N,
120 0°36'W. Sites mirrored those targeted by the regular TraC survey (Environment Agency
121 2020), which included three netting sites each in the Tweed and Esk estuaries, and two in
122 the Tees estuary. The Esk and Tees were surveyed in October 2016, May 2017 and
123 October 2017, whereas the Tweed was only sampled in May and October 2017. Three 2 L
124 water samples per site were collected immediately ahead of netting operations. Each
125 sample was filtered through a 0.22 µm Sterivex-GP PES filter (Merck Millipore) using a
126 100 mL polypropylene syringe, and the filters were stored at -20°C.

127 We extracted DNA from filters following the mu-DNA tissue protocol (Sellers et al.
128 2018) and PCR-amplified an approximately 167-bp fragment of the mitochondrial 12S
129 rRNA region using the fish-specific MiFish (Miya et al. 2015) and Teleo02 primers
130 (Taberlet et al. 2018). Each primer pair was designed with a unique 8-bp tag to facilitate
131 sample identification after sequencing. We then prepared three PCR-free, dual-indexed
132 libraries using the KAPA Hyper Prep Kit, which were quantified using qPCR, pooled in
133 equimolar concentrations, and loaded onto an Illumina MiSeq at 8pM concentration for
134 2x150-bp paired-end sequencing. Further details on laboratory procedures are in the
135 Supporting Information.

136 Raw reads were filtered for PCR primers and demultiplexed (tag required on both ends
137 of the amplicon, no mismatches allowed) into sample replicates using cutadapt v2.10
138 (Martin, 2011), followed by correction of Illumina sequencing errors (denoising) and quality
139 filtering (default settings), using dada2 v1.16 (Callahan et al. 2016), and removal of non-
140 homologous reads, using hmmer v3.1b2 (Eddy, 1998); further details can be found in
141 Collins et al. (2019). Taxonomic identification followed a two-step procedure: (1) we
142 obtained the NCBI RefSeq mitochondrion database v201
143 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/refseq/>) and used the syntax algorithm in vsearch v2.15.0
144 (Edgar, 2016; Rognes et al. 2016) to assign a rough taxonomy; (2) we then removed
145 reads assigned to fishes and used BLAST (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) to more

146 accurately identify the remaining reads based on conditions outlined in the Supporting
147 Information.

148

149 *Data analysis*

150 All downstream analyses were performed in R v.3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2020). The raw
151 data were summarised as the number of taxa and number of reads belonging to each
152 vertebrate groups across seasons within each estuary (Fig. S1). Subsequent refinement
153 of non-fish data, including removal of spurious taxa, correction of misassignments, false
154 positive removal (see Fig. S2), and noise mitigation using a sequence threshold, is fully
155 described in the Supporting Information. All fish assignments and corresponding reads
156 were then omitted for downstream analyses.

157 Sequence data for PCR replicates were then pooled across biological replicates from
158 each sampling location (Fig. S3), within each estuary. Sequence data for biological
159 replicates taken at each sampling location were then pooled, and a bubble plot
160 summarising eDNA detections in each estuary across different seasons produced (Fig. 1).
161 For comparison, this bubble plot was reproduced to include species whose tissue had
162 been sequenced in laboratories concurrently with this project and whose sequences were
163 removed from the present data set (Fig. S4; see also Appendix 2). The pooled sequence
164 data were converted to presence/absence using the *decostand* function in *vegan* v2.5-6
165 (Oksanen et al. 2019) for downstream analyses.

166 We investigated spatial variation in α - and β -diversity between estuaries, followed by
167 temporal variation in α - and β -diversity within each estuary, using the packages *vegan*
168 v2.5-6, *stats* v3.6.3, *FSA* v0.8.30 (Ogle et al. 2020), *iNEXT* v2.0.20 (Hsieh et al. 2016),
169 and *betapart* v1.5.1 (Baselga & Orme 2012). We define α -diversity as taxon richness of
170 individual sampling locations, and β -diversity as the difference between communities
171 present at each sampling location whilst accounting for taxon identity (Baselga & Orme
172 2012). β -diversity (Jaccard dissimilarity) was partitioned by community dissimilarity due to
173 taxon replacement (i.e. 'turnover') or taxon subsets (i.e. 'nestedness-resultant'). Details of

174 α - and β -diversity analyses are provided in the Supporting Information.

175

176 **Results**

177

178 Alongside 93 fish species, teleost eDNA metabarcoding recovered two amphibian, 51
179 bird, 51 mammal, and 13 invertebrate species from 78 water samples (Fig. S1a). Most
180 reads belonged to fishes, followed by mammals and birds (Table 1; Fig. S1b). After
181 dataset refinement, 32 birds (21 aquatic, 11 terrestrial) and eight mammals (three
182 aquatic, five terrestrial) remained in 69 (88.5%) water samples. This included 18 birds and
183 two mammals of conservation concern within Europe (Fig. 1).

184 The 69 remaining samples included 33, 16, and 20 water samples from the Esk, Tees,
185 and Tweed estuaries respectively were analysed. Alpha diversity differed across estuaries
186 ($H = 7.95$, $p = 0.018$), where taxon richness was lower in the Tees than the Esk ($Z =$
187 2.263 , $p = 0.036$) or Tweed ($Z = -2.715$, $p = 0.020$) (Fig. 2a). Taxon richness in the Esk
188 and Tweed did not significantly differ ($Z = -0.781$, $p = 0.435$). Rarefaction and
189 extrapolation curves indicated that lower taxon richness of the Tees may be due to
190 differences in sample size between estuaries (Fig. 2b).

191 Beta diversity in each estuary was driven by turnover as opposed to nestedness-
192 resultant (Table 2). MVDISP was present between estuaries for all β -diversity components
193 (Table 2). Estuary had a moderate positive influence on turnover (Fig. 2bi) and total β -
194 diversity (Fig. 2biii) of communities, but not nestedness-resultant (Fig. 2bii; Table 2),
195 generally indicating that a substantial proportion of taxa at a given estuary appear to be
196 replaced by different taxa at other estuaries.

197 Alpha diversity differed across seasons within the Esk estuary ($H = 20.635$, $p < 0.001$)
198 but not the Tees ($H = 1.298$, $p = 0.523$) or Tweed ($H = 1.364$, $p = 0.243$) estuaries (Fig.
199 3a). Taxon richness was higher in autumn (2016: $Z = 2.621$, $p = 0.013$; 2017: $Z = 4.537$, p
200 < 0.001) than spring in the Esk (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, taxon richness was comparable
201 between autumn 2016 and autumn 2017 in the Esk ($Z = -1.910$, $p = 0.056$).

202 Beta diversity of estuarine communities across seasons was also largely driven by
203 turnover, but nestedness-resultant played a greater role in some seasons. MVDISP was
204 absent between seasons for total β -diversity (Esk), turnover and total β -diversity (Tees),
205 and nestedness-resultant (Tweed) (Table S2). Season had a strong positive influence on
206 all β -diversity components for the Esk (Figs. 3bi, S5ai-iii), and on turnover (Figs. S5bi,
207 S5ci) and total β -diversity (Figs. 3bii-iii, S5biii, S5ciii) but not nestedness-resultant (Figs.
208 S5aii, S5bii, S5cii) for the Tees and Tweed (Table S2). Therefore, taxa detected in a given
209 season appear to be replaced by different taxa in other seasons within each estuary.

210

211 **Discussion**

212

213 Since the inception of eDNA-based biodiversity assessment, there has been an
214 emphasis on comparing detection performance with well-established biomonitoring
215 approaches that use capture, visual or acoustic identification (Jerde et al. 2011; Foote et
216 al. 2012; Thomsen et al. 2012; Yamamoto et al. 2016). The popularity of eDNA-based
217 analysis today owes much to the realisation that, in many important contexts, the new tool
218 offered significant advantages over conventional sampling methods, either through sheer
219 improvement of detection efficacy (Boussarie et al. 2018; McElroy et al. 2020), through
220 the discovery of its unique complementarity (Aglieri et al. 2020; Harper et al. 2020), or by
221 simply being less resource-intensive (Bálint et al. 2018; Aglieri et al. 2020). On the other
222 hand, little effort has gone into evaluating the intrinsically serendipitous nature of high-
223 throughput sequencing, which, irrespective of the metabarcoding markers chosen,
224 consistently yields substantial amounts of non-target sequences. Here we offer a
225 demonstration that non-target sequences from metabarcoding assays contain valuable
226 biodiversity information that can be harnessed, at no extra cost, from existing studies and
227 ongoing surveys, dramatically expanding the reach and value of eDNA-derived data for
228 conservation science.

229 We were able to conduct a multi-seasonal, parallel biodiversity survey from samples
230 collected and analysed in three estuaries for an unrelated purpose. From a data set
231 originally generated for monitoring coastal fish (Collins et al 2019; Siegenthaler et al 2019;
232 Table S1), we extracted a faunal list including 32 birds and eight mammals. Of these,
233 52.5% were taxa that are typical of coastal marine areas, such as oystercatcher
234 (*Haematopus ostralegus*), guillemot (*Uria algae*), common seal (*Phoca vitulina*), grey seal
235 (*Halichoerus grypus*) and harbour porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*). These species are
236 directly associated with the sampled habitat, but their presence at the time of sample
237 collection would not have been monitored by a fish-surveying team. Furthermore, some of
238 the detected species (e.g. whimbrel (*Numenius phaeopus*), white-fronted goose (*Anser*
239 *albifrons*), lapwing (*Vanellus vanellus*), redshank (*Tringa totanus*), dunlin (*Calidris alpina*),
240 harbour porpoise) are currently listed as species of conservation concern (IUCN 2010;
241 Eaton et al. 2015), making these DNA signatures a useful permanent record of these
242 organisms' presence at a certain time and space, which can serve as a baseline for future
243 surveys, and required no financial investment to obtain.

244 Perhaps more surprisingly, 47.5% of the detected non-target species were not strictly
245 associated with coastal marine areas, but rather more typical of the rural landscape,
246 demonstrating the role of estuaries as physical collectors of eDNA transported through the
247 drainage basin. We found ducks, passerines, waders, grouse and partridges amongst the
248 birds, and European rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) and Daubenton's bat (*Myotis*
249 *daubentonii*) amongst the mammals. Prior to data set refinement, a number of rodents
250 and mustelids were also detected. Although most of these species would be expected in
251 rural Britain, we also recovered data from species of high conservation relevance, such as
252 the occurrence of spoonbill (*Platalea leucorodia*) in the Esk catchment, a bird that has
253 only started breeding again in Britain in the last decade. The detection of water buffalo
254 (*Bubalus bubalis*) as well as western and eastern kangaroo (*Macropus fuliginosus* and *M.*
255 *giganteus*) in the Esk and Tweed is more puzzling. This could reflect drainage/sewage
256 processes from nearby wildlife parks or farms: it is worth mentioning that an exotic meat

257 company purveying both kangaroo and buffalo meat is located in the Tweed drainage,
258 only a few miles upstream of the monitoring sites.

259 The utility of this ‘molecular by-catch’ in the context of landscape-wide biomonitoring is
260 further corroborated by the marked spatial and temporal patterns identified. Taxon
261 richness was shown to significantly vary among estuaries, and this was also reflected in
262 the overall β -diversity configuration: the least taxon-rich estuary, the Tees, also supported
263 a more divergent community from the other two. This can be explained by the
264 characteristics of the catchment. Both the Tweed and the Esk run through rural
265 landscapes, with little urbanisation, meeting the North Sea by the picturesque coastal
266 towns of Berwick and Whitby, respectively. In contrast, the Tees flows through more
267 urbanised areas, including the large post-industrial towns of Darlington, Middlesbrough
268 and Hartlepool, which may arguably result in greater environmental impact on the
269 catchment. However, rarefaction and extrapolation analyses indicated that sample
270 coverage may have also influenced lower diversity of the Tees. With greater sample
271 coverage, future studies may consider modelling eDNA-based results against land-use
272 and satellite data to examine potential urbanisation and environmental gradients
273 influencing biodiversity at landscape-scale.

274 The faunal records from eDNA also delineated clear temporal changes in the studied
275 systems, with autumn samples significantly more taxon-rich than and divergent from
276 spring samples, although this was less evident in the less diverse Tees estuary. The Esk
277 and Tweed estuaries both supported more bird species than the Tees, including moult
278 migrants (e.g. shelduck, *Tadorna tadorna*), winter migrants (e.g. Canada goose, *Branta*
279 *canadensis*; whooper swan, *Cygnus cygnus*), passage migrants (e.g. dunlin), and partial
280 migrants (e.g. common starling, *Sturnus vulgaris*). Additionally, more mammals were
281 detected in the Esk and Tweed during autumn which coincides with moulting, breeding
282 and dispersal in some species (e.g. harbour seal, *Phoca vitulina*). Autumnal influxes of
283 birds and mammals to the Esk and Tweed may drive increased richness and community
284 divergence, compared to less diversity in the Tees and spring generally.

285 The bird and mammal biodiversity ‘bonus’ showcased in this work will represent an
286 underestimation of the actual bird and mammal eDNA diversity in the studied estuaries,
287 and more exhaustive faunal inventories are likely to be obtained by employing taxon-
288 specific markers for birds (Ushio et al. 2018) or mammals (Sales et al. 2020), or possibly
289 less specific markers for vertebrates (Harper et al. 2019b). Nevertheless, the volume of
290 information retrieved allows for educated inference on spatial and temporal variation
291 between and within catchments, and inform and propel further focussed research activity
292 leading to conservation actions.

293 In the midst of a global biodiversity crisis, rapid, powerful and affordable methods are
294 crucial for assessing and monitoring biotas. Environmental DNA metabarcoding projects
295 typically generate an extraordinary amount of biological information, which often exceeds
296 the scope of the original investigation (Hupało et al. 2020). Data are routinely stored in
297 publicly available repositories, and sequencing and computational power costs continue to
298 drop. With this in mind, researchers and environmental managers only need to be aware
299 of the potential of this ‘molecular by-catch’ and start designing aquatic surveys
300 accordingly. Meanwhile, after a decade of high-throughput sequencing in natural habitats,
301 we have already accumulated a vast amount of environmental barcodes, which remain
302 partly untapped. We only have to start sieving through these data sets with renewed
303 endeavour.

304

305 **Data Accessibility**

306 Code and data to be archived in public repositories upon article acceptance.

307

308

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310

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487 **Table 1.** Summary of raw sequence output using teleost eDNA metabarcoding of
488 estuarine water samples.

489

Group	Number of taxa	Read counts	Reads (%)
Fishes	93	2,379,539	81.563
Amphibians	2	88	0.003
Birds	51	178,465	6.117
Mammals	51	342,979	11.756
Invertebrates	13	16,354	0.561
Total	210	2,917,425	100.000

490

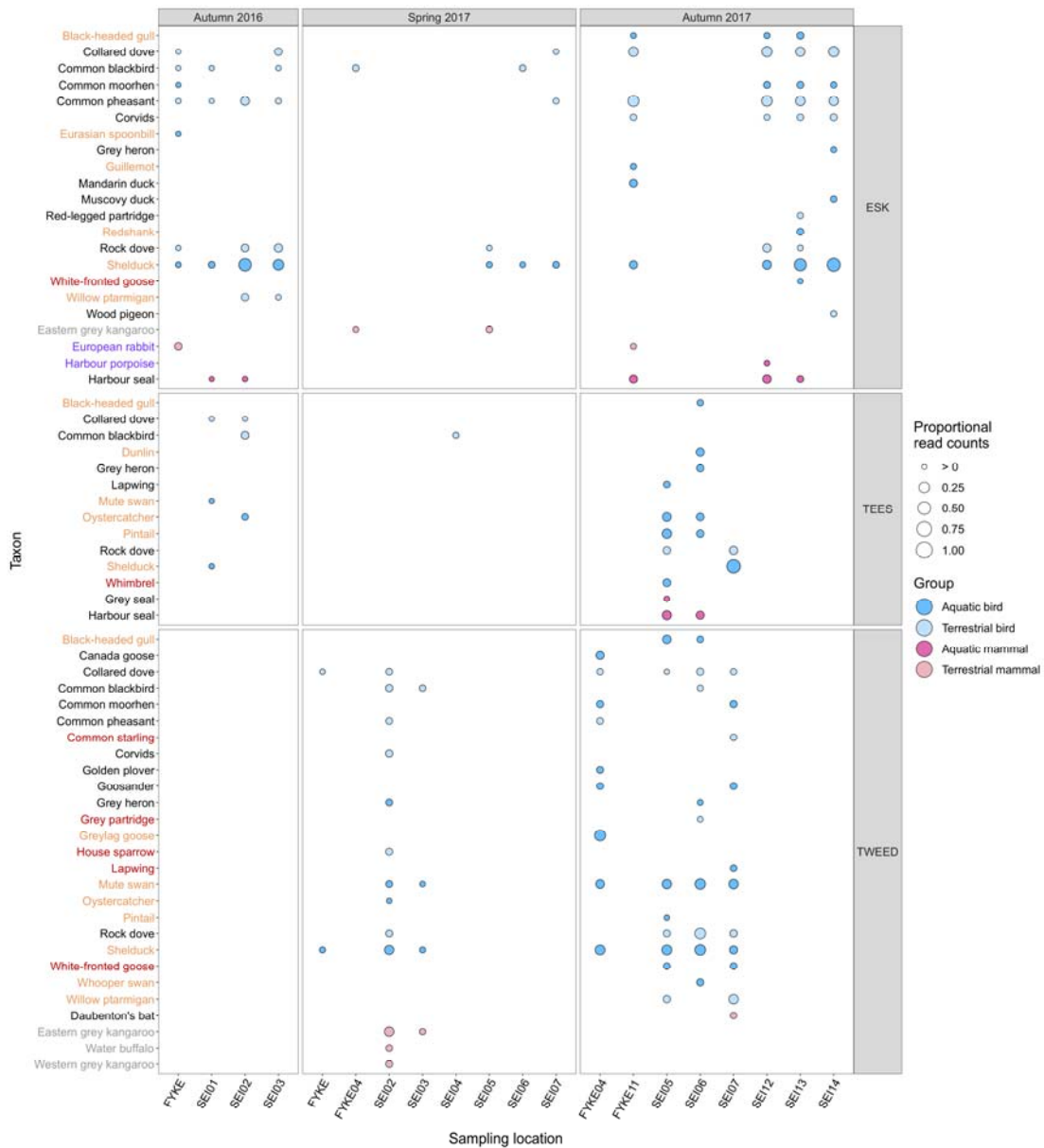
491

492 **Table 2.** Summary of analyses statistically comparing homogeneity of multivariate
 493 dispersions between communities at sampling locations in each estuary (ANOVA), and
 494 variation in community composition of sampling locations in each estuary (PERMANOVA).
 495 Relative contributions of taxon turnover and nestedness-resultant to total β -diversity
 496 (Jaccard dissimilarity) for each estuary are given in brackets.
 497

	Homogeneity of multivariate dispersions (ANOVA)				Community similarity (PERMANOVA)			
	Mean distance to centroid \pm SE	df	F	P	df	F	R ²	P
<i>Turnover</i>		2	2.822	0.067	2	6.014	0.156	0.001
Esk (95.16%)	0.404 \pm 0.042							
Tees (97.27%)	0.543 \pm 0.029							
Tweed (94.21%)	0.415 \pm 0.037							
<i>Nestedness-resultant</i>		2	0.242	0.786	2	0.264	0.008	0.673
Esk (4.84%)	0.189 \pm 0.026							
Tees (2.73%)	0.155 \pm 0.017							
Tweed (5.79%)	0.173 \pm 0.033							
<i>Total β-diversity</i>		2	1.839	0.167	2	4.203	0.115	0.001
Esk (100%)	0.522 \pm 0.013							
Tees (100%)	0.589 \pm 0.013							
Tweed (100%)	0.543 \pm 0.011							

498

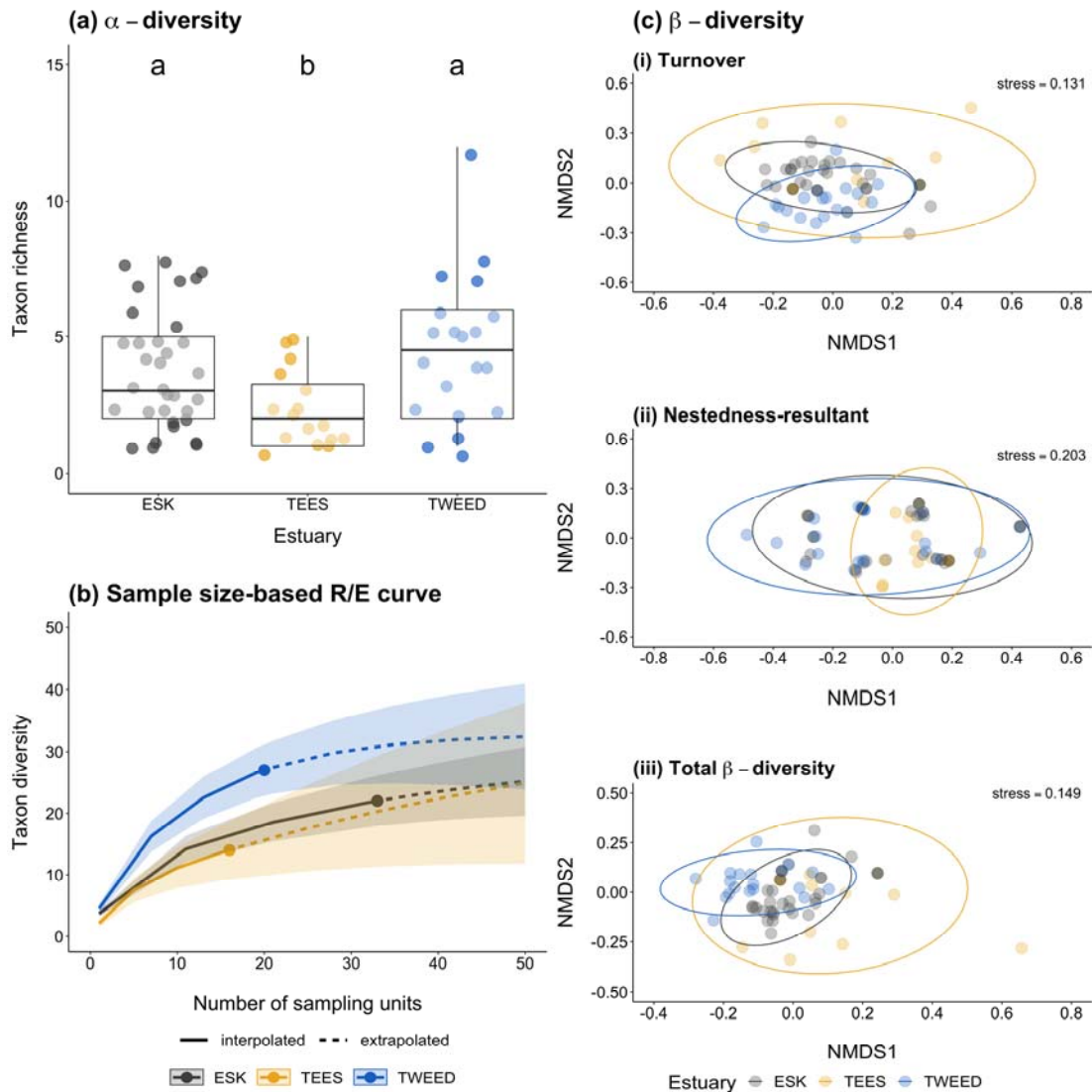
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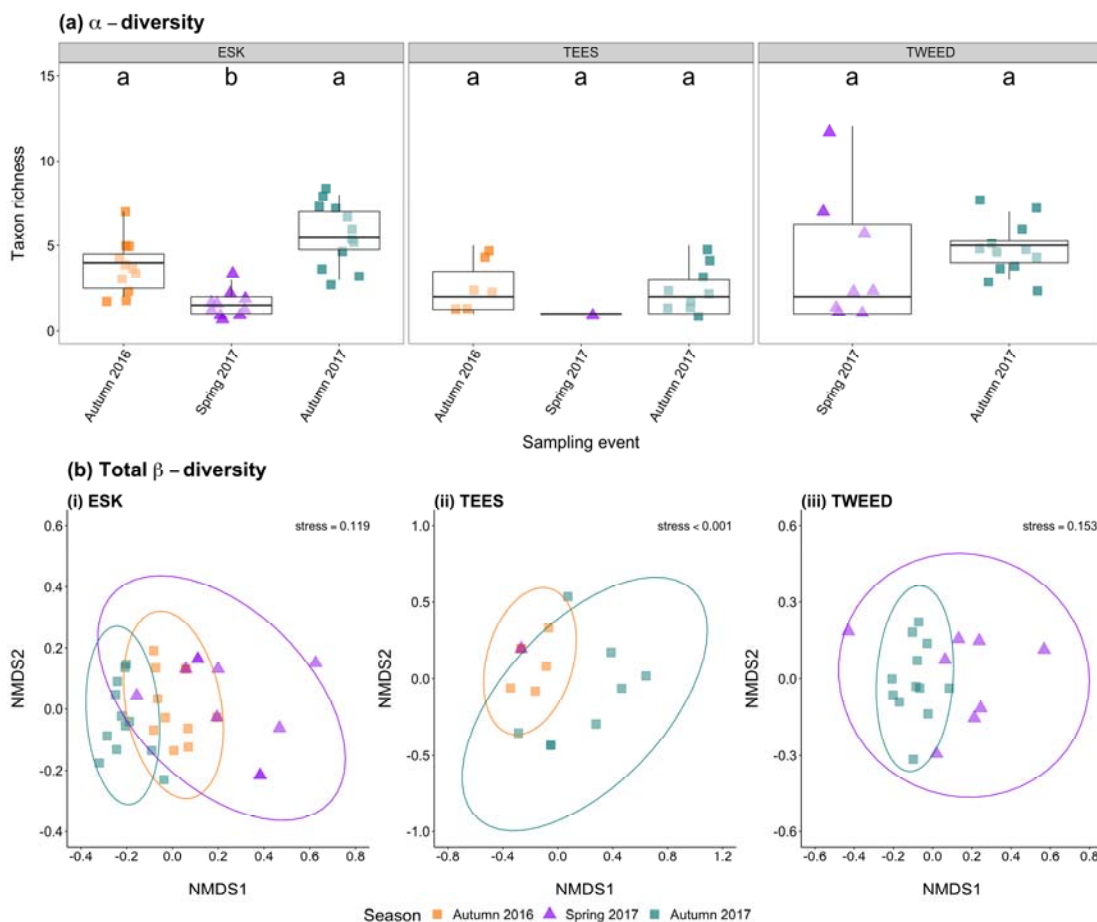
502 **Figure 1.** A bubble graph showing proportional read counts for taxa detected in water
 503 samples from different sampling locations within each estuary. Bubbles are coloured
 504 according to vertebrate group, and whether taxa have aquatic or terrestrial life histories.
 505 Names of birds on the Birds of Conservation Concern 4 red and amber lists (Eaton et al.
 506 2015) are coloured red and orange respectively. Names of endangered mammals on the
 507 European Red List (IUCN 2010) are coloured purple. Names of taxa found in captivity are
 508 coloured grey.



509

510

511 **Figure 2.** Summaries of α - and β -diversity comparisons made between sampling locations
512 in the Esk (grey points/lines/ellipses), Tees (yellow points/lines/ellipses), and Tweed (blue
513 points/lines/ellipses) estuaries: **(a)** boxplot showing the number of taxa detected at each
514 estuarine sampling location, **(b)** sample size-based rarefaction/extrapolation (R/E) for
515 each estuary, and **(c)** non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plots of estuarine
516 communities for each β -diversity component. Letters denote significance, where different
517 letters indicate a statistically significant difference in taxon richness derived from Dunn's
518 test. Boxes show 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, and whiskers show 5th and 95th
519 percentiles.



520

521

522 **Figure 3.** Summaries of α - and β -diversity comparisons made between sampling locations
523 in each estuary during different seasons, including autumn 2016 (orange
524 squares/ellipses), spring 2017 (purple triangles/ellipses), and autumn 2017 (green
525 squares/ellipses): **(a)** boxplot showing the number of taxa detected at estuarine sampling
526 locations across seasons, and **(b)** non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plots of
527 communities in each estuary across seasons for each β -diversity component. Letters
528 denote significance, where different letters indicate a statistically significant difference in
529 taxon richness derived from Dunn's test. Boxes show 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles,
530 and whiskers show 5th and 95th percentiles.

531