

1 **Debunking paradigms in estuarine fish species richness**

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6 *Running page header: Estuarine Fish Latitude Size Relationship*

7 *Abstract*

8 The comparison of species complements within and between habitats and geographical areas is a
9 fundamental aspect of ecological assessments. However, many influences resulting from variability in
10 sampling and data analysis often hinder the ability to determine important patterns in community
11 structure. The study is based on the hypothesis that using a standard sampling method, an asymptote in
12 the rarefaction curve represents the total (gear-specific) species complement likely to be encountered
13 for the geographical area. Accordingly, an asymptotic species richness estimator was used to predict
14 the full complement of species present within each estuary that could be caught using seine netting. The
15 rarefaction curves and species richness estimator enable the interrogation of two underlying paradigms
16 of ecological species richness: the species-energy relationship and the species-area relationship. This
17 analysis reveals distinct groups which show a significant relationship with latitude and size, although
18 the size effect has a smaller influence. In particular, the species-latitude relationship paradigm holds
19 true in this study while the species-area relationship paradigm only applies when latitude is considered
20 concomitantly. Marine species in particular appear to account for the increased fish species number at
21 lower latitudes. The underlying influence of latitude and estuary size suggests that any managerial tool
22 that explores anthropogenic impacts (such as those used in the European Water Framework Directive)
23 should include these aspects. It is concluded that the analysis gives environmental managers an
24 objective cost-beneficial method of identifying when and where further sampling does not give further
25 information for management.

26 *Key words:* seine netting; rarefaction curves; fish species richness; species-energy relationship; species-
27 area relationship

28

29 **Introduction**

30 The importance of estuaries for freshwater, migratory, estuarine and many marine fish species is well
31 described (Elliott et al. 2007a, Nicolas et al. 2010b) with their highly variable environments providing
32 essential breeding, feeding and nursery habitats (Potts & Swaby 1993, Elliott et al. 2002, Elliott &
33 Whitfield 2011, Potter et al. 2015). Estuaries and their catchments also support large urban and

34 industrial areas, containing anthropogenic activities and pressures associated with development
35 (McLusky & Elliott 2004, Cardoso et al. 2011, Vasconcelos et al. 2015).

36 Continued and recent requirements for effective management have led to the exploration of the
37 relationships between biogeography, geomorphology and fish diversity in estuaries at global, regional
38 and local scales (Pasquaud et al. 2015, Vasconcelos et al. 2015, França & Cabral 2015). Exploration of
39 the complex nature of factors, including the controlling hydrophysical elements that can affect fishes in
40 estuaries, suggest two underlying fundamental paradigms that aim to explain the fish species richness
41 in estuaries. Firstly, species richness appears to increase with waterbody size (Gleason 1922, Nicolas et
42 al. 2010b) in which the species-area relationship (SAR) assumes that larger waterbodies support a
43 higher number of species as they likely provide a greater diversity of habitats and therefore a higher
44 availability of ecological niches (Pease 1999, Perez-Ruzafa et al. 2007, Franco et al. 2008a). Secondly,
45 species richness appears to decrease with increasing latitude (Gaston 2000, 2007, Vasconcelos et al.
46 2015). This relationship, henceforth identified as the species-latitude relationship (SLR), has been
47 confirmed for estuarine fish assemblages investigated at the global scale (Pasquaud et al. 2015,
48 Vasconcelos et al. 2015). Although not so for fishes its validity at a smaller geographical scale (spanning
49 less than three degrees in latitude) has been shown for other groups (Gotelli & Ellison 2002). The SLR
50 relates generally to the balance between the speciation/immigration and extinction/emigration of
51 species resulting from the combination of multiple mechanisms, including geographic area,
52 productivity, ambient energy and evolutionary speed among others (Willig et al. 2003).

53 Species richness is a metric commonly used to assess the status of estuarine fish assemblages across
54 North East Atlantic (Perez-Dominguez et al. 2012, Lepage et al. 2016), under the requirements of the
55 European Union Water Framework Directive (WFD, 2000/60/EC) that a ‘good ecological and chemical
56 status’ is achieved in all European waterbodies. Where this condition is not met, management measures
57 are to be implemented, and therefore it is of paramount importance that the assessment is based on a
58 good understanding of the structure and functioning of the system under management and that
59 appropriate and sound indicators are used (Hering et al. 2010). These indicators (e.g. fish species
60 richness) need to be independent from confounding factors as for example variable sampling effort that
61 might mask the actual variability of the metric in relation to waterbody characteristics and therefore
62 lead to biased assessments of the ecological status (Elliott et al. 2006). Many of the WFD tools
63 developed to assess estuarine fish species richness do not take SAR or SLR into account.

64 The examination of local species richness by complete census is usually not feasible (Colwell &
65 Coddington 1994) and therefore its assessment relies on sample data. There is often a marked variability
66 in the sampling effort applied to estuaries. In the United Kingdom, for example, estuaries like the
67 Thames and the Severn have been intensively sampled for over 40 years (e.g. Wheeler 1979, Potter et
68 al. 2001, Attrill & Power 2002, Colclough et al. 2002, Henderson & Bird 2010, McGoran et al. 2017),
69 using a variety of sampling methods and resulting in more than 100 fish species being recorded in each

70 estuary (Elliott et al. 2002, Henderson & Bird 2010). In turn, fish assemblage investigation in other UK
71 estuaries (e.g. the Esk (E) and Lune) have only started within the last decade (Environment Agency
72 2017a), as prompted by the monitoring requirements of the WFD. A higher sampling effort may also
73 be required in larger estuaries to better represent the number of species using the different habitats
74 within the estuary. As a result, the sampling effort (as the number of the samples taken) may range over
75 more than an order of magnitude across waterbodies and over the years (e.g. Franco et al. 2008a). This
76 may make it difficult to disentangle the patterns of variability in the observed species richness across
77 estuaries (e.g. SAR and SLR) from differences in sampling effort, thus creating limitations to data
78 comparability and inclusion in the analysis (e.g. Pasquaud et al. 2015). It is generally assumed that with
79 increased sampling then an increasing proportion of the total number of species likely to occur in an
80 estuary will be taken. Therefore, it is expected that the cumulative number of species recorded in the
81 samples increases with the increasing sampling effort, generating the so-called species-accumulation
82 curve (Sanders 1968). The curve of species recorded across all samples eventually reaches an asymptote
83 which denotes the total species complement that likely characterises an area. This assumes that even in
84 open systems (as are estuaries) there is a finite number of species which can access the area because of
85 their geographical and habitat/environmental preferences (although of course, global environmental
86 factors such as climate change may cause new species to enter the species pool). Therefore we
87 hypothesise that a species-accumulation curve can be used to estimate the species complement of
88 estuaries.

89 A range of sampling methods are used for estuarine fish-based assessment, each method with its own
90 selectivity (Franco et al. 2012, Perez-Dominguez et al. 2012). A trade-off between data standardisation
91 (hence comparability) and representation of the full species complement of an estuary exists. On one
92 hand, a multi-method approach, as applied for example in WFD fish-based assessment in the UK
93 (Coates et al. 2007) is most likely to provide a more comprehensive picture of the full species
94 complement of an estuary, although the uneven effort distribution and habitat representation of different
95 sampling methods within an estuary may influence the comparability between estuaries. On the other
96 hand, a single sampling method is more likely to produce a standardised approach that allows
97 comparability between estuaries. However, the ability of the estimated species richness to represent the
98 full species complement of any estuary may be limited to a specific part of the assemblage or type of
99 habitat that is more efficiently sampled with the selective gear. This may introduce significant bias
100 when comparing and contrasting species richness in geographically disparate communities sampled
101 with different methods. In turn, this bias is likely reduced in comparative studies and assessments based
102 on the same sampling method, albeit it must be acknowledged that in these cases and gear-specific
103 species complement for an estuary can only be estimated. While the use of species accumulation curves
104 is key to provide a standardised estimates of species richness (i.e. the species complement) for an area,
105 independent of sampling effort, studies testing underlying paradigms of biodiversity such as SAR and

106 SLR in estuarine fish assemblages so far have only relied on observed species richness obtained from
107 total lists of species sampled in given estuaries (Pasquaud et al. 2015, Vasconcelos et al. 2015), with
108 the consequent limitations mentioned above. This study represented the first application of species
109 accumulation curves (and the derived standardised estimates of the likely gear-specific maximum
110 number of species in estuaries) to the testing of SAR and SLR. In particular, these paradigms were
111 tested at the regional scale by using fish sample data in estuaries located between 51°N and 56°N latitude
112 (England and Wales).

113 **Materials and Methods**

114 *Biological data*

115 From May 2006 to November 2015 inclusive, the Environment Agency and Natural Resources Wales
116 monitored 27 estuaries across England and Wales (E&W) for WFD assessment purposes (Figure 1),
117 using multi-gear approach (including fyke nets, seine nets, beam trawls and otter trawls). Fish species
118 presence records obtained from the standardised use of a beach seine net (45 m by 3.5 m size, with a 5
119 mm knotless mesh in the centre and 20 mm mesh in the wings) have been selected for this study as this
120 method was the only one providing the widest coverage between and within estuaries across the studied
121 region. The estuaries were selected as a representative group of the variety of estuaries found in England
122 and Wales (UKTAG 2006), with seine netting being undertaken in sites distributed on the lower
123 intertidal and shallow subtidal habitats across the full salinity gradient in each estuary.

124 The selected dataset included a total of 3,578 samples collected at 144 sites, with the number of sites
125 per estuary generally depending on waterbody size (Table 1). Small estuaries (<1,000ha) contained at
126 least three to five sites, medium sized estuaries (1,000 - 10,000 ha) five to 10 sites and large estuaries
127 (>10,000 ha) contained 10 to 12 sites. Safety and logistical constraints also influenced site selection in
128 some cases (e.g. in the Severn, a large estuary, only five sites could be safely sampled with a seine net).

129 At each site, at least four samples were taken annually – two in spring (May to June) and two in autumn
130 (September to November) given that there are seasonal migrants to estuaries (Potter et al. 2015). The
131 number of samples taken over the period 2006-2015 in each estuary varied from 41 (Medway) to 285
132 (Thames) (Table 1). Explanatory variables for the SAR and SLR hypotheses were also measured for
133 each estuary (Table 1). Specifically, waterbody size (measured as hectares (ha)), and latitude and
134 longitude at estuary mouth (measured in degrees and decimal minutes) using ArcMap v.9.3.1, with
135 longitude of the estuary also being recorded as a possible covariate. Additional variables characterised
136 the estuarine conditions: mean site salinity (measured as practical salinity units) was calculated using
137 salinity data collected by the Environment Agency between 2006 and 2015 (Graham Phillips,
138 Environment Agency, Peterborough, Unpublished Data 2016); mean freshwater flow rates (measured
139 as $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) over the study period for each estuary was also recorded, using data from the Environment

140 Agency hydrometric monitoring sites stored on the Water Information Management System (available
141 at data.gov.uk).

142 *Analyses*

143 Using EstimateS (v.9.1.0), rarefaction (interpolation) curves were created for each estuarine dataset
144 following the method for sample-based interpolation provided by Colwell et al. (2012). Species-
145 accumulation curves were created from the cumulative number of species recorded in consecutive
146 samples, with the sample order being randomised within each estuary dataset. A Bernoulli Product
147 Model was used to create the rarefaction curve for each estuary, based on the mean value of 999
148 randomised re-runs, without replacement (i.e. each sample was selected only once). The resulting
149 rarefaction curves provide values of cumulative species richness (SR) in an estuary as a function of the
150 number of samples taken (n), up to the observed total species richness (SR_{obs}), as resulting from the
151 totality of samples collected in the estuary (n_{tot}). A non-parametric estimator for species presence data,
152 the bias-corrected form of Chao2 (Gotelli & Colwell 2011), was used to extrapolate the mean
153 asymptotic value of the rarefaction curve, representing the maximum species richness (SR_{max})
154 achievable in an estuary (the gear-specific species complement). The 95% confidence interval limits
155 (CL_{upper} and CL_{lower}) associated with the mean SR_{max} value were also calculated. In cases where the ratio
156 of the standard deviation to the mean was >0.5 , both the bias-corrected and classic forms of Chao2
157 method were used, and the largest of the two resulting mean SR_{max} values was selected as best estimate
158 (Colwell 2013). To discern any potential groupings of the estuaries according to their estimated (gear-
159 specific) fish species complement, a cluster analysis (with SIMPROF) was undertaken between
160 estuaries based on the mean SR_{max} and the associated confidence limits. The analysis was undertaken in
161 Primer v6.1.2, using Euclidean distance, group average cluster algorithm and 5% significance level for
162 the SIMPROF test.

163 The species-area (SAR) and species-latitude (SLR) paradigm hypotheses were tested using generalised
164 additive models (GAMs). Estuary size and latitude were used as explanatory variables for SR_{max} and
165 longitude was also included as a possible covariate. The small size of the dataset (27 estuaries)
166 prevented the inclusion of all three variables in a single model, and therefore a modelling strategy was
167 adopted whereby three models were generated including all possible combinations of pairs of the three
168 variables ($m1$ with size and latitude as predictors, $m2$ with latitude and longitude, $m3$ with size and
169 longitude) to account for possible combined effects. GAM modelling was undertaken using the mgcv
170 package in R (Wood 2006, R Core Team 2017), with the following parameters specified: negative
171 binomial family (with log link function); thin plate regression splines as smoothing functions for all
172 explanatory variables (with default basis dimension $k = 10$, except for latitude in $m2$, where k was set
173 to 18, the maximum value for k allowed by the dataset size); an additional penalty added on the null
174 space of the original penalty for all covariates (select = TRUE); and REML used as smoothness
175 selection method. Model diagnostic was undertaken (checking of residuals for assumptions, overfitting

176 and overdispersion) to assess the validity of the models. The significance of the model predictors was
177 assessed based on model summary results, and the deviance component explained by each individual
178 predictor in the model was assessed as an indicator of the magnitude of the effect, by comparing nested
179 models (i.e. *m1*, *m2* and *m3* against models calibrated for individual variables using the same model
180 parameters (as described above) using hypothesis testing (*anova.gam*).

181 **Results**

182 *Fish assemblage composition*

183 Across all estuaries in the study, 114 species were recorded (Supplementary Material A1). The total
184 observed species richness ranged from 22 (Esk(E)) to 55 (Carrick Roads Inner; Dart) with a mean of
185 35.3 (SD=10.1) (Table 1). Five of the 114 species were encountered in every estuary (*Platichthys flesus*
186 (flounder), *Pleuronectes platessa* (European plaice), *Pomatoschistus microps* (common goby),
187 *Pomatoschistus minutus* (sand goby); *Sprattus sprattus* (European sprat)) and 20 were recorded in only
188 one estuary (Supplementary Material A1). The taxa were listed per estuary and following Franco et al.
189 (2008b), were categorised into one of six Estuarine Use Functional Guilds, based upon the way that the
190 species use an estuary (Supplementary Material A1). Thirty two of the 114 species recorded in this
191 study, are classified into more than one category by Franco et al. (2008b). Two are considered
192 catadromous (European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) and thin lipped grey mullet (*Liza ramada*), with the thin
193 lipped grey mullet also considered a marine migrant in some estuaries. Seven are anadromous with the
194 three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) and sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) being the most frequently
195 encountered in estuaries across the study area. Twenty are categorised as estuarine species (common
196 goby (*Pomatoschistus microps*) and sand goby (*Pomatoschistus minutus*) caught most frequently in this
197 group; 27 estuaries)). Twenty four freshwater species encountered in the study, the most common of
198 which were including roach (*Rutilus rutilus*), Eurasian minnow (*Phoxinus phoxinus*) and common dace
199 (*Leuciscus leuciscus*).

200 Of the 15 marine migrants encountered in the study, flounder (*Platichthys flesus*), European plaice
201 (*Pleuronectes platessa*) and European sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*) were caught in all estuaries in the study
202 although flounder is also regarded as semi-catadromous given that it spends most of its time in estuaries
203 after breeding at sea (Potter et al. 2015). The most numerous category of fishes in the study was marine
204 stragglers, with 31 species caught in the study area. The longspined sea scorpion (*Taurulus bubalis*)
205 and greater sand eel (*Hyperoplus lanceolatus*) are the most frequent, caught in 16 and 15 estuaries
206 respectively.

207 Forty species were consistently present in at least 90% of the samples taken per estuary (Supplementary
208 Material A1) thus characterising the dominant assemblage for each estuary for the geographical area
209 covered by this study. Per estuary, either 11 or 12 species were caught in $\geq 90\%$ of samples, apart from
210 the Severn, with 16 species listed. The common goby, sand goby (*Pomatoschistus minutus*) and

211 European sprat were consistently caught in 26 of the 27 estuaries, with European flounder being the
212 only species that was caught in $\geq 90\%$ of the samples in every estuary.

213 Two species of the wrasse family, corkwing wrasse (*Crenilabrus melops*) and ballan wrasse (*Labrus*
214 *bergylta*), were caught consistently in the South West of the study area (Carrick Roads Inner and Dart,
215 respectively). Three species of sandeels were consistently recorded (small sandeel (*Ammodytes*
216 *tobianus*), Corbin's sandeel (*Hyperoplus immaculatus*) and great sandeel (*Hyperoplus lanceolatus*)) and
217 three clupeids were also present (herring (*Clupea harengus*), European pilchard (*Sardina pilchardus*)
218 and European sprat), as were four cyprinids (common bream (*Abramis brama*), common dace
219 (*Leuciscus leuciscus*), Eurasian minnow (*Phoxinus phoxinus*) and roach (*Rutilus rutilus*)). Three
220 gadoids were caught consistently (Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*) and
221 pollack (*Pollachius pollachius*)) and five gobies (black goby (*Gobius niger*), two spotted goby
222 (*Gobiusculus flavescens*), common goby, sand goby and painted goby (*Pomatoschistus pictus*)).

223 *Species-accumulation curves*

224 The species rarefaction curves are similar in overall shape for each estuary, with the first 50 samples
225 providing the steepest part of the species accumulation (Figure 2). Three of the 27 estuaries have over
226 50 or more species recorded (Carrick Roads Inner, Dart and Dee), two of which reach over 50 species
227 within 100 samples (Carrick Roads Inner, Dart).

228 Some estuaries, such as the Taw/Torridge and the Thames, have a pronounced profile of a steep gradient
229 in the first 50 samples with the curve quickly levelling off thereafter. The Thames is the most highly
230 sampled estuary in the dataset, with a total of 285 samples, yet few species are caught ($SR_{obs}=34$). When
231 $n=50$, $SR=24$ i.e. 71 % of total observed number of species is detected within 18% of the samples
232 collected, with the remaining ten species being recorded over the next 235 samples. The profile of other
233 estuaries such as the Severn and Southampton Water, have a less pronounced levelling off phase. With
234 Southampton Water, when $n=50$, $SR=26$ (63% of total observed species richness with 21% of samples)
235 with the remaining species being recorded over the further 186 samples. This suggests that not only is
236 Southampton Water recording more species (41 compared to 34 for the Thames) but also the recorded
237 species are more evenly spread throughout all the samples, thus requiring more effort to gain an
238 understanding of the entire species composition that can be sampled with the seine net. The steep profile
239 of the Severn is exacerbated by the low number of seine net samples ($n=48$) collected in this estuary
240 over the studied period.

241 3.3 Estimated maximum species richness

242 SR_{max} calculated for the studied estuarine fish assemblages (as sampled by seine net) ranged from 24.39
243 (Medway) to 73.97 (Dart); with an overall mean of 42.08 species ($SD = 12.54$) (Table 2). The total
244 percentage of sampled species compared to the estimate of asymptotic species richness (SR_{obs}/SR_{max})

245 that could be caught by seine netting in the studied estuaries ranges from 55 % (Tweed) to 100%
246 (Taw/Torridge).

247 *SAR and SER hypothesis testing*

248 The three models calibrated to test the SAR and SLR hypotheses explain respectively 68.7% (*m1*, size
249 and latitude as predictors), 57.5% (*m2*, latitude and longitude), and 19.5% (*m3*, size and longitude) of
250 the total deviance in SR_{max} data. Latitude always results as a highly significant predictor in all models
251 where this variable is included (*m1* and *m2*). Both models indicate a net decrease in species richness
252 with increasing latitude, this decrease being particularly marked between 50°N and 52°N (Figure 3).
253 Some fluctuations (secondary maxima) can be observed at latitudes around 53°N and 56°N due to the
254 higher species richness recorded in the Dee, Humber and Tweed compared to other estuaries at similar
255 latitudes (Table 2). Estuary size is also a significant predictor, albeit only when coupled with the
256 latitudinal effect in *m1*, with the species richness increasing with increasing estuary size (Figure 3). The
257 latitudinal effect is in general larger than the size effect, as indicated by the deviance explained by each
258 of these predictors in the models (Figure 3).

259 *Estuary groupings*

260 According to the classification analysis (cluster and SIMPROF) based on SR_{max} data (mean and
261 confidence limits), a group of five estuaries (Tweed, Dee, Poole Harbour, Dart and Southampton
262 Waters; Table 2, Figure 4) significantly ($P < 0.05$) differentiates from the others due to the general
263 higher mean SR_{max} values (ranging 46 to 74, > 60 in most cases, overall group mean of 61), albeit the
264 highest uncertainty was associated with these mean estimates (confidence limit interval between 37 and
265 81, 57 on average). The estuaries in this group are of variable size (from 244 to 10,928 ha, 3,681 ha on
266 average) and are located between 50.4°N and 55.7°N of latitude (52.2°N on average).

267 The remaining 22 estuaries have variable mean SR_{max} values, between 23 and 59 (mostly < 50), and
268 they further differentiate ($P < 0.05$) into four groups (A1-A4; Table 2, Figure 4). Group A1 comprises
269 of seven estuaries (Medway, Esk, Telfi, Lune, Tees and Taw/Torridge) of small/medium size (28 to
270 5,657 ha, 1,406 ha on average) and located between 51.1°N and 54.6°N latitude (53.1°N. on average).
271 These estuaries have the lowest mean SR_{max} (always < 34 , 29 group average) compared to the other
272 estuaries, with the highest confidence associated with these estimates (confidence limit interval of 14
273 species on average, generally < 26). Groups A2 and A3, each comprised of six estuaries (Table 2), have
274 intermediate values of mean SR_{max} (mostly around 40, ranging 32 to 46 overall). However, the
275 uncertainty around these mean estimates differs between the two groups, being higher in A2 (confidence
276 limit interval of 16 species on average) and lower in A3 (confidence limit interval of 40 species on
277 average). Estuaries from these two are located at latitudes between 50.5°N and 53.7°N (with an average
278 value close to 52°N in both groups), and most of these estuaries are of medium size (around 1500 ha),
279 with the notable presence of one large estuary in each group (Thames in A2 and Severn in A3). Group
280 A4 is only comprised of three estuaries (Exe, Humber and Carrick Roads Inner) that are of medium to

281 large size (1259 ha to 34647 ha, 11900 ha on average) and are located at a lower latitude than the others,
282 on average (51.5°N, ranging 50.2°N to 53.7°N). These estuaries have higher mean SR_{max} values
283 (between 49 and 59, 53 on average), with a relatively low uncertainty associated (confidence limit
284 interval of 19 species on average).

285

286 **Discussion**

287 *Fish species complement of estuaries, SAR and SLR paradigms, and other possible influencing factors*
288 Examining the relationships of localised assemblages from varied study areas and effort using
289 rarefaction curves has proved successful in tree and insect studies (Colwell et al. 2012) although this
290 approach has been rarely used for fishes. Quantifying biodiversity using rarefaction curves and
291 asymptotic estimators is a method not often used for estuarine fish assemblages at a regional scale. Most
292 of the studies investigating fish species richness in estuaries and their patterns in relation to natural
293 and/or anthropogenic variability are based on surveys that are assumed to be a complete census of a
294 localised assemblage, without necessarily considering the implications of varying sample effort and/or
295 methods on the completeness of the assemblage that has been measured (Franco et al. 2008b, Nicolas
296 2010a, Nicolas 2010b, Vasconcelos et al. 2015).

297 In the present study, before any hypotheses were examined, an objective examination of the
298 effectiveness of the sampling to obtain a species census was firstly undertaken by estimating the
299 maximum number of species in each estuary that can be caught using a seine net. The estimator used in
300 this study for the sample-based incidence data is well proven in a variety of ecological fields (Chao
301 1987, Shen et al. 2003, Gotelli & Colwell 2011, Chao et al. 2015). We acknowledge that the approach
302 we used in this paper is not free from limitations. The purpose of applying rarefaction curves in our
303 study was to obtain standardised species richness data to allow comparing and contrasting between
304 estuaries and as such the ability to examine and explore the SAR and SLR paradigms set out in this
305 paper. Therefore, we chose to select fish data from a single sampling method (seine netting) that has
306 been used in a consistent and standardised way across the studied estuaries, to allow a better control of
307 the effects of sampling variability and effort. As a result, the approach applied in this paper cannot be
308 considered to be a complete census of the fish assemblage present in an estuary, due to the limitations
309 imposed by the selectivity, efficiency and habitat sampled with the selected method. The calculation of
310 estimated total species richness is bounded by this method and, as such, must be considered as a gear-
311 specific indicator of the fish species complement of an estuary. Although, in absolute terms, the
312 resulting estimates may differ compared to the known species richness from other studies using multiple
313 or different sampling methods (as discussed in detail further below), we are more confident that the
314 standardised estimates we used allow us to do a more robust comparison between estuaries, while
315 controlling for the effects of sampling variability and effort.

316 The latitudinal gradient in diversity has been examined for over two centuries and the attenuation of
317 species diversity as one travels further from the equator has been recorded by multiple authors
318 examining many biota and regions (Jablonski et al. 2017). However the causal processes that drive this
319 phenomenon remain elusive (Hillebrand 2004). Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain this
320 phenomenon, which Brown (2014) has grouped into three main categories: phylogenetic niche
321 conservatism, ecological productivity and kinetics.

322 Wiens & Donoghue (2004) considered that species' ancestral niches were tropical, preventing wide-
323 scale adaptation to temperate niches in recent history due to factors such as glaciation. In the case of
324 the study area, this phylogenetic niche conservatism hypothesis is not considered to be a causal process
325 for the latitudinal pattern observed in this study. The northern estuaries were covered by an ice sheet
326 for longer although the interconnected nature of the UK waters would suggest that this is no longer a
327 factor 11,000 years after the last glaciation.

328 An ecotone, representing a change in ecological productivity, is the boundary between biogeographic
329 regimes where there is merging of two adjacent assemblages and so the ecotone has elements of both
330 assemblages and thus can be richer than either of the merged elements (Basset et al. 2013). In the case
331 of the British Isles, the influence of the North Atlantic Drift especially on south-western areas
332 exacerbates the mixing of Boreal and Lusitanian faunae (Henderson & Henderson 2017). Therefore it
333 would be valuable in the future to categorise the estuarine fish assemblage members according to their
334 Boreal and Lusitanian origins to show where the warmer Lusitanian fauna from the Iberian Peninsula
335 merges with the colder Boreal community from NW Europe and the North Sea (Wheeler 1969).
336 Furthermore, there is a depth effect between the shallow North Sea to the East compared to the deep
337 waters off the coastal shelf to the West suggest that a longitudinal element would have some effect on
338 patterns of diversity in this regional study, as has been previously reported (Nicolas 2010b). However,
339 the inclusion of longitude in the models in the present study do not support relationships between
340 longitude and species diversity, or a combination of longitude with latitude and species diversity (see
341 below).

342 By detailing the observed latitudinal gradient in many biological realms, Fischer (1960) reviewed
343 studies detailing the observed latitudinal gradient in many biological realms and concluded that this
344 phenomenon is illustrated best in the marine field and that climates with higher and consistent
345 temperatures support higher diversity. Brown (2014) notes that greater rates of metabolism, ecological
346 dynamics and coevolutionary processes are all supported by higher temperatures. In the context of
347 estuarine fish ecology, higher temperatures at lower latitudes, leading to higher biological rates have
348 also been suggested as leading to biogeographic differences (Henriques et al. 2017), perhaps due to
349 shorter generation times and higher mutation rates (Gaston 2007). This kinetic argument is considered
350 to be the most likely cause of the latitudinal gradient shown here. Multiple agencies across the marine
351 field now record extensive thermal measurements in inshore waters. The diversity-temperature

352 relationship could be further explored by integrating existing temperature records with this biological
353 dataset. In supporting the SER of species richness and latitude, this study suggests that increases in sea
354 temperatures as a result of climate change could increase diversity in estuarine fish species richness in
355 temperate waters (Attrill & Power 2002, Henderson 2007, Hiddink & Hofstede 2008, Robins et al.
356 2016). This may also result in increased abundance although density-dependence has been shown to be
357 a limiting factor on the abundance of sprat in the Bristol Channel (Henderson & Henderson 2017).

358 The species-area relationship also proved significant although the effect was only noticeable when
359 combined with latitude. This is in contrast to previous studies which have found the relationship
360 between size and estuarine fish diversity to be highly significant (Harrison & Whitfield 2006, Franco
361 et al. 2008a, Nicolas et al. 2010a). It is assumed that a larger sample area would contain more individuals
362 as well as more species (Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios 2007) perhaps due to habitat heterogeneity
363 opportunities over a larger area (Báldi 2008).

364 At the global extent, Vasconcelos et al. (2015) found that species richness of marine fish correlated
365 highly with latitude, with estuary size being only important at the regional extent. This study indicates
366 that estuary size alone is not sufficient as a driving influence on species richness. Of the three estuaries
367 with surface areas greater than 20000 ha (Humber, Thames and Severn), the Humber is the only estuary
368 that records high diversity with either observed species or predicted total richness. The high diversity
369 measured in the Humber cannot be explained by high heterogeneity as the Humber contains as many
370 large-scale habitats as the Thames and many fewer than the Severn (JNCC 2015).

371 Unlike the Humber, the Thames has few observed species of both marine guilds and estuarine species
372 and therefore the overall species richness is comparatively poorer. The Thames, despite its southerly
373 latitude, has a relatively narrow shelf providing few marine species to the assemblage and even then the
374 uniform sedimentary habitats of the southern North Sea create fewer niches and thus species (Ducrotoy
375 et al. 2000). By classifying the habitat attractiveness for fishes in an estuary, Amorin et al. (2017) noted
376 potential changes to the functioning of the fish community and the nursery carrying capacity over time.
377 A similar approach could be used spatially with this dataset to further investigate the relationships
378 between habitat types and fish communities in the Thames and the rest of the estuaries in the study area.
379 The Thames only started to regain its estuarine fish community in the 1960s after many decades of
380 being abiotic (Elliott & Hemingway 2006, Taylor 2015, Henderson 2017). Furthermore, the Thames
381 has been subject to severe and sustained environmental degradation (Coates et al. 2007), notably habitat
382 loss particularly in the mid and upper reaches of the estuary and the presence of a water quality barrier
383 due to low dissolved oxygen, and these may have contributed to reduce the species richness in this
384 estuary. Significant pollution events continue in the Thames catchment (Environment Agency 2017b).

385 By further exploring the relationship between species richness drivers such as habitat functioning as
386 well as anthropogenic factors such as pollution events, it may be possible to further explain the pattern

387 of differentiation between not only the Thames assemblage but also the estuarine populations described
388 in this paper.

389 The historical sampling of the Severn Estuary fish assemblage gives the opportunity to validate the
390 analysis in this paper. This estuary is considered to be one of the most diverse estuaries in the UK (Potts
391 & Swaby 1993) and was designated under the Ramsar Convention in 1995 (JNCC 2008). Only 27
392 species recorded in the Severn in this study , and this show the influence of both differing sampling
393 methods and a greater sampling effort in the previous studies. Using once-monthly power station
394 sampling at the edge of a large intertidal mud flat, in the greater Severn estuary, Henderson & Bird
395 (2010) recorded a total of 83 species over 28 years, with a notable predominance of species of marine
396 origin in the assemblage (77% of the species), compared to the present study (59%). While SR_{max} is
397 estimated to be much higher than SR_{obs} for the Severn estuary, the SR_{max} value predicted in this study
398 (38) is still far lower than the 83 species recorded by Henderson & Bird (2010). This is probably the
399 result of the intense nature of power station sampling compared to seine netting. Therefore while further
400 seine net sampling is expected to reveal more species, the nature of the method is not expected to yield
401 similar numbers of taxa as Henderson & Bird (2010) or Potts & Swaby (1993).

402 Despite the Tweed being the most northerly and one of the smallest estuaries in the study, it has one of
403 the highest estimated maximum species richness values (46). However, a high uncertainty is associated
404 with this estimate, as attested by the large confidence interval (the largest of all the assessed estuaries),
405 suggesting caution needs to be applied when drawing conclusions regarding its estimated maximum
406 value. Continued sampling may help to increase confidence in the overall assessment. In terms of
407 species presence in estuaries, there are only a few species adapted to the life in changing environments
408 as estuaries (and these are highly abundant, confirming the stress-subsidy continuum) (see below). Most
409 of the species occurring in estuaries have been found to be transient species, either migratory species or
410 stragglers (Franco et al. 2008a), with most of the contribution to species diversity coming from the
411 marine realm rather than from freshwaters (Whitfield et al. 2012). The dominance of marine taxa as a
412 proportion of the overall fish species richness of an estuary is well defined (Potter et al. 1990, 2015,
413 Pease 1999, Whitfield 1999) and is consistent throughout the study area and the current estuarine
414 datasets present, with some notable exceptions. Categorising the marine species into those that generally
415 inhabit coastal areas and only enter estuaries accidentally and in low numbers (marine stragglers) and
416 those that often spawn at sea and enter estuaries in high numbers, particularly as juveniles in defined
417 patterns (marine migrants), aids understanding of both natural and anthropogenic impacts on estuaries
418 (Elliott et al. 2007b).

419 In accordance with the literature, a higher proportion of marine straggler species appears to characterise
420 the estuaries where a higher overall species diversity was estimated in this study (e.g. Tweed, Dee,
421 Poole Harbour, Dart and Southampton Waters). The width of the estuary mouth has been shown to be
422 an important predictor of species richness, particularly marine species, in previous studies (Pease 1999,

423 Roy et al. 2001, Nicolas et al. 2010b, Tweedley et al. 2017). However, the high diversity estuaries
424 mentioned above do not show particularly large mouths compared to other estuaries with less diverse
425 fish assemblages (as for example the Severn). We argue that it is the mouth width-to-estuary size (e.g.
426 area) ratio rather than the mouth width in itself that affects the predominance of marine species
427 occurring in the estuary as a whole, as this not only accounts for the accessibility of the estuary to
428 species entering from the adjacent marine area, but also the penetration of these species into the estuary
429 and their distribution across estuarine habitats (likely to be enhanced where the mouth-to-estuary size
430 ratio is higher, resulting in the estuary resembling more a marine embayment). This argument appears
431 to be supported by the findings by Perez-Ruzafa et al. (2007) on the hydrographic and geomorphologic
432 determinants of fish assemblages in coastal lagoons. These authors found that a morphometric
433 parameter (named restriction ratio) measuring the ratio between the width of the lagoon entrances and
434 the lagoon perimeter (a proxy for the waterbody size) was amongst the primary constraints affecting
435 the fish assemblage composition in the lagoons, mainly through influences on the temperature and
436 salinity regime of these systems. The latter factor is of particular relevance to the entrance and
437 penetration of estuaries by stenohaline marine species as are marine stragglers.

438 The presence of some straggler species permeating throughout certain estuaries and their presence in
439 nearly all samples collected across those estuaries challenges the expected biological preferences of
440 those species, or their functional categorisation for the estuaries within this study. Exploring those
441 estuaries that are of particular significance to the unexpected ‘generalists’ with extended sampling may
442 explain how these species adapt and thrive across the highly heterogeneous and challenging estuarine
443 environment.

444 The above feature reflects the so-called stress-subsidy continuum, whereby variable conditions in
445 estuaries are stressful for those species not adapted to them but a subsidy for those that are adapted
446 (Elliott & Quintino 2007). For example, there are some ubiquitous and euryecious species such as the
447 European flounder (*Platichthys flesus*) (Borg et al. 2014, Vinagre et al. 2005) and its presence in all
448 areas of the 27 estuaries in this study underlines its importance to estuarine fish assemblages. It has
449 been noted however that there can be changes even to this species due to both natural and anthropogenic
450 factors (Amorim et al. 2017), with a major decrease in European flounder recorded in a Portuguese
451 estuary (Cabral & Costa 1999), possibly due to climate change (Cabral et al. 2001).

452 A notable exception to the patterns mentioned above is the high fish diversity observed and estimated
453 in this study for the Humber, which results from a particularly high number of freshwater taxa. The
454 high percentage of freshwater taxa in the Humber may be due to the large catchment and high fluvial
455 flow, resulting in low overall site salinity despite the sites being located in the oligohaline, mesohaline
456 and polyhaline areas, allowing freshwater taxa to actively or passively occur in greater numbers into
457 the estuary.

458 The influence of a latitudinal-longitudinal combination factor (i.e. SW to NE) rather than either on its
459 own is expected to be important in the context of the British Isles given that the SW has the larger
460 influence of the warmer waters of the North Atlantic Drift and the NE the influence of colder North Sea
461 waters (Nicolas 2010b). If the estuarine fauna was therefore mainly the result of the influence of its
462 shelf components (the marine migrants and the straggler species) then this would have a dominating
463 effect, as has been found previously (Vasconcelos et al. 2015). Accordingly, the main influence would
464 be a gradient from the SW to the NE of the study area but longitude was not a significant explanatory
465 variable of species richness in our study.

466 *Implications for monitoring and management*

467 The size and nature of the full fish species complement of an estuary are regarded as indications of the
468 ecological status and so management measures are required if that status falls below what is expected.
469 This is the central *raison d' être* of determining Good Ecological Status under the EU Water Framework
470 Directive (Hering et al. 2010). The determination of the asymptote and the number of samples required
471 to achieve that is therefore important for managers who have to allocate sufficient resources to quantify
472 and understand the ecological status of an estuary.

473 Examination of the rarefaction curves suggest that in most estuaries, most of the species richness (that
474 can be sampled with a seine net) is achieved within 100 samples, beyond which continued sampling
475 provides relatively additional taxa. This analysis not only shows what proportion of the assemblage has
476 been encountered with the available sampling but it can be used proactively to define the field methods
477 to help managers understand when continued and further sampling is required. As mentioned before,
478 each method for monitoring fishes in estuaries will take a slightly different component of the
479 assemblage and several methods are needed concurrently in order to take all species (Elliott et al. 2002).
480 The WFD requires using the fish species complement is a predominant factor and metric in determining
481 the health and ecological status of an estuary (Coates et al. 2007). It is therefore emphasised that multi-
482 gear surveys provide an effective way to reach the full species complement. However due to the
483 heterogeneous and harsh nature of estuarine environments, it is difficult to obtain the entire species
484 complement and so such a survey is not cost-effective.

485 The current study suggests that regional classification tools, such as those aimed at ecological status
486 assessment (WFD 2000/60/EC), that do not take latitude and estuary size into account may misrepresent
487 the anthropogenic influences on estuaries as species richness decreases with latitude, and, in certain
488 conditions, increases with size, irrespective of anthropogenic impact (acknowledging the variable
489 impacts across the estuaries presented in this study).

490 Through the driver of the WFD, competent authorities now have extensive information on the
491 hydromorphological attributes of estuaries, including the width of the estuary mouth. Coupled with the

492 ever-increasing biological data, it is recommended that the complex interactions are explored to
493 determine if any factors beyond SLR and SAR influence fish diversity in temperate estuaries.

494

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500

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669 **Tables**

670 Table 1 Total species caught (SR_{obs}), site number (n_{sites}) and sample number collected per estuary (n) during surveys from 2006
 671 to 2015 in selected estuaries. Waterbody size, latitude and longitude. Mean site salinity and mean river flows measured over
 672 study period.

Estuary	SR_{obs}	n_{sites}	n	Size (ha)	Latitude	Longitude	Mean site salinity (psu)	Mean fluvial flow (m ³ /s)
Adur	31	5	114	137	50.85	-0.28	15.40	0.35
Alde & Ore	25	4	52	1088	52.12	1.54	29.25	0.89
Camel	45	7	156	1091	50.55	-4.91	25.71	0.74
Carrick Roads Inner	55	7	147	1259	50.21	-5.04	28.86	1.25
Conwy	37	3	111	1557	53.29	-3.84	23.33	22.82
Dart	55	5	125	831	50.38	-3.60	20.40	13.41
Dee	52	9	215	10928	53.32	-3.19	14.89	43.26
Esk(E)	22	4	97	28	54.48	-0.61	20.50	5.79
Exe	42	5	89	1793	50.63	-3.44	23.40	26.55
Foryd Bay	36	3	100	243	53.11	-4.32	32.33	6.17
Humber	48	12	237	32647	53.71	-0.48	8.42	139.28
Lune	25	2	76	302	54.02	-2.83	15.00	73.20
Medway	23	3	41	5657	51.41	0.64	21.33	12.59
Milford Haven Inner	34	7	256	2102	51.72	-4.91	24.00	15.18
Nyfer	25	3	107	103	52.02	-4.84	29.00	35.92
Orwell	38	4	139	1249	52.00	1.23	31.25	1.49
Poole Harbour	49	11	180	3309	50.70	-2.00	24.18	4.64
Ribble	34	4	84	4528	53.71	-2.97	13.75	39.80
Severn	27	5	48	53645	51.81	-2.54	13.60	127.03
Southampton Water	41	8	236	3091	50.87	-1.36	26.88	21.69
Stour	36	5	127	2553	51.95	1.18	30.20	0.97
Taw/Torridge	32	8	171	1461	51.07	-4.16	21.63	37.28
Tees	27	2	74	1143	54.62	-1.18	26.00	27.20
Teifi	26	3	75	616	52.11	-4.69	13.33	35.92
Thames	34	8	285	24842	51.49	0.25	7.63	82.59
Tweed	25	5	123	244	55.76	-2.04	9.20	13.90
Wyre	29	2	44	637	53.88	-2.98	18.00	8.71
Min	22	2	41	28	50.21	-5.04	7.63	0.35
Mean	35.3	5	130.0	5818	52.29	-2.27	21.02	29.58
Max	55	12	285	53645	55.76	1.54	32.33	139.28
SD	10.1	3	67.7	12195	1.50	2.11	7.29	36.63

673

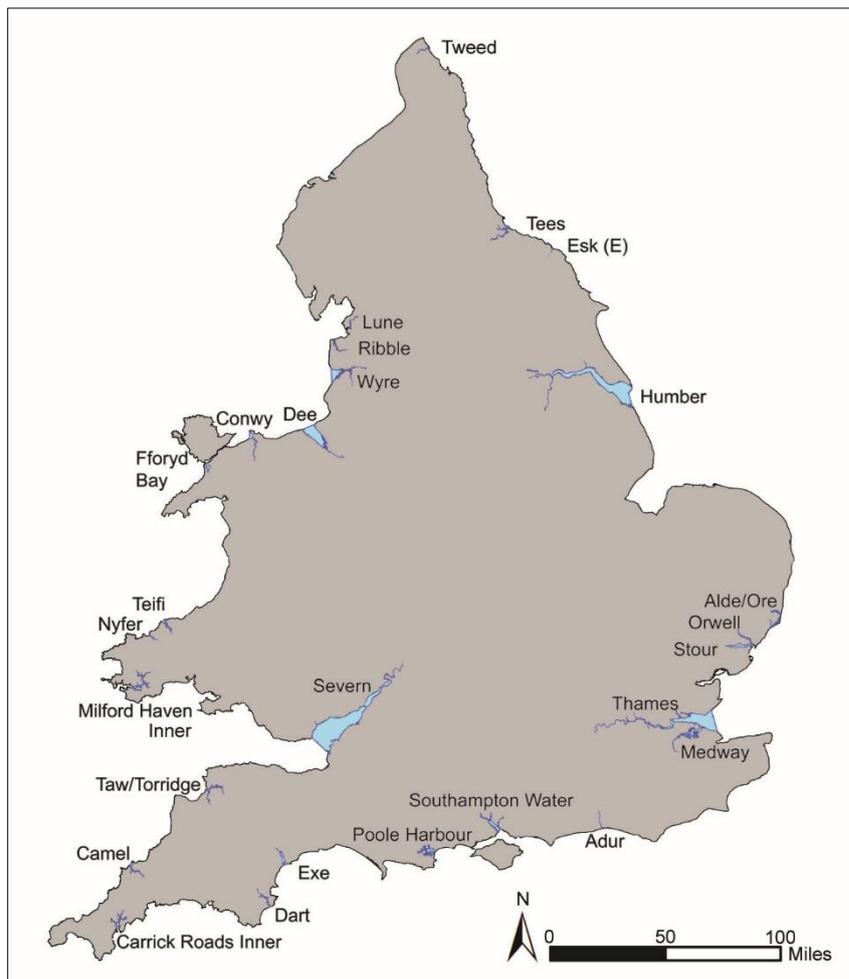
674 Table 2 Abbreviated estuary name, estimated maximum species richness (SR_{max}) with 95% confidence limits (CL). Groupings
 675 as identified by the cluster analysis are also reported.

Estuary	Abbreviated Name	SR_{max}	CL_{lower}	CL_{upper}	676 Group
Medway	Medway	23.37	23.03	28	A1
Esk(E)	Esk(E)	25.71	22.63	43.82	A1
Teifi	Teifi	26.49	26.04	32.15	A1
Lune	Lune	30.18	25.98	52.28	A1
Tees	Tees	30.45	27.64	45.67	A1
Taw/Torridge	Taw/T.	32.14	32.01	35.23	A1
Wyre	Wyre	33.4	30.01	48.24	A1
Thames	Thames	37.32	34.5	56	A2
Stour	Stour	37.86	36.29	47.91	A2
Foryd Bay	ForydB.	39.47	36.64	54.73	A2
Orwell	Orwell	41.47	38.69	55.46	A2
Conwy	Conwy	41.62	37.94	59.65	A2
Camel	Camel	45.85	45.09	52.93	A2
Alde & Ore	Al&Or	32.36	26.3	66.77	A3
Nyfer	Nyfer	34.91	26.86	77.68	A3
Severn	Severn	37.77	29.82	68.14	A3
Adur	Adur	37.94	32.33	67.25	A3
Milford Haven Inner	MH Inn.	41.17	35.59	66.26	A3
Ribble	Ribble	45.12	36.62	81.19	A3
Exe	Exe	48.8	43.69	69.38	A4
Humber	Humber	50.49	48.41	63.22	A4
Carrick Roads Inner	C.R.Inn	58.97	55.85	73.52	A4
Tweed	Tweed	45.83	30.04	111.08	B
Southampton Water	SotonW.	60.42	46.19	113.62	B
Dee	Dee	60.96	54.12	89.86	B
Poole Harbour	PooleH.	62.13	52.42	99.34	B
Dart	Dart	73.97	61.1	113.97	B

677

678 **Figures**

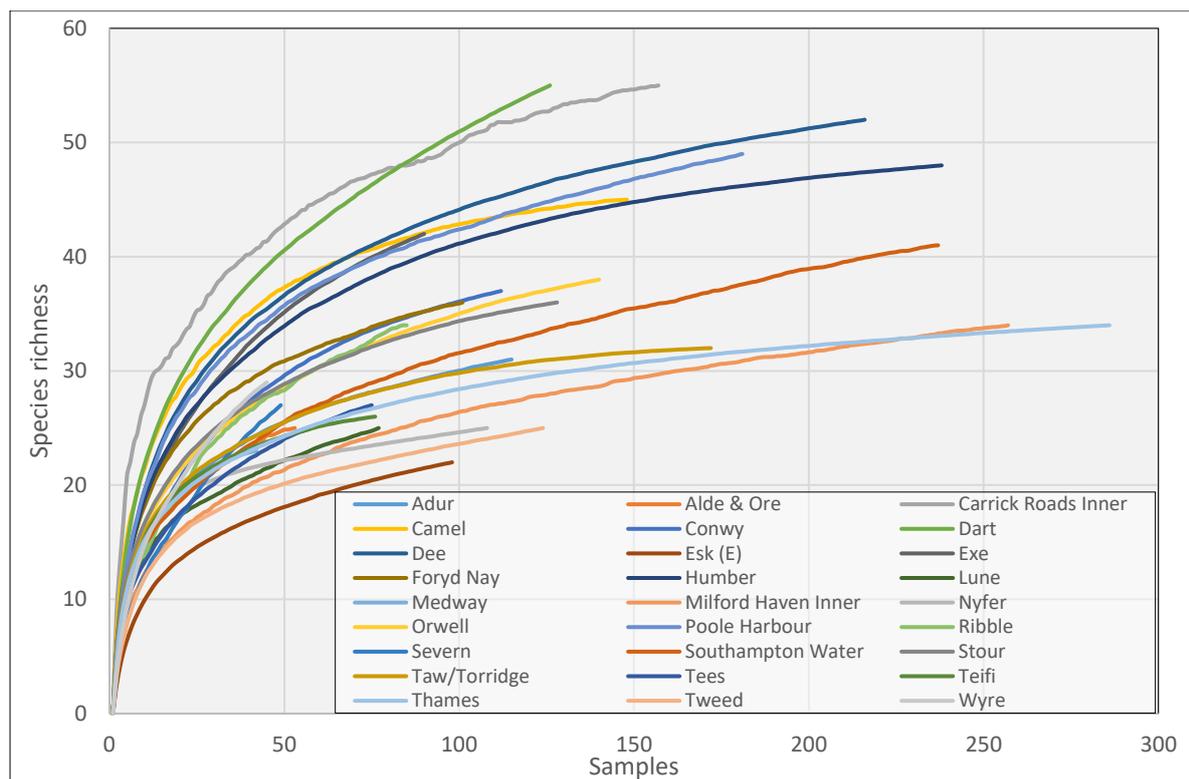
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681 **Figure 1** Estuaries monitored in present study

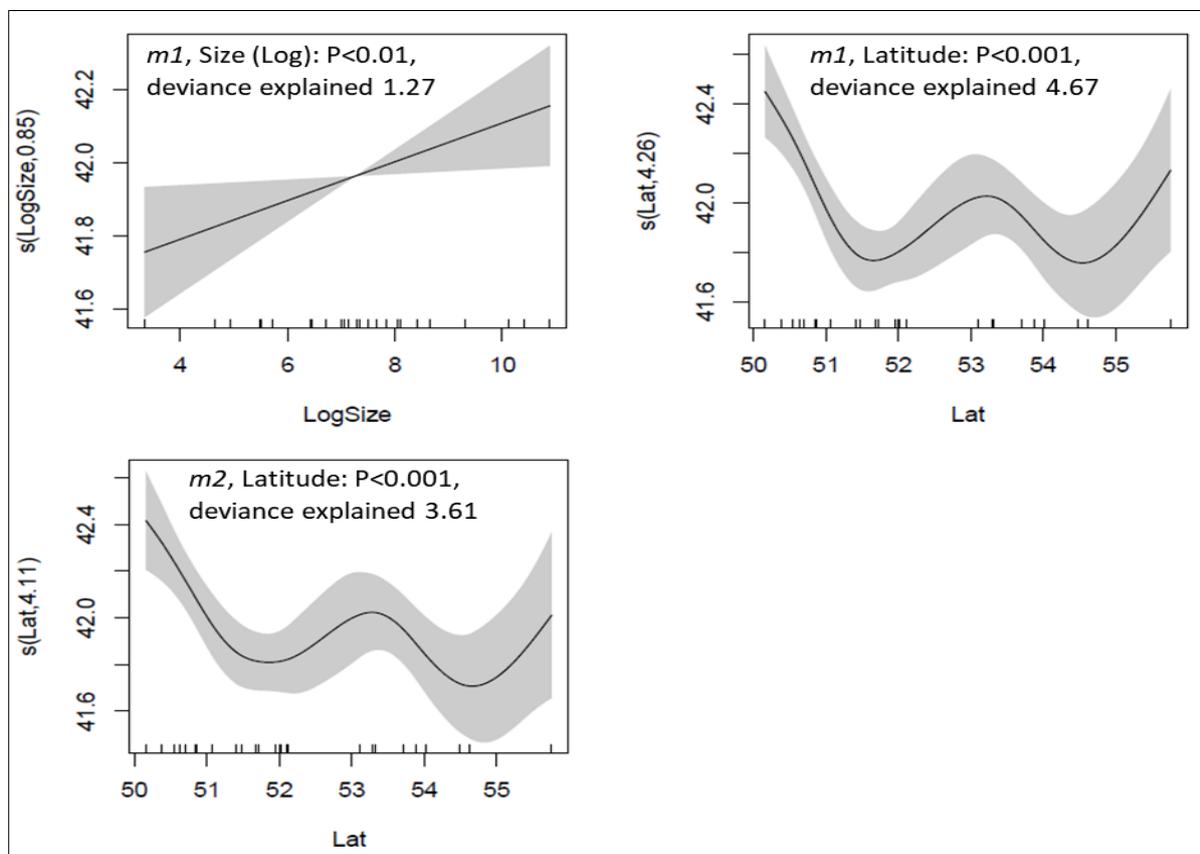
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684 Figure 2 Rarefaction curve for pooled data per estuary. Each curve represents the mean of up to 999 randomisations.

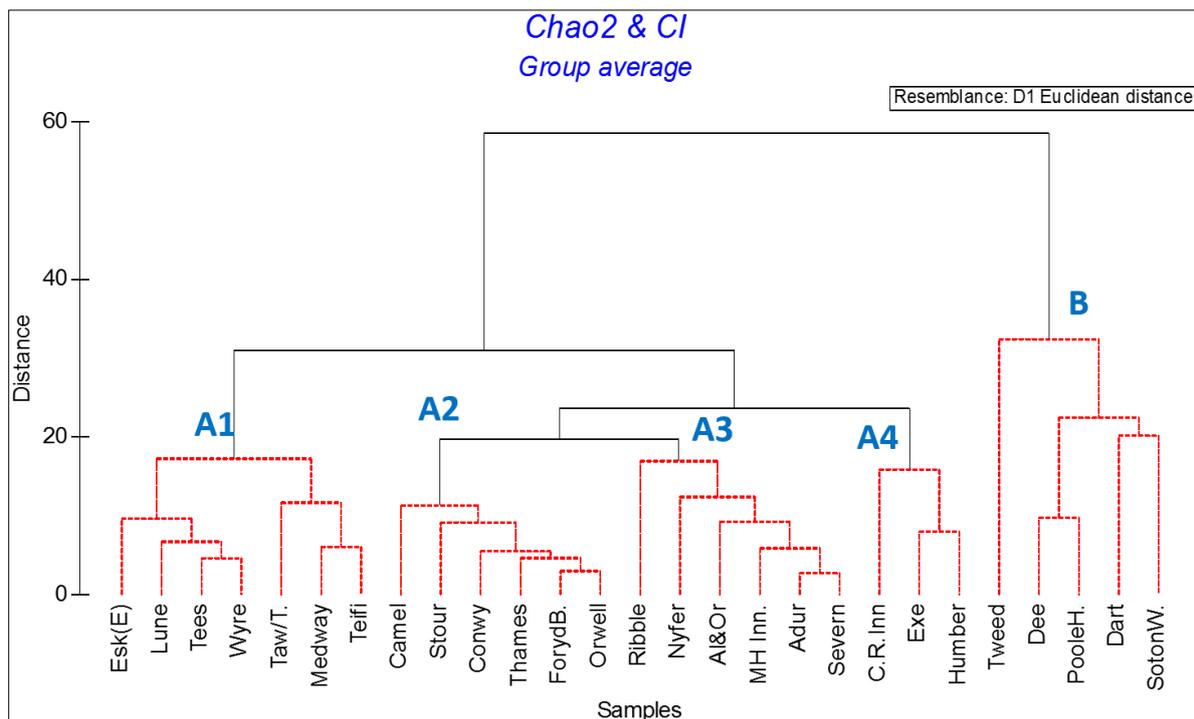
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687 Figure 3 GAM smoothing curves for significant predictors of SR_{max} , with associated confidence interval (shaded area).
688 Significance and magnitude of the effect (deviance explained by the individual predictor in the model) are indicated. Curves have
689 been rescaled to reflect variability on the SR_{max} scale.

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693 Figure 4 Cluster analysis of the studied estuaries based on SR_{max} estimates (mean and confidence limits). Significantly different
694 groups (SIMPROF, $P < 0.05$) are indicated with solid black lines. Groupings are indicated (A1-B).

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698 **Supplementary Material A1 Observed taxa over study period per estuary. Categorised into one**

699 **of six Estuarine Use Functional Guilds (EUFG) (Franco et al. 2008). Single asterisk denotes**

700 **presence. Double asterisk denotes taxa present in estuary in at least 90 percent of all samples.**

701 **Total number of taxa per estuary and total number of taxa present in at least 90 percent of all**

702 **samples per estuary noted at bottom of table.**

Latin Name	Common Name	EUFG	Adur	Alde & Ore	Carrick Roads Inner	Camel	Conwy	Dart	Dee (N_Wales)	Esk (E)	Exe	Foryd Bay	Humber	Lune	Medway	Milford Haven Inner	Nyfer	Orwell	Poole Harbour	Ribble	Severn	Southampton Water
<i>Abramis bjoerkna</i>	Silver bream	F	*										*									
<i>Abramis brama</i>	Common bream	F	*					*					**									*
<i>Agonus cataphractus</i>	Hooknose	ES, MS				*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*				*		
<i>Alburnus alburnus</i>	Bleak	F											*									
<i>Alosa alosa</i>	Allis shad	A				*																
<i>Alosa fallax</i>	Twaite shad	A		*																		*
<i>Ammodytes tobianus</i>	Small sandeel	ES, MS	**		*	**	**	*	**	**	**	**	*	*		*	**	*	*	*	**	**
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	C	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
<i>Aphia minuta</i>	Transparent goby	ES, MM		*	*			*	*						*			*	*	*	*	*
<i>Apletodon dentatus</i>	Smallheaded clingfish	MS			*			*														
<i>Atherina boyeri</i>	Sandsmelt	ES																				
<i>Atherina presbyter</i>	Sandsmelt	MM	**	**	**	**	**	**	*	*	*	**	*		**	**	**	**	**	*	*	**
<i>Barbatula barbatula</i>	Stone loach	F												*								
<i>Belone belone</i>	Garpike	MM, MS			*	*	*	*			*				*	*			*			*
<i>Buglossidium luteum</i>	Solenette	MS	*		*	*			*	*	*	*			*				*			*
<i>Callionymus lyra</i>	Dragonet	MS		*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*					*	*	*	*	*
<i>Callionymus reticulatus</i>	Reticulated dragonet	MS																*		*		*
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	Goldfish varieties	F	*																			
<i>Chelidonichthys lucernus</i>	Tub gurnard	MM, MS			*	*			*	*	*	*							*		*	*
<i>Chelon labrosus</i>	Thicklip grey mullet	MM	**	*	**	**	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	**	**	**	*	*	*	**
<i>Ciliata mustela</i>	Fivebeard rockling	MM			*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*					*	*	*	*	*
<i>Clupea harengus</i>	Herring	MM	**	**	*	**	*	**	*	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**
<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	Spined loach	FS											*									
<i>Conger conger</i>	Conger eel	MS							*													
<i>Cottus gobio</i>	Bullhead	F												*						*		
<i>Crenilabrus melops</i>	Corkwing wrasse	MS			**	*		*		*	*	*						*	*			*
<i>Crystallogobius linearis</i>	Crystal goby	MS							*												*	

<i>Liza aurata</i>	Golden grey mullet	MM	**	*	*	*	*	**	*	**	**	*		**	*	*	**	**	**	**
<i>Liza ramada</i>	Thin lipped grey mullet	C, MM	**	**	*	*	**	**	*	*	*	*	*	**	**	*	*	**	*	**
<i>Lumpenus lampretaeformis</i>	Snake blenny	MS														*				
<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>	Whiting	MM, MS				*	*		**	*	*	*	*			*		**	**	
<i>Microstomus kitt</i>	Lemon sole	MS								*	*	*								
<i>Mullus surmuletus</i>	Red mullet	MM, MS			*	*		*						*						
<i>Myoxocephalus scorpius</i>	Bullrout	ES, MS		*	*		*	*								*		*	*	
<i>Nerophis lumbriciformis</i>	Worm pipefish	ES			*		*	*	*	*										
<i>Nerophis ophidion</i>	Straightnosed pipefish	ES, MS											*				*			
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Rainbow trout	F																		
<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>	European smelt	SA		**		*		**	*	*	**	**	**		*		*		*	
<i>Parablennius gattorugine</i>	Tompot blenny	MS			*	*	*		*	*							*		*	
<i>Pegusa lascaris</i>	Sand sole	MM										*					*	*		
<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	European perch	F	*				*	*	*	*	*	*						*		
<i>Petromyzon marinus</i>	Sea lamprey	A						*												
<i>Pholis gunnellus</i>	Butterfish	ES, MS		*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*		*					
<i>Phoxinus phoxinus</i>	Eurasian minnow	F				*	*			*	**						**	*		
<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	Flounder	MM	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	
<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	European plaice	MM	*	**	*	*	**	*	**	**	**	**	*	**	**	**	**	**	**	
<i>Pollachius pollachius</i>	Pollack	MM, MS		*	*	*	*	**	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
<i>Pollachius virens</i>	Coley	MS							*		*			*						
<i>Pomatoschistus lozanoi</i>	Lozano's goby	MM, MS					*												*	
<i>Pomatoschistus microps</i>	Common goby	ES	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	*	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	
<i>Pomatoschistus minutus</i>	Sand goby	ES, MM	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	
<i>Pomatoschistus pictus</i>	Painted goby	MS			**	*	*	*		*		*	*	**		*		*	*	
<i>Psetta maxima</i>	Turbot	MM, MS				*		*		*	*					*				
<i>Pungitius pungitius</i>	Ninespine stickleback	F	*							*		*								
<i>Raja clavata</i>	Thornback ray	MS			*											*				
<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>	Roach	F	*					*	*	*	**	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	A				*	*	*	*	*	*	**	*	*	*	*	*	*	**	
<i>Salmo trutta</i>	Sea trout	A,F	*		*	*	**	*	*	**	*	*	**	*	*	*	*	*	*	
<i>Sander lucioperca</i>	Zander	FS																		
<i>Sardina pilchardus</i>	European pilchard	MM, MS			*	**	*	*	*	*										
<i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i>	Rudd varieties	F	*				*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	

