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4 **Baseline for ostracod-based northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific shallow-**
5 **marine paleoenvironmental reconstructions: ecological modeling of species**
6 **distributions**

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28 Abstract:

29 Fossil ostracods have been widely used for Quaternary paleoenvironmental
30 reconstructions especially in marginally marine environments (e.g. for water depth,
31 temperature, salinity, oxygen levels, pollution). But our knowledge of the autoecology
32 of indicator species, the base of paleoenvironmental reconstructions, remains limited
33 and commonly lacks robust statistical support and comprehensive comparison with
34 environmental data. We analysed marginally marine ostracod taxa at 52 sites in Hong
35 Kong for which comprehensive environmental data are available. We applied linear
36 regression models to reveal relationships between species distribution and
37 environmental factors, and identified indicator species of environmental parameters.
38 For example, *Sinocytheridea impressa* and *Neomonoceratina delicata* indicate
39 bottom-water hypoxia – eutrophication, and heavy-metal pollution - increased
40 turbidity, respectively. Many taxa are widespread throughout the northwestern Pacific
41 – Indo-Pacific regions, including temperate (South China Sea to Japan and Russia),
42 subtropical (i.e., Indo-Pacific to the East China Sea), and tropical (i.e., Indo-Pacific
43 and South China Sea) taxa. With statistical support from ecological modeling and
44 comprehensive environmental data, These results provide a robust baseline for
45 ostracod-based Quaternary-Anthropocene paleoenvironmental reconstructions in the
46 tropic–extratropic northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific.

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48 Key words: Autoecology, Distribution modeling, Indicator species, Ostracoda,
49 Paleoenvironmental reconstruction, Proxy.

50



51 **Key points**

52 1. We provide a robust baseline for ostracod (microscopic Arthropods) based
53 paleoenvironmental reconstructions from Quaternary and Anthropocene marginal
54 marine sediments.

55 2. The studied species have wide distributions over the tropics and extratropics of the
56 northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific.

57 3. Ecological modeling established reliable indicator ostracod species for
58 paleoenvironmental reconstructions.

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62 **1. Introduction**

63 Because of their small size, high abundance and excellent fossil record, fossil
64 ostracods (microcrustaceans), have been widely used to reconstruct Quaternary
65 environmental conditions including water-depth, salinity, temperature, oxygen, and
66 pollution, especially in marginal marine sediments (Boomer & Eisenhauer, 2002;
67 Cronin, 2015; Frenzel & Boomer, 2005; Horne et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2005). In the
68 northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific there are numerous, widely distributed deltas
69 (Woodroffe et al., 2006) hosting accumulated Holocene marine sediments. Many
70 studies have reconstructed the depositional environments of these sediments (Alberti
71 et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2012; Irizuki et al., 2015b; Tanaka et al., 2011; Yasuhara &
72 Seto, 2006; Yasuhara et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2015). Due to high sedimentation rates
73 (> 1 cm per year), fossil ostracods allow high-resolution reconstructions of human-
74 induced environmental changes (pollution, eutrophication, bottom oxygen depletion)
75 over the past century (Irizuki et al., 2011; Yasuhara et al., 2003).



76

77 Many have evaluated the autoecology of indicator species as the basis for the
78 paleoenvironmental reconstructions (Hazel, 1988; Irizuki et al., 2003; Ozawa et al.,
79 2004; Stepanova et al., 2003; Wang et al., 1988; Yasuhara & Seto, 2006; Zhao, 1984;
80 Zhao & Wang, 1988a, 1988b). Yet these studies tend to focus on only one or few
81 targeted environmental factor(s) and lack rigorous statistical evaluation, particularly
82 statistical modeling, a common approach in contemporary ecology. This is probably
83 due to the facts that comprehensive environmental dataset are often unavailable and
84 an ecological modeling approach (especially regression modeling and model selection)
85 has not been common in the field of micropaleontology.

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87 Hong Kong is an ideal location for the marine ecological modeling approach
88 valid for the northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific, because of its extensive and
89 intensive marine environmental monitoring program, which provides robust datasets
90 for ecological modeling and its subtropical location, where tropical and temperate
91 species coexist, which allows investigations of species with different latitudinal and
92 geographical distributions. We employed regression modeling of Hong Kong
93 shallow-marine ostracod species to show statistical relationships between species
94 abundance, distribution and environmental factors. This study allows the autoecology
95 and statistical evaluation of common tropical and extratropical species, providing a
96 baseline for ostracod-based shallow-marine paleoenvironmental reconstructions of the
97 northwestern Pacific and Indo-Pacific regions.

98

99 **2. Study area**



100 Hong Kong is situated at the southeastern corner of the Pearl River (Zhujiang) Delta,
101 and has an area of 2500 km² (Fig. 1), at 22° 12.021' to 22° 33.817' N latitude, 113°
102 53.388' to 114° 26.920' E longitude. It is an ideal location to study natural and/or
103 anthropogenic impacts on benthic communities due to its complex hydrology and
104 long history of human influence. Western Hong Kong is affected by input from the
105 Pearl River, particularly during the summer heavy rainfall (Morton & Wu, 1975),
106 when salinity of the surface waters is strongly influenced by rainfall. Eastern Hong
107 Kong waters are mainly marine and derived from the South China Sea. As one of the
108 most urbanized coastal areas in the world, human activities, including rapid
109 industrialization, sewage discharge, trawling, dredging and land reclamation have led
110 to a deteriorated marine benthic ecosystem (Blackmore, 1998; Hodgkiss & Yim, 1995;
111 Hong et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2008; Morton, 1996; Morton & Blackmore, 2001; Owen
112 & Sandhu, 2000; Shin, 1977; Tanner et al., 2000).

113

114 3. Materials and Methods

115 3.1. Samples and laboratory procedure

116 In January and July of 2011 we used a Van Veen Grab to collect 100 ml of sediment
117 from the uppermost cm of the sea floor from 52 sites in Hong Kong marine waters
118 (Fig. 1; Supplement A), 41 of which are in open waters and 11 in typhoon shelter sites.
119 Typhoon shelters are semi-enclosed areas of water designed to protect moored vessels
120 in extreme weather (Environmental Protection Department, 2011). All sites are
121 included in the Hong Kong EPD marine water and sediment quality monitoring
122 program, which has been conducted monthly since 1986 (for water) and biannually
123 (for sediment), providing comprehensive environmental data for all stations (see
124 below).



125 Sediments were wet-sieved over a 63 μm mesh sieve and air dried or oven-
126 dried at 40 °C. The residue was dry-sieved over a 150 μm mesh sieve, and ostracod
127 specimens larger than 150 μm were picked; smaller individuals were not included to
128 avoid problems of identification in small, early instar juveniles. In samples containing
129 fewer than 200 specimens, we picked all individuals. If there were more than 200
130 specimens, we picked ostracods from a split. We identified each counted specimen to
131 species level when possible. We considered both an entire carapace or a single valve
132 as one individual for counting.

133

134 **3.2 Environmental Variables**

135 We selected parameters from the EPD monitoring program (Table 1) for our
136 regression modeling (see below), including surface productivity (Chlorophyll-a, Chl;
137 Fig. 2), water depth (D; Fig. 2), bottom water dissolved oxygen (DO; Fig. 2), bottom
138 water salinity (Sal; Fig. 2), turbidity (Tur; Fig. 2), summer bottom water temperature
139 (ST – June to September average; Fig. 2), winter bottom water temperature (WT –
140 November to February average; Fig. 2), mud content (MD; Fig. 2), and heavy metal
141 concentration (Cu, Zn, and Pb; Fig. 3). These parameters are known to control
142 ostracod faunal properties (Cronin, 2015; Cronin & Vann, 2003; Hazel, 1988; Ikeya
143 & Shiozaki, 1993; Irizuki et al., 2005; Ruiz et al., 2005; Yasuhara et al., 2007;
144 Yasuhara et al., 2012b). We used averages over the entire monitoring period (1986–
145 2011), because the ostracods in this study were mostly dead shells, thus the samples
146 should be considered time averaged. Bottom water DO is the average of the summer
147 season (June–September), due to the likely importance of summer bottom water
148 oxygen depletion.

149



150 **4. Regression modeling**

151 Multiple linear regression modeling was used to determine the relationship between
152 common ostracod species (relative abundance of each species) and environmental
153 parameters (Supplement B). All environmental parameters were log-transformed and
154 zero centered. Salinity outliers (salinity <25: DS2 and DS3) and samples with low
155 abundance (<50 specimens: ES5, MS7, VS21, VS5 & VS6) were removed from the
156 models.

157 The best-fitting models were selected based on Akaike's Information Criterion
158 (AICc) for small sample size, in which the lower score indicates the better model
159 support considering both goodness-of-fit and model complexity (Anderson &
160 Burnham, 2002). Akaike weights were used to summarize proportional support for all
161 candidate models (Anderson et al., 2000) (Table 2). We considered parameter
162 estimates averaged over models, proportional to the support that each model received
163 (Anderson et al., 2000) (Table 3). This approach accounts for the uncertainty in model
164 selection and thus leads to appropriately broader confidence intervals than obtained
165 by relying only on the single, best-supported model. The relative importance of
166 various predictor variables was measured by the sum of Akaike weights of models
167 that included the variables in question (Brunham & Anderson, 2002).

168 We explored linear dependencies by computing variance inflation factors (VIF)
169 (Legendre & Legendre, 1998) and pairwise correlations between predictor variables
170 to assess whether multicollinearity was likely to influence regression results
171 (Yasuhara et al., 2012b). The degree of freedom is more than one for the geographic
172 region variable (see below), thus we computed generalized variance inflation factors
173 (GVIF). For continuous variables, GVIF (Table 4) is the same as VIF, but for
174 categorical variables, GVIF has degrees of freedom (Df) equal to the number of



175 coefficients associated with it (Hendrickx et al., 2004). Thus, we used $GVIF^{1/2df}$ to
 176 make GVIF values comparable among those with different Df. $VIF > 20$ is usually
 177 indicative of high collinearity (Legendre & Legendre, 1998). Thus we calculated an
 178 equivalent threshold of 4.47 (equal to $\sqrt{20}$) for $GVIF^{1/2df}$ to assess conlinearity. Also,
 179 adjusted $R^2 > 0.8$ indicates a strong correlation of variables (Hoffman, 2015). In all
 180 datasets, summer temperature (ST) and water depth (D) were highly correlated
 181 ($R^2=0.8217$), and the GVIFs of ST and Cu are >20 , indicating that these correlations
 182 may influence regression results. Thus, we re-ran the linear regression modeling
 183 without ST and Cu. The new GVIFs of all variables were under 4.47 (Table 4).

184 We considered the degree of spatial autocorrelation in model residuals by the
 185 calculation of Moran's I index for the five best models. The neighborhood size was
 186 set as 2, 5, 10, 20 and 50 km. We found significant spatial autocorrelation in model
 187 residuals for many cases, thus we forced the geographic region variable (R) (Water
 188 Control Zones defined by EPD) to be included in all models. After this treatment,
 189 spatial autocorrelation was detected only in a few models for *Propontocypris* spp.,
 190 *Stigmatocythere roesmani*, and *Hemikrithe orientalis*.

191 The multiple linear regression model analyses were implemented in R
 192 programming language (R Core Team, 2016). We used 'M_UMI_N' (Bartoń, 2013) for
 193 model averaging and 'SPDEP' (Bivand & Piras, 2015) to measure spatial
 194 autocorrelation.

195

196 5. Results and discussions

197 The comprehensive ostracod dataset for the 52 sites and the environmental variables
 198 enabled us to elucidate distribution patterns of common ostracod taxa and their related
 199 environmental factor(s). We identified 151 species belonging to 76 genera



(Supplement A). Among them, 18 common taxa (mainly species, a few genera) of *Sinocytheridea impressa*, *Neomonoceratina delicata*, *Propontocypris* spp., *Pistocythereis bradyi*, *Bicornucythere bisanensis* s.l., *Keijella kloempritsensis*, *Nipponocythere bicarinata*, *Spinileberis quadriaculeata*, *Xestoleberis* spp., *Loxoconcha malayensis*, *Neonesidea* spp., *Neosinocythere elongata*, *Stigmatocythere roesmani*, *Phlyctocythere japonica*, *Alocopocythere goujoni*, *Hemikrithe orientalis*, *Loxoconcha epeterseni* and *Hemicytheridea reticulata* (Supplement B) were used for regression modelling, and their relative abundances (to the total ostracod abundance in a sample) show a significant relation with environmental parameters. The best three regression models are presented in Table 2 and the model-averaged parameter estimates in Table 3.

Relative abundance of *S. impressa* [= *Sinocytheridea latiovata*; see Whatley and Zhao (1988a)] was strongly correlated with salinity (negative), dissolved oxygen (negative), mud content (positive) and productivity (positive) (Tables 2 and 3). The species is noticeably dominant in areas characterized by a muddy bottom including northern Mirs Bay, Port Shelter and coastal Southern Waters (Fig. 4). This species is also abundant in Tolo Harbour, an area known for its summer hypoxia and eutrophication (Hu et al., 2001; Sin & Chau, 1992). These results are consistent with previous studies indicating that *S. impressa* is dominant in low salinity, nutrient-rich and turbid estuaries (Irizuki et al., 2005; Tanaka et al., 2011), but we did not see a significant relation with turbidity (Tables 2 and 3). *S. impressa* is known as a euryhaline species widely distributed throughout the East and South China Seas [abundant in water depths of <20 m; Whatley and Zhao (1988a)], and the Indo-Pacific (Fig. 7).



224 Relative abundance of *N. delicata* (=Neomonoceratina crispata; see Hou &
225 Gou, 2007) is significantly correlated with Zn (positive), salinity (positive) and
226 turbidity (positive) (Tables 2 and 3). *N. delicata* is a nearshore species, abundant at
227 depths less than 30 m, at relatively high salinities (>30; Zhao and Wang, 1988). *N.*
228 *delicata* prefers higher salinity waters in Hong Kong (Figs. 2 and 4; Tables 2 and 3),
229 and is likely tolerant to human-induced environmental stress such as pollution and
230 eutrophication, in view of its positive correlation with Zn and turbidity. This species
231 is widely known from nearshore and estuary environments in the East and South
232 China Seas, and the Indo-Pacific (Fig. 7).

233 Relative abundance of *B. bisanensis* s.l. was significantly correlated with
234 water depth (negative) (Tables 2 and 3) and this species prefers shallower
235 environments (Figs. 2 and 4). In Chinese and Japanese coastal areas, *B. bisanensis* s.l.
236 is abundant in brackish water (salinity: 20–30) at depths less than 10 m (Ikeya &
237 Shiozaki, 1993; Irizuki et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 1986). Our results confirm its
238 preference for shallow depths. *Bicornucythere bisanensis* is tolerant of anthropogenic
239 impacts, especially eutrophication and the resulting bottom water hypoxia in Japan
240 (Irizuki et al., 2003; Yasuhara et al., 2003; Yasuhara et al., 2012a). We did not see a
241 significant relation between relative abundance and metal concentration, productivity,
242 or dissolved oxygen. Possibly, the more dominant presence of *S. impressa* and *N.*
243 *delicata*, that are neither dominant or distributed throughout most of Japan, could
244 explain this difference. These species may have a higher tolerance than *B. bisanensis*
245 s.l. Another explanation may be that different morphotypes have different ecological
246 preferences (Abe, 1988), and only Form A is known to be tolerant to eutrophication
247 and bottom-water oxygen depletion (Irizuki et al., 2011; Irizuki et al., 2015a;
248 Yasuhara & Yamazaki, 2005; Yasuhara et al., 2007). Form A is less abundant in



249 Hong Kong, and due to the difficulty of identification of juveniles, we did not divide
250 *B. bisanensis* into morphotypes. *B. bisanensis* s.l. is widely distributed throughout
251 marginal marine environments around Japan and Russia, and the East and South
252 China Seas (Fig. 7).

253 Relative abundance of *P. bradyi* was highly correlated with salinity (positive),
254 water depth (negative) and Pb (negative) (Tables 2 and 3). This indicates the species
255 prefers relatively shallow environments with high salinity (Figs. 2 and 4). In the Pearl
256 River Delta and shallow South China Sea (Fig. 7), *P. bradyi* is dominant along the
257 inner continental shelf at water depths <100 m (mostly common between 10–50 m),
258 and at salinities from 30–40 (Li, 1985; Zhao & Wang, 1990; Zhao et al., 1986).
259 *Pistocythereis bradyi* is a typical middle muddy bay species in Japan (Irizuki et al.,
260 2006; Yasuhara & Irizuki, 2001; Yasuhara & Seto, 2006), and known from open bays
261 such as Gamagyang Bay in Korea (Abe, 1988) and Malacca Strait (Whatley & Zhao,
262 1988b). In these studies, *P. bradyi* prefers relatively high salinity and deeper water in
263 the inner continental shelf (Tables 2 and 3). Our data agree as to the preference for
264 high salinity, but we find shallower depths, inconsistent with the literature. Maybe
265 salinity is more important than depth, but the restricted depth range of our sites (≤ 35
266 m) may also be a reason for this inconsistency. Our results indicate that *P. bradyi* is
267 sensitive to metal pollution. This species is widely distributed throughout the
268 marginally marine environments of Japan, the East and South China Seas, and the
269 Indo-Pacific (Fig. 7).

270 Relative abundance of *N. bicarinata* was correlated with productivity
271 (negative) (Tables 2 and 3). This is a typical middle bay species in Japan (Irizuki et al.,
272 2006), abundant on muddy substrates at water depths > 10 m (Yasuhara & Seto, 2006;
273 Yasuhara et al., 2005). We found *N. bicarinata* to be sensitive to eutrophication,



274 preferring lower productivity (Figures 2, 4). This species is known from marginal
275 marine environments around Japan and the East and South China Seas (Fig. 7).

276 Relative abundance of *S. quadriaculeata* is correlated to productivity (positive)
277 and turbidity (negative). This is a typical inner muddy bay species in Japan (Irizuki et
278 al., 2006), which prefers silty substrates in brackish waters, at salinities from 20–30,
279 and water depths of 2–7 m (Ikeya and Shiozaki, 1993). This study shows a preference
280 for waters with higher productivity but relatively low turbidity (Tables 2 and 3), so
281 that the species is abundant in Tolo Harbour (higher productivity, lower turbidity) but
282 not in Deep Bay (higher turbidity) (Figs. 2 and 4). *Spinileberis quadriaculeata* is not
283 tolerant to seasonal anoxia or oxygen depletion (0–1 mg/L) in Uranouchi Bay, Japan
284 (Irizuki et al., 2008), but we do not find a significant correlation with dissolved
285 oxygen content, probably due to the relatively high bottom-water oxygen content
286 (2.96–6.84 mg/L) in Hong Kong (Fig. 2; Supplement B). *S. quadriaculeata* is widely
287 distributed in marginally marine environments around Japan and Russia, and the East
288 and South China Seas (Fig. 7).

289 Relative abundance of *K. kloempritsensis* was correlated only with water depth
290 (positive) (Fig. 4; Tables 2 and 3). *Keijella kloempritsensis* is widely known from the
291 tropical Indo-Pacific region, and abundant along the inner continental-shelf of the
292 South and East China Seas (Fig. 7), at water depths range from 20–50 m and salinity
293 is close to normal marine (Zhao & Wang, 1990). Our modelling results are consistent
294 with this showing a preference for relatively deeper water in this study (Tables 2 and
295 3). Thus, this species is probably useful for reconstructing past sea-level changes in
296 the broad tropical and subtropical Indo-Pacific and northwestern Pacific regions.

297 Relative abundance of *L. malayensis* was correlated with dissolved oxygen
298 (negative) and mud content (negative) (Tables 2 and 3). *Loxoconcha malayensis* is a



299 typical tropical species known from the Indo-Pacific and the South China Sea (Fig. 7).

300 We did not find a correlation to temperature, likely due to the small range of variation

301 of bottom water temperatures in Hong Kong (winter temperature: 19.10–21.49°C).

302 This species prefers coarse sediments and is resistant to low oxygen content (Table 2

303 and 3), as seen by its abundance in Victoria Harbour (Figs. 2 and 4).

304 Relative abundance of *N. elongata* was correlated only with turbidity (positive)

305 (Tables 2 and 3). *Neosinocythere elongata* occurs along the entire coast of China (Fig.

306 7) in marginal marine, especially estuarine, environments shallower than 20 m (Dong

307 et al., 2012; Hou & Gou, 2007; Liu et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017; Zhao & Whatley,

308 1993) and is known from the Indo-Pacific region (Fig. 7). Our modeling results and

309 previous studies indicate consistently that *N. elongata* prefers shallow, turbid waters

310 like Deep Bay and the Pearl River Estuary (Figs 2 and 6).

311 Relative abundance of *S. roesmani* was correlated with Pb (negative) (Tables

312 2 and 3), thus it was sensitive to metal pollution (but note the significant

313 autocorrelation with the modeling result of this genus) and absent in areas with high

314 metal concentrations, e.g., Tolo and Victoria Harbours (Fig. 3, 6). This species occurs

315 in the East and South China Seas and the Indo-Pacific region (Dewi, 1997; Mostafawi,

316 1992; Whatley & Zhao, 1988a) (Fig. 7).

317 Relative abundance of *P. japonica* was correlated with water depth (positive)

318 (Tables 2 and 3). This species is known from relatively deeper waters (>40 m) in the

319 East China Sea (Ishizaki, 1981; Wang et al., 1988). At our sites, it has its greatest

320 abundance at the deeper southern sites (Fig. 5). *Phlyctocythere japonica* is distributed

321 around Japan (Yasuhara et al., 2002) and the East and South China Seas (Fig. 7).

322 Relative abundance of *A. goujoni* was correlated with salinity (positive)

323 (Tables 2 and 3). It occurs not only in Mirs Bay where the salinity is higher, but also



324 in Deep Bay and North Western Waters where the salinity is lower than in other areas
325 (Figs 2 and 6). The Deep Bay and North Western Waters are shallow and have
326 relatively low oxygen content. The modeling result of this species shows a marginally
327 insignificant but negative relationship to oxygen content and water depth with
328 moderately high relative importance (Table 3). We explain this inconsistency by
329 considering their preference of higher salinity and shallow water depths, and also their
330 resistance to low oxygen conditions, but further research is needed to know their
331 autoecology with better confidence. *Alocopocythere goujoni* is known from the South
332 China Sea and the Indo-Pacific (Fig. 7).

333 Relative abundance of *H. orientalis* was correlated with water depth (positive)
334 (Tables 2 and 3; but note the significant autocorrelation with the modeling result of
335 this genus), and it is more abundant in deeper waters including southern Mirs Bay
336 (Fig. 5). *Hemikrithe orientalis* is known from depths of 20–50 m in the South China
337 Sea (Zhao & Wang, 1988a), and reported from tropical Indo-Pacific marginal marine
338 environments (Fig. 7). Our regression modeling consistently shows a positive
339 relationship between the relative abundance and winter temperatures, with moderately
340 high relative importance, although the correlation is marginally insignificant (Table 3).

341 Relative abundance of *L. epeterseni* was correlated with water depth (positive)
342 and turbidity (negative) (Tables 2 and 3), and its occurs in the southern and eastern,
343 deeper and less turbid parts of Hong Kong waters, but the trend is not very clear (Figs
344 2 and 6). This species is also known from the deeper parts of Osaka Bay, Japan
345 (Yasuhara & Irizuki, 2001) and from marginal marine environments around Japan
346 (Ishizaki, 1968), the East China Sea (Yang et al., 1982), and the South China Sea
347 (Cao, 1998) (Fig. 7). This species is reported as *Loxoconcha modesta* in Hou & Gou
348 (2007), and also has been misidentified as *Loxoconcha viva* and *Loxoconcha sinensis*



349 (Hou & Gou, 2007). Ishizaki (1968) described *Loxoconcha laeta* and *Loxoconcha*
350 *modesta* but in our opinion, these are the females and males of the same species.
351 Ishizaki (1981) gave the new species names *Loxoconcha epeterseni* and *Loxoconcha*
352 *tosamodesta* for *Loxoconcha laeta* and *Loxoconcha modesta*, respectively, because
353 these names were junior homonyms. Since *Loxoconcha laeta* (= *epeterseni*) appears
354 earlier than *Loxoconcha modesta* (= *tosamodesta*) in the original description (Ishizaki,
355 1968), we use the name *Loxoconcha epeterseni* for this species.

356 Relative abundance of *H. reticulata* was correlated with Pb (negative) and
357 water depth (negative) (Tables 2 and 3). This species is abundant in Tolo Harbour
358 and the inner part of Mirs Bay (Fig. 5), at shallow depths, and is also consistently
359 found in very shallow waters from the Indo-Pacific (Zhao & Whatley, 1989). Their
360 metal-pollution sensitivity is contradictory because they occur in Tolo and Victoria
361 Harbours, both polluted regions of Hong Kong, and further research is needed to
362 better understand these results (Figs 2 and 6). *Hemicytheridea reticulata* is distributed
363 in the East China Sea (Gu et al., 2017), the South China Sea, and the Indo-Pacific (Fig.
364 7).

365 The relative abundance of the cosmopolitan *Neonesidea* spp. was correlated
366 with dissolved oxygen (positive), as expected for a phytal species (Smith & Kamiya,
367 2002; Yamada, 2007) (Table 2 and 3; Fig 6).

368 The relative abundance of the cosmopolitan *Propontocypris* spp. was strongly
369 correlated with productivity (negative) (Tables 2 and 3). This negative correlation
370 with productivity (but note the significant autocorrelation with the modeling result of
371 this genus) indicates that the genus prefers less eutrophic waters (Fig. 6).
372 *Propontocypris* is a good swimmer (Maddocks, 1969), and thus may have an
373 advantage in obtaining food in relatively food-limited environments.



374 The relative abundance of the cosmopolitan phytal (Irizuki et al., 2008; Sato &
375 Kamiya, 2007; Yasuhara et al., 2002) *Xestoleberis* spp. was correlated with turbidity
376 (negative), mud content (negative), and dissolved oxygen (positive) (Table 2 and 3;
377 Fig. 6). The taxon's habitats including clear water, coarse sediment, and high oxygen
378 content are reflected in our modeling.

379

380 **Summary**

381 Benthic ostracods from Hong Kong marginal marine waters studied here include
382 widespread (i.e., distributed throughout the northwestern Pacific – Indo-Pacific region:
383 one species), temperate (i.e., distributed from the South China Sea to Japan and
384 Russia: five species), subtropical (i.e., distributed from the Indo-Pacific to the East
385 China Sea: six species), and tropical (i.e., distributed in the Indo-Pacific and South
386 China Sea: three species) species and three globally distributed genera (Fig. 7). We
387 provide a robust baseline of autoecology for these common ostracod taxa based on
388 rigorous statistical modeling using comprehensive environmental data. We
389 established reliable indicator forms for water depth, mud content, salinity, turbidity,
390 dissolved oxygen, heavy metal pollution (Pb and Zn) and eutrophication (chlorophyll-
391 a) (Table 5). Thus our results are applicable for future ostracod-based
392 paleoenvironmental studies in a wide range of localities from the tropics to the
393 extratropics, and from the Indian Ocean to the northwestern Pacific. We established
394 pollution and eutrophication indicator species in tropical environments for the first
395 time. Anthropocene paleoenvironmental and paleoecological studies in the tropics are
396 urgently needed because (1) the tropics are seriously under-studied (Wilkinson et al.,
397 2014; Yasuhara et al., 2012a), (2) tropical environments and ecosystems are
398 vulnerable and sensitive to human influences (Jackson et al., 2001; Pandolfi et al.,



2003), and (3) Indo-Pacific tropical environments have been seriously degraded by the human activity of rapidly developing countries (Bellwood et al., 2004; Jackson, 2008; Knowlton & Jackson, 2008). Our results provide useful and reliable tools for tropical Anthropocene research in the broad Indo-Pacific region.

403

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727

728 **Captions**

729



730 Fig. 1 Locality map showing the 52 sampling sites across Hong Kong, including 41
731 open water sites (blue dots) and 11 typhoon shelter sites (red open dots). From west to
732 east, DS: Deep Bay; NS: North Western waters; SS: Southern waters; VS: Victoria
733 Harbour; ES: Eastern Buffer; JS: Junk Bay; TS: Tolo Harbour; PS: Port Shelter; MS:
734 Mirs Bay.

735

736 Fig. 2 Spatial distribution of environmental parameters in Hong Kong. Mean surface-
737 water chlorophyll-a concentration; water depth; summer (June to September) bottom-
738 water dissolved oxygen content; mean bottom-water salinity; mean turbidity; mean
739 summer (June to September) bottom-water temperature; mean winter (November to
740 February) bottom-water temperature; and mean mud content. All are averaged values
741 of the data obtained during 1986–2013 (Table 1).

742

743 Fig. 3 Spatial distribution of environmental parameters in Hong Kong. Mean copper
744 (Cu) concentration, mean lead (Pb) concentration, and mean zinc (Zn) concentration
745 in surface sediments. All are averaged values of the data obtained during 1986–2013
746 (Table 1).

747

748 Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of the relative abundance of *Sinocytheridea impressa*,
749 *Neomonoceratina delicata*, *Bicornucythere bisanensis* s.l., *Pistocythereis bradyi*,
750 *Nipponocythere bicarinata*, *Spinileberis quadriaculeata*, *Keijella kloempritsensis*, and
751 *Loxoconcha malayensis* in Hong Kong. See Figure 1 for sampling stations.

752

753 Fig. 5. Spatial distribution of the relative abundance of *Neosinocythere elongata*,
754 *Stigmatocythere roesmani*, *Phlyctocythere japonica*, *Alocopocythere goujoni*,



755 *Hemikrithe orientalis*, *Loxoconcha epeterseni*, *Hemicytheridea reticulata* and
756 *Neonesidea* spp. in Hong Kong. See Figure 1 for sampling stations.

757

758 Fig. 6. Spatial distribution of the relative abundance of *Propontocypris* spp., and
759 *Xestoleberis* spp. in Hong Kong. See Figure 1 for sampling stations.

760

761 Fig. 7. Geographical distributions of the 18 taxa in the northwestern Pacific and Indo-
762 Pacific regions, including *Sinocytheridea impressa*, *Neomonoceratina delicata*,
763 *Pistocythereis bradyi*, *Bicornucythere bisanensis* s.l., *Keijella kloempritis*,
764 *Nipponocythere bicarinata*, *Spinileberis quadriaculeata*, *Loxoconcha malayensis*,
765 *Neosinocythere elongata*, *Stigmatocythere roesmani*, *Phlyctocythere japonica*,
766 *Alocopocythere goujoni*, *Hemikrithe orientalis*, *Loxoconcha epeterseni*,
767 *Hemicytheridea reticulata*, *Neonesidea* spp., *Propontocypris* spp., and *Xestoleberis*
768 spp. The following references were used mainly to determine the geographical
769 distributions of the species: Al Jumaily and Al-Sheikhly (1999); Dewi (1997); Dong
770 et al. (2012); Fauzielly et al. (2013); Hong et al. (2017); Hou and Gou (2007);
771 Hussain et al. (2004); Hussain et al. (2010); Hussain and Mohan (2000, 2001); Irizuki
772 et al. (2006); Irizuki et al. (2009); Iwatani et al. (2014); Jie et al. (2013); Li (1985);
773 Mostafawi (1992); Nishath et al. (2017); Noraswana et al. (2014); Pugliese et al.
774 (2006); Schornikov et al. (2014); Tanaka et al. (2009); Tanaka et al. (2011); Wang et
775 al. (1988); Wang and Zhang (1987); Wang and Zhao (1985); Zhao (1984); Zhao and
776 Wang (1988a, 1988b, 1990); Zhao and Whatley (1993); Zhou et al. (2015).

777

778 Table 1. Summary of marine water/sediment parameters. Note: 1. Summer: June,
779 July, August and September. 2. Winter: November, December, January and February.



780

781 Table 2. Best three regression models of the relative abundance of common species,
782 including *Sinocytheridea impressa*, *Neomonoceratina delicata*, *Propontocypris* spp.,
783 *Pistocythereis bradyi*, *Bicornucythere bisanensis* s.l., *Keijella kloempitensis*,
784 *Nipponocythere bicarinata*, *Spinileberis quadriaculeata*, *Xestoleberis* spp.,
785 *Loxoconcha malayensis*, *Neonesidea* spp., *Neosinocythere elongata*, *Stigmatocythere*
786 *roesmani*, *Phlyctocythere japonica*, *Alocopocythere goujoni*, *Hemikrithe orientalis*,
787 *Loxoconcha epeterseni* and *Hemicytheridea reticulata*. The table shows the
788 coefficient of each term, adjusted R^2 , the Akaike information criterion corrected for
789 small sample size (AICc), and the Akaike weight (AW). Bold denotes significance at
790 $P < 0.05$. Overall P is < 0.05 in all models. R: region. Other abbreviations are found in
791 Table 1.

792

793 Table 3. Model-averaged parameter estimates and CIs of the relative abundance of
794 common species, including *Sinocytheridea impressa*, *Neomonoceratina delicata*,
795 *Propontocypris* spp., *Pistocythereis bradyi*, *Bicornucythere bisanensis* s.l., *Keijella*
796 *kloempitensis*, *Nipponocythere bicarinata*, *Spinileberis quadriaculeata*, *Xestoleberis*
797 spp., *Loxoconcha malayensis*, *Neonesidea* spp., *Neosinocythere elongata*,
798 *Stigmatocythere roesmani*, *Phlyctocythere japonica*, *Alocopocythere goujoni*,
799 *Hemikrithe orientalis*, *Loxoconcha epeterseni* and *Hemicytheridea reticulata*. CIs,
800 confidence intervals; RI, relative importance (the sum of the Akaike weights of
801 models that include the variable in question; see Materials and Methods); R, region.
802 Other abbreviations are found in Table 1. Bold denotes CIs that exclude zero. For R,
803 coefficient, lower CI, and upper CI values shown are averages of those for geographic
804 regions.



805

806 Table 4. GVIF value for Environmental Variables. Df, degree of freedom; R, region.

807 Other abbreviations are found in Table 1.

808

809 Table 5. Summary of autoecology for common ostracod taxa. Chl: Chlorophyll-a; D:

810 Water Depth; DO: Dissolved Oxygen; MD: Mud Content; Sal: Salinity; Tur:

811 Turbidity; WT: Winter Temperature; Pb: Lead; Zn: Zinc; R: Region.

812

813

814 Supplement A. Ostracod faunal list.

815

816 Supplement B. Dataset used for the regression modeling.

817

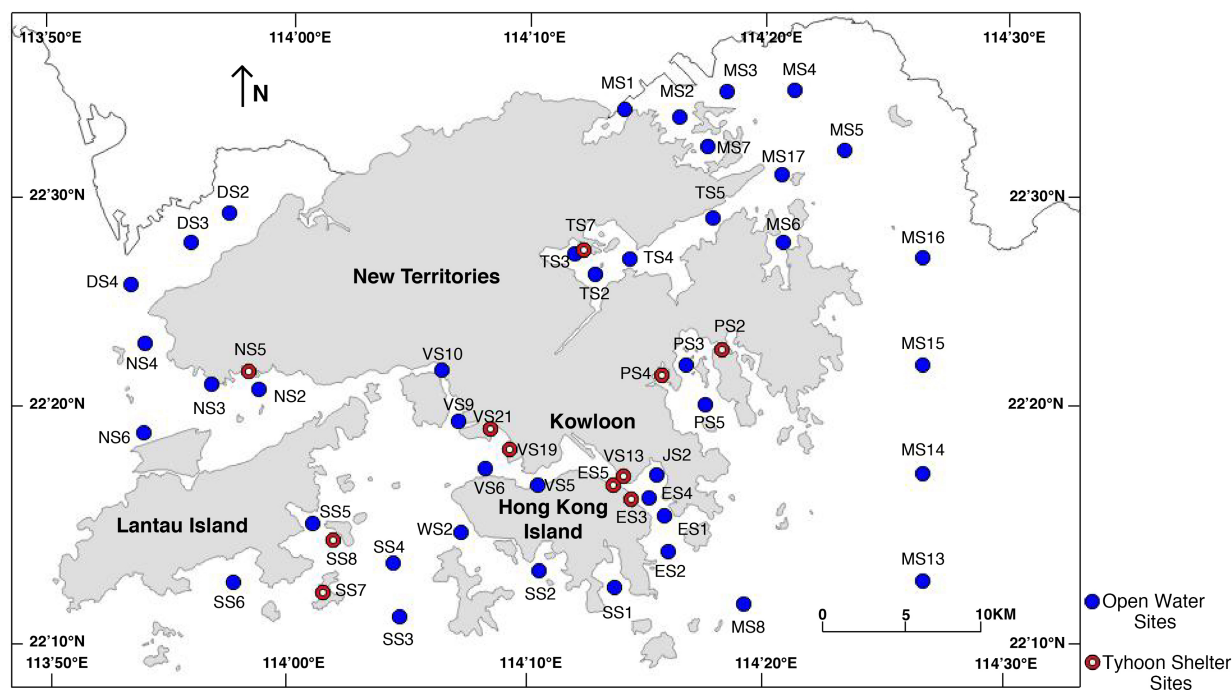


Fig. 1

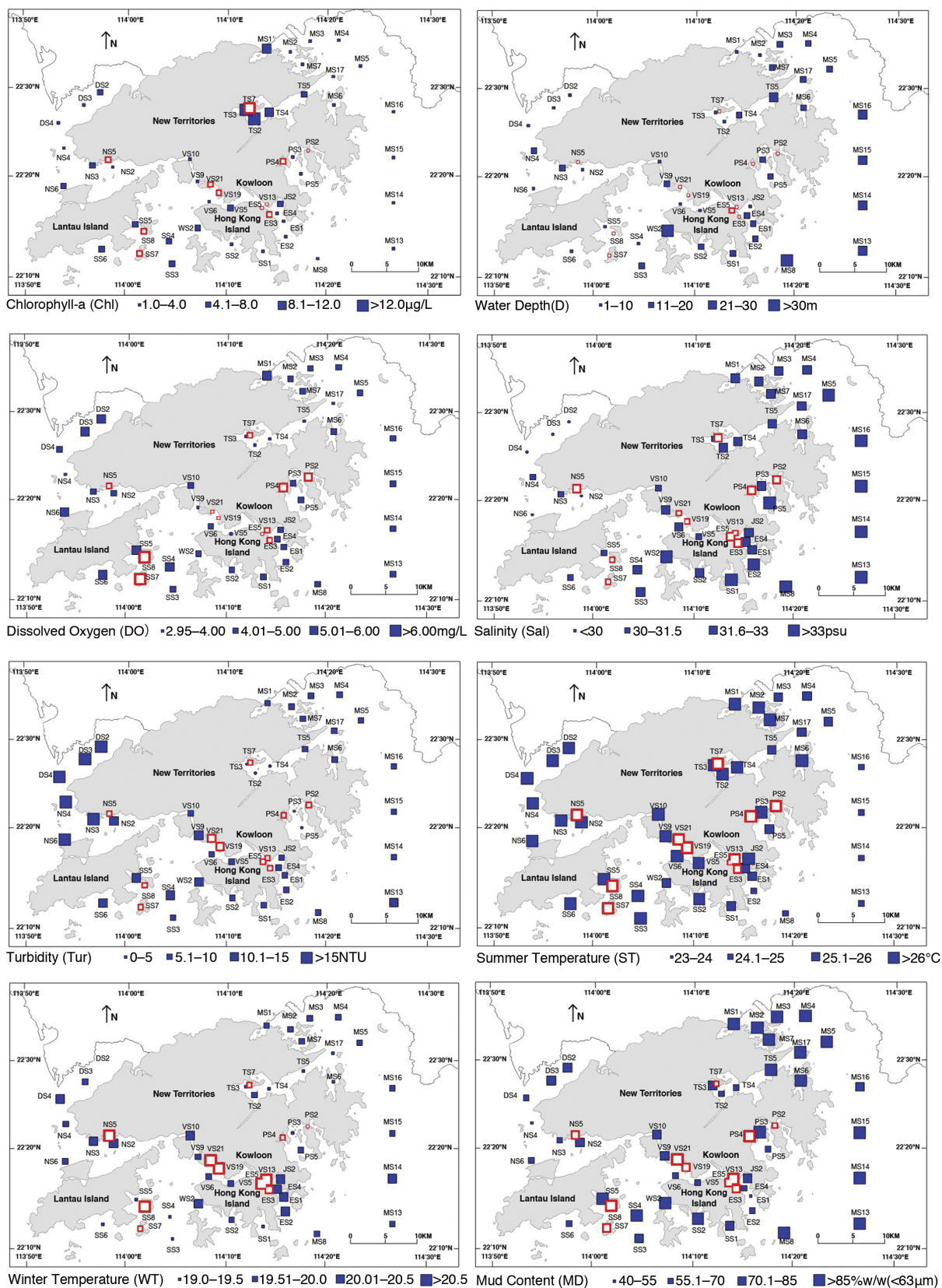


Fig. 2

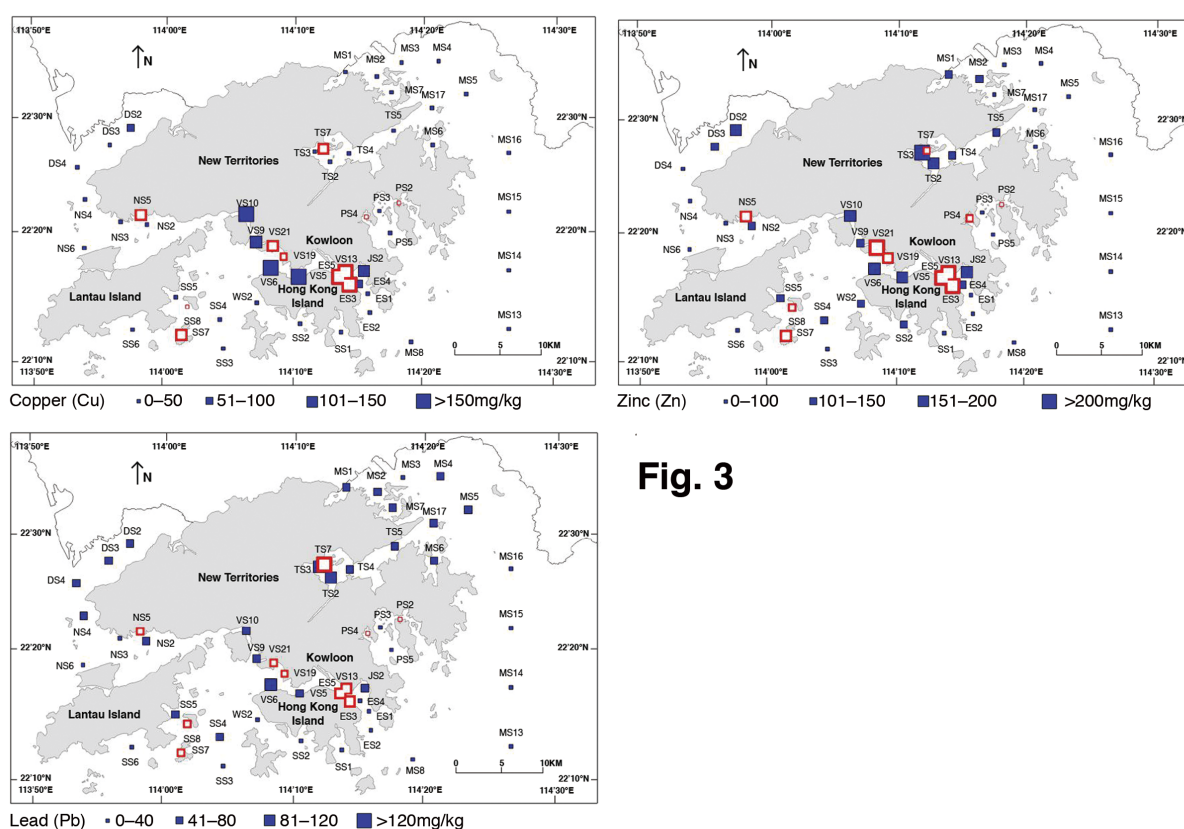


Fig. 3

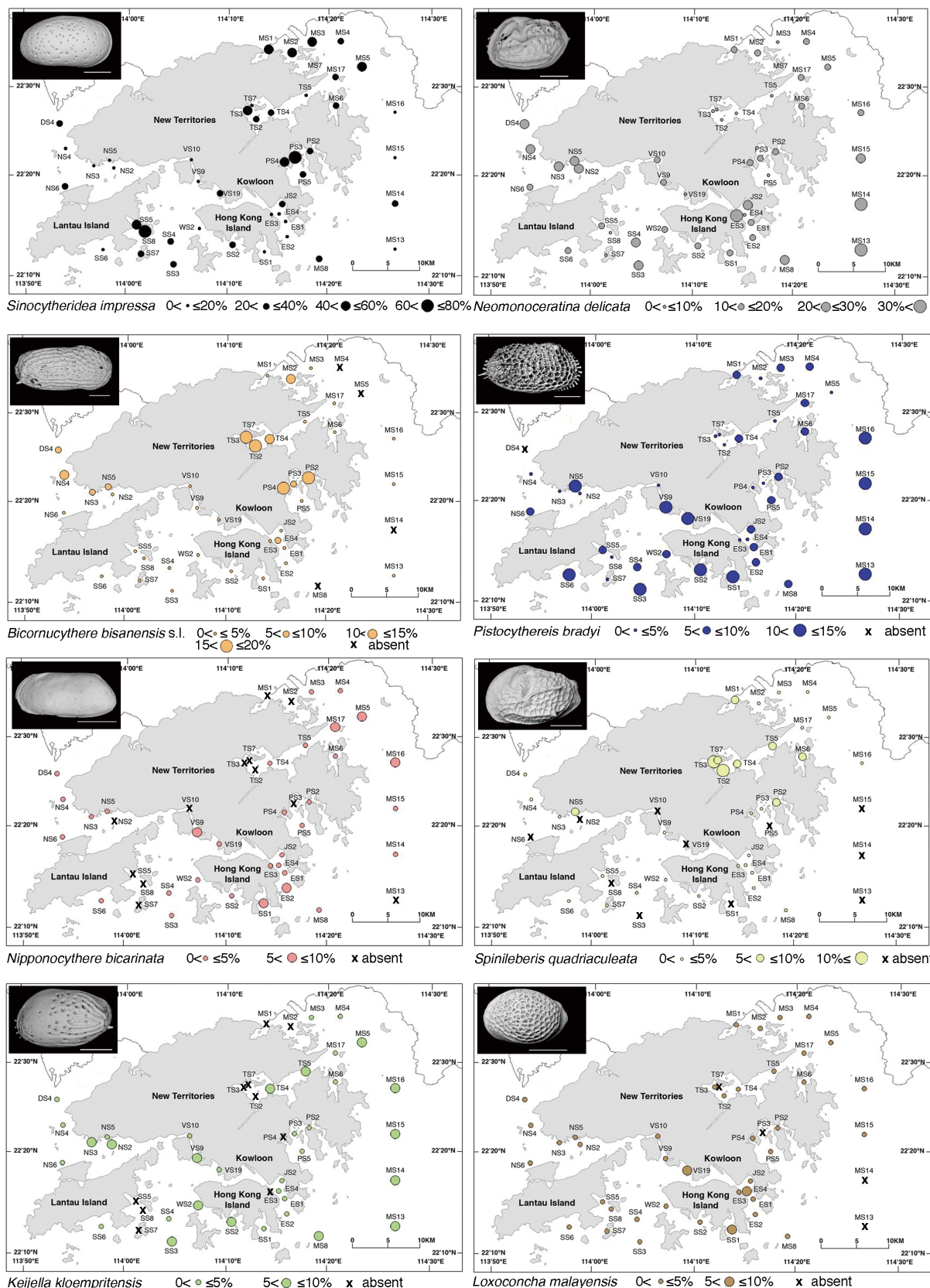


Fig. 4

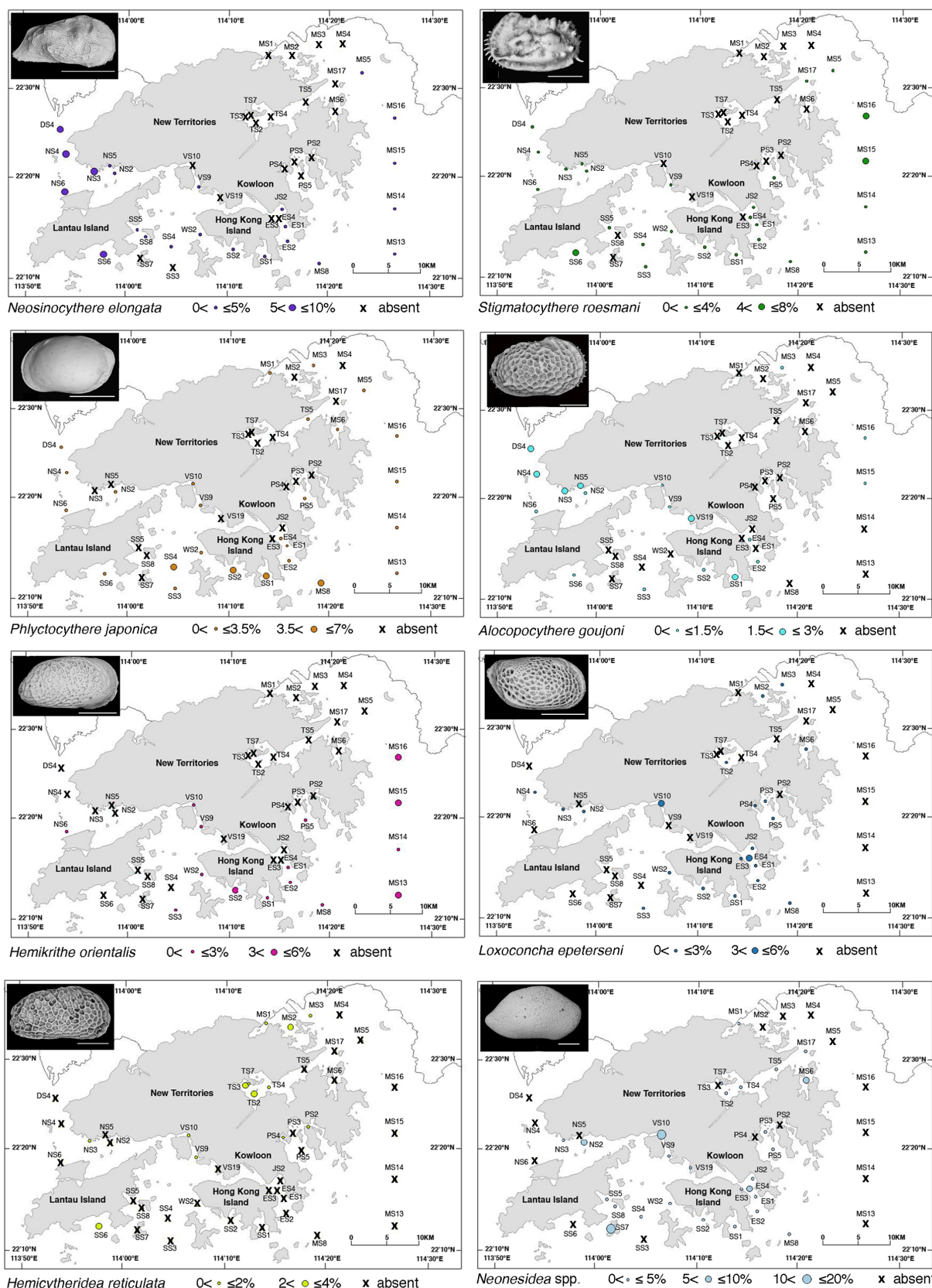


Fig. 5

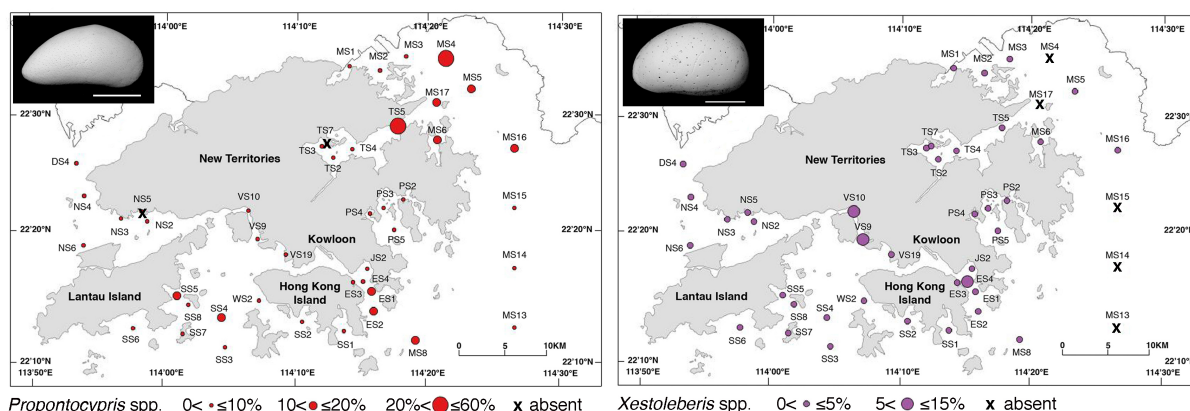
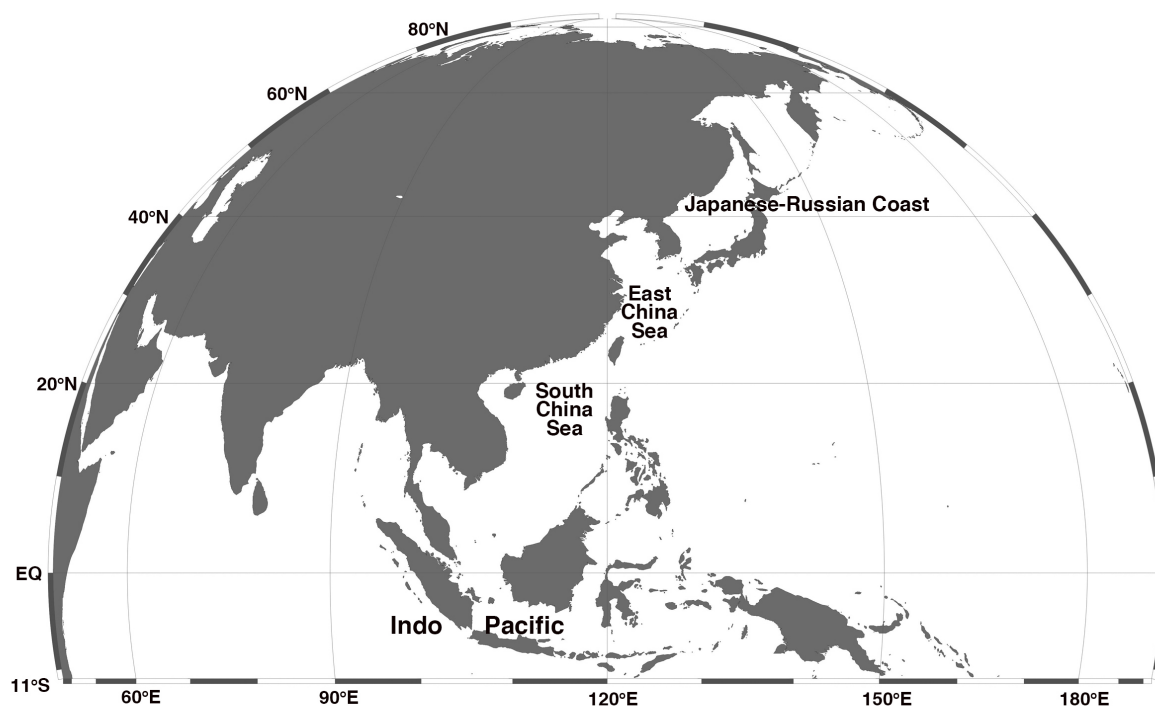


Fig. 6



Species	Indo Pacific	South China Sea	East China Sea	Japan and Russia Coast
<i>Sinocytheridea impressa</i>				
<i>Neomonoceratina delicata</i>				
<i>Pistocythereis bradyi</i>				
<i>Bicornucythere bisanensis</i> s.l				
<i>Nipponocythere bicarinata</i>				
<i>Keijella kloempritsensis</i>				
<i>Spinileberis quadriaculeata</i>				
<i>Loxoconcha malayensis</i>				
<i>Neosinocythere elongata</i>				
<i>Stigmatocythere roesmani</i>				
<i>Phlytocythere japonica</i>				
<i>Alocopocythere goujoni</i>				
<i>Hemikrithe orientalis</i>				
<i>Loxoconcha epeterseni</i>				
<i>Hemicytheridea reticulata</i>				
<i>Neonesidea</i> spp.				
<i>Propontocypris</i> spp.				
<i>Xestoleberis</i> spp.				

Fig. 7



Table 1.

Parameter (Abbreviation)	Unit	Sampling Depth / Material	Season (AD. 1986-2013)
Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> (Chl)	µg/L	Surface water	All year
Water Depth (D)	m		All year
Dissolved Oxygen (DO)	mg/L	Bottom water	Summer ¹
Mud Content (MD)	%w/w (<63µm)	Bottom sediment	All year
Salinity (Sal)		Bottom water	All year
Turbidity (Tur)	NTU	Bottom water	All year
Summer Temperature (ST)	°C	Bottom water	Summer ¹
Winter Temperature (WT)	°C	Bottom water	Winter ²
Copper (Cu)	mg/kg	Bottom sediment	All year
Lead (Pb)	mg/kg	Bottom sediment	All year
Zinc (Zn)	mg/kg	Bottom sediment	All year



Table 2.

Model	Chl	D	DO	MD	Sal	Tur	WT	Pb	Zn	R	R ²	AICc	AW
<i>Sinocytheridea impressa</i>													
1	0.33		-1.47	0.75	-9.13					0.34	0.55	-37.29	0.27
2	0.41		-1.48		-8.75					0.37	0.50	-35.24	0.10
3			-1.12	0.94	-10.30					0.44	0.49	-34.78	0.08
<i>Neomonoceratina delicata</i>													
1					3.77	0.34			0.41	-0.13	0.48	-82.57	0.29
2			0.43		5.02	0.31			0.39	-0.20	0.50	-81.21	0.15
3					3.47	0.33		-0.20	0.55	-0.12	0.48	-79.32	0.06
<i>Propontocypris</i> spp.													
1	-0.28			0.46						0.04	0.20	-72.47	0.15
2	-0.24									0.07	0.13	-71.74	0.10
3	-0.24			0.49			-2.46			0.02	0.22	-70.76	0.06
<i>Pistocythereis bradyi</i>													
1		-0.12			2.67			-0.21		-0.06	0.61	-163.64	0.52
2		-0.13			2.87	0.04		-0.20		-0.05	0.61	-159.79	0.08
3		-0.12	0.07		2.83			-0.21		-0.07	0.60	-159.42	0.06
<i>Bicornucythere bisanensis</i> s.l.													
1		-0.09		-0.23						0.02	0.60	-137.80	0.12
2		-0.08								-0.01	0.56	-136.77	0.07
3				-0.29				0.18		0.00	0.58	-136.77	0.05
<i>Keijella kloempitensis</i>													
1		0.06						-0.06		-0.02	0.56	-202.12	0.12
2		0.08								-0.02	0.53	-201.51	0.09
3		0.06		0.09				-0.08		-0.02	0.58	-200.86	0.06
<i>Nipponocythere bicarinata</i>													
1	-0.07		-0.12							0.03	0.43	-200.57	0.11
2	-0.09									0.03	0.39	-200.38	0.10
3	-0.09	-0.03	-0.16							0.04	0.45	-199.30	0.06
<i>Spinileberis quadriaculeata</i>													
1	0.06					-0.09				-0.04	0.63	-183.88	0.10
2		-0.05								0.02	0.60	-182.94	0.06
3	0.08					-0.09	-0.75			-0.04	0.65	-182.66	0.05
<i>Xestoleberis</i> spp.													
1		0.04	0.15	-0.11		-0.08		0.05		-0.02	0.62	-225.55	0.09
2		0.03	0.15	-0.09		-0.09				-0.02	0.59	-225.29	0.08
3				-0.09		-0.06				0.00	0.52	-224.60	0.06



Model	Chl	D	DO	MD	Sal	Tur	WT	Pb	Zn	R	R ²	AICc	AW
<i>Loxoconcha malayensis</i>													
1		-0.03	-0.14	-0.12						0.03	0.55	-229.55	0.10
2	0.04		-0.13	-0.12						0.02	0.55	-229.42	0.09
3		-0.04	-0.14	-0.10				-0.04		0.03	0.57	-228.47	0.06
<i>Neonesidea</i> spp.													
1	-0.12			-0.25					0.19	0.05	0.28	-149.00	0.09
2	-0.11		0.33	-0.24			-1.13		0.20	0.05	0.31	-147.86	0.05
3			0.21							0.02	0.08	-147.40	0.04
<i>Neosinocythere elongata</i>													
1	-0.02					0.09				-0.03	0.76	-244.70	0.09
2				-0.06		0.08				-0.03	0.76	-244.42	0.08
3						0.09				-0.03	0.74	-244.15	0.07
<i>Stigmatocythere roesmani</i>													
1								-0.08		0.00	0.23	-225.23	0.07
2					0.36			-0.07		-0.02	0.25	-224.06	0.04
3			0.10		0.67			-0.07		0.30	0.30	-224.03	0.04
<i>Phlyctocythere japonica</i>													
1	0.04									0.00	0.28	-238.60	0.19
2	0.03				0.33					-0.02	0.30	-237.01	0.09
3	0.03							-0.02		0.00	0.27	-235.62	0.04
<i>Alocopocythere goujoni</i>													
1					0.21					-0.04	0.68	-331.97	0.09
2		-0.01			0.28				-0.01	-0.04	0.71	-330.52	0.05
3		-0.01			0.27			-0.02		-0.04	0.71	-330.45	0.04
<i>Hemikrithe orientalis</i>													
1	0.03						0.46			0.00	0.19	-249.44	0.11
2	0.03	0.07								0.00	0.18	-248.67	0.07
3	0.04	0.06					0.42			0.00	0.23	-248.60	0.07
<i>Loxoconcha epeterseni</i>													
1	0.03				-0.33	-0.03				0.01	0.49	-288.61	0.11
2	0.02	0.04		-0.04	-0.34	-0.04				0.00	0.56	-287.76	0.07
3	0.02	0.04			-0.34	-0.04				0.00	0.51	-287.31	0.06
<i>Hemicytheridea reticulata</i>													
1		-0.03						-0.04		0.01	0.23	-270.79	0.14
2	0.02	-0.02						-0.04		0.01	0.26	-269.44	0.07
3	0.03							-0.03		0.00	0.19	-268.64	0.05



Table 3.

Term	RI	Coefficient	Lower CI	Upper CI	Term	RI	Coefficient	Lower CI	Upper CI
<i>Sinocytheridea impressa</i>					<i>Keijella kloempritensis</i>				
R	1.00	0.36	-0.09	0.81	R	1.00	-0.02	-0.09	0.04
Sal	0.99	-9.26	-14.61	-3.91	D	0.86	0.06	0.02	0.11
DO	0.91	-1.42	-2.48	-0.37	Pb	0.58	-0.08	-0.17	0.01
MD	0.75	0.82	0.07	1.57	Sal	0.35	0.68	-0.21	1.58
Chl	0.74	0.82	0.03	0.70	MD	0.25	0.08	-0.05	0.21
WT	0.20	0.82	-2.34	8.89	Tur	0.24	0.05	-0.03	0.14
Zn	0.13	0.82	-0.68	0.51	Chl	0.22	-0.04	-0.11	0.03
Tur	0.11	0.82	-0.61	0.30	Zn	0.17	0.02	-0.11	0.14
D	0.11	0.82	-0.29	0.41	WT	0.14	0.33	-0.55	1.22
Pb	0.10	0.82	-0.62	0.46	DO	0.11	0.03	-0.14	0.19
<i>Neomonoceratina delicata</i>					<i>Nipponocythere bicarinata</i>				
R	1.00	-0.15	-0.42	0.12	R	1.00	0.02	-0.04	0.09
Zn	0.94	0.41	0.11	0.70	Chl	0.92	-0.08	-0.14	-0.02
Sal	0.93	4.06	1.00	7.13	DO	0.50	-0.14	-0.30	0.02
Tur	0.84	0.33	0.06	0.59	D	0.30	-0.03	-0.08	0.02
DO	0.33	0.45	-0.17	1.06	WT	0.25	-0.03	-0.08	0.02
Pb	0.17	-0.18	-0.67	0.30	Sal	0.24	0.51	-0.35	1.36
MD	0.14	0.25	-0.33	0.84	Tur	0.19	-0.04	-0.11	0.04
D	0.11	-0.01	-0.22	0.20	Zn	0.18	-0.04	-0.12	0.04
WT	0.11	-0.86	-4.32	2.60	Pb	0.13	-0.03	-0.11	0.06
Chl	0.09	0.00	-0.24	0.23	MD	0.10	0.00	-0.13	0.13
<i>Propontocypris</i> spp.					<i>Spinileberis quadriculeata</i>				
R	1.00	0.05	-0.19	0.30	R	-0.01		-0.10	0.07
Chl	0.80	-0.26	-0.47	-0.04	Tur	0.66	-0.09	-0.17	0.00
MD	0.58	0.50	-0.03	1.03	Chl	0.54	0.06	0.00	0.13
WT	0.29	-2.60	-6.48	1.28	D	0.45	-0.05	-0.10	0.01
Pb	0.19	-0.18	-0.55	0.20	WT	0.32	-0.76	-1.82	0.31
Sal	0.17	-1.48	-4.88	1.92	DO	0.19	0.10	-0.10	0.30
DO	0.15	-0.27	-0.99	0.45	MD	0.17	-0.07	-0.23	0.09
Zn	0.14	-0.03	-0.48	0.41	Pb	0.17	-0.05	-0.16	0.07
D	0.13	0.04	-0.17	0.26	Zn	0.14	0.03	-0.09	0.15
Tur	0.10	0.01	-0.29	0.32	Sal	0.13	0.11	-1.03	1.26
<i>Pistocythereis bradyi</i>					<i>Xestoleberis</i> spp.				
R	1.00	-0.06	-0.15	0.04	R	1.00	-0.01	-0.06	0.05
Sal	1.00	2.71	1.53	3.88	Tur	0.77	-0.07	-0.12	-0.01
D	1.00	-0.12	-0.19	-0.06	MD	0.66	-0.10	-0.19	0.00
Pb	0.97	-0.21	-0.32	-0.10	DO	0.63	0.13	0.00	0.26
Tur	0.12	0.04	-0.07	0.15	D	0.42	0.03	-0.01	0.07
Zn	0.11	-0.05	-0.23	0.13	Pb	0.33	0.04	-0.02	0.11
DO	0.10	0.06	-0.18	0.31	Sal	0.27	0.46	-0.24	1.15
WT	0.10	0.33	-0.98	1.64	WT	0.19	-0.37	-1.06	0.31
Chl	0.09	0.02	-0.08	0.11	Zn	0.14	0.00	-0.09	0.08
MD	0.08	-0.01	-0.20	0.18	Chl	0.10	0.00	-0.05	0.05
<i>Bicornucythere bisanensis</i> s.l.					<i>Loxoconcha malayensis</i>				
R	1.00	0.01	-0.11	0.12	R	1.00	0.02	-0.02	0.06
MD	0.63	-0.26	-0.52	0.00	DO	0.87	-0.14	-0.25	-0.03
D	0.62	-0.08	-0.16	0.00	MD	0.85	-0.11	-0.20	-0.02
Pb	0.38	0.14	-0.05	0.33	D	0.48	-0.03	-0.06	0.00
DO	0.20	0.17	-0.15	0.48	Chl	0.40	0.03	-0.01	0.08
Chl	0.19	0.06	-0.07	0.19	Pb	0.29	-0.04	-0.10	0.02
Tur	0.19	0.07	-0.08	0.22	WT	0.26	0.41	-0.21	1.03
Zn	0.16	-0.01	-0.28	0.25	Zn	0.20	-0.03	-0.10	0.04
Sal	0.12	-0.02	-1.86	1.82	Sal	0.15	-0.26	-0.91	0.39
WT	0.10	0.06	-1.80	1.92	Tur	0.11	-0.01	-0.07	0.05



Term	RI	Coefficient	Lower CI	Upper CI	Term	RI	Coefficient	Lower CI	Upper CI
<i>Neonesidea</i> spp.					<i>Alocopocythere goujoni</i>				
R	1.00	0.02	-0.09	0.13	R	1.00	-0.03	-0.05	-0.02
DO	0.72	0.30	0.02	0.57	Sal	0.78	0.22	0.03	0.41
Zn	0.58	0.15	-0.01	0.31	D	0.46	-0.01	-0.02	0.00
MD	0.46	-0.23	-0.49	0.03	DO	0.43	-0.03	-0.07	0.01
Chl	0.42	-0.09	-0.21	0.02	Pb	0.31	-0.01	-0.03	0.01
WT	0.32	-1.13	-2.69	0.42	Zn	0.29	-0.01	-0.03	0.01
Tur	0.24	-0.09	-0.22	0.05	WT	0.24	0.13	-0.08	0.33
D	0.23	0.05	-0.04	0.15	Tur	0.18	0.01	-0.01	0.03
Pb	0.17	0.05	-0.13	0.24	MD	0.14	-0.01	-0.04	0.02
Sal	0.15	-0.60	-2.20	1.01	Chl	0.11	0.00	-0.01	0.01
<i>Neosinocythere elongata</i>					<i>Hemikrithe orientalis</i>				
R	1.00	-0.03	-0.07	0.00	R	1.00	0.00	-0.04	0.03
Tur	1.00	0.08	0.04	0.13	D	0.77	0.03	0.00	0.05
MD	0.33	-0.05	-0.13	0.02	WT	0.46	0.43	-0.07	0.93
Chl	0.30	-0.02	-0.05	0.01	DO	0.44	0.08	-0.02	0.17
WT	0.26	-0.33	-0.85	0.18	Sal	0.30	0.37	-0.17	0.90
Zn	0.21	-0.02	-0.06	0.02	Pb	0.22	-0.03	-0.08	0.02
Pb	0.19	-0.02	-0.07	0.02	Tur	0.17	0.02	-0.03	0.07
D	0.12	0.00	-0.03	0.03	Chl	0.14	-0.01	-0.05	0.03
DO	0.12	-0.02	-0.11	0.07	Zn	0.11	0.00	-0.05	0.05
Sal	0.10	0.04	-0.40	0.49	MD	0.10	-0.01	-0.08	0.07
<i>Stigmatocythere roesmani</i>					<i>Loxoconcha epeterseni</i>				
R	1.00	-0.01	-0.07	0.05	R	1.00	0.00	-0.02	0.03
Sal	0.61	0.62	-0.04	1.27	D	0.94	0.03	0.00	0.05
Pb	0.61	-0.06	-0.12	0.00	Tur	0.76	-0.03	-0.06	0.00
Tur	0.37	0.04	-0.01	0.10	Sal	0.53	-0.30	-0.62	0.02
Zn	0.31	-0.05	-0.11	0.02	MD	0.38	-0.04	-0.08	0.01
DO	0.31	0.09	-0.04	0.22	Chl	0.30	0.02	-0.01	0.04
MD	0.23	-0.06	-0.16	0.04	DO	0.26	0.04	-0.02	0.10
Chl	0.19	-0.02	-0.07	0.02	Pb	0.17	0.01	-0.02	0.05
WT	0.19	0.35	-0.33	1.02	WT	0.13	-0.13	-0.48	0.22
D	0.14	-0.01	-0.05	0.04	Zn	0.12	0.01	-0.03	0.04
<i>Phlyctocythere japonica</i>					<i>Hemicytheridea reticulata</i>				
R	1.00	-0.01	-0.05	0.03	R	1.00	0.01	-0.02	0.03
D	0.80	0.03	0.01	0.06	Pb	0.67	-0.04	-0.07	0.00
Sal	0.42	0.46	-0.10	1.02	D	0.66	-0.02	-0.04	0.00
Pb	0.21	-0.03	-0.08	0.03	Chl	0.49	0.03	0.00	0.05
Zn	0.20	-0.02	-0.07	0.03	WT	0.24	-0.24	-0.64	0.16
WT	0.15	0.22	-0.38	0.81	MD	0.23	-0.03	-0.09	0.02
DO	0.14	0.03	-0.08	0.15	Zn	0.17	-0.01	-0.06	0.05
Tur	0.12	0.00	-0.05	0.05	DO	0.13	0.02	-0.05	0.10
Chl	0.12	0.00	-0.04	0.05	Tur	0.13	-0.01	-0.05	0.03
MD	0.11	0.00	-0.09	0.08	Sal	0.11	-0.05	-0.43	0.34



Table 4.

Environmental Variables	GVIF	Df	GVIF ^{1/2Df}
Chl	7.40	1	2.72
D	6.41	1	2.53
DO	4.49	1	2.12
MD	3.72	1	1.93
Sal	9.43	1	3.07
Tur	6.67	1	2.58
Pb	9.98	1	3.16
Zn	10.05	1	3.17
WT	2.39	1	1.55
R	1266.30	9	1.49



Table 5

Taxa	Chl	D	DO	MD	Sal	Tur	WT	Pb	Zn	R
<i>Sinocytheridea impressa</i>	+		-	+	-					
<i>Neomonoceratina delicata</i>					+	+			+	
<i>Pistocythereis bradyi</i>		-			+			-		
<i>Bicornucythere bisanensis</i> s.l.		-								
<i>Keijella kloempitensis</i>		+								
<i>Nipponocythere bicarinata</i>	-									
<i>Spinileberis quadriaculeata</i>	+					-				
<i>Loxoconcha malayensis</i>			-	-						
<i>Neosinocythere elongata</i>						+				
<i>Stigmatocythere roesmani</i>								-		
<i>Phlyctocythere japonica</i>		+								
<i>Alocopocythere goujoni</i>					+					
<i>Hemikrithe orientalis</i>		+								
<i>Loxoconcha epeterseni</i>		+				-				
<i>Hemicytheridea reticulata</i>		-						-		
<i>Neonesidea</i> spp.			+							
<i>Propontocypris</i> spp.	-									
<i>Xestoleberis</i> spp.			+	-		-				