Limited Dispersal of Benthic Environmental DNA from a Subtropical Mesophotic Shelf-Edge Bank

Running Title: Spatial Distribution of Offshore Marine eDNA

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Abstract

Environmental DNA (eDNA) offers a powerful, non-invasive means of assessing biodiversity in marine ecosystems, yet the spatial resolution of eDNA remains poorly understood. We investigated the vertical and horizontal dispersion of eDNA from an isolated mesophotic coral reef (Bright Bank) in the stratified offshore waters of the northern Gulf of Mexico's shelf edge. We conducted comprehensive vertical and horizontal water column eDNA sampling across multiple radial directions and depths. We characterized invertebrate communities using a paired metabarcoding approach targeting broad (18S) and taxon-specific (28S) markers. We found that vertical transport of benthic eDNA was limited by water column stratification, with distinct benthic community signals confined to the near-bottom layers. In contrast, horizontal dispersal of eDNA extended beyond at least 1.5 km, though the prevalence of eDNA from benthic invertebrates declined with increasing distance from the bank. Taxon-specific primers showed greater detection sensitivity and dispersal range, particularly for benthic corals, than primers that are used to broadly assess eukaryotic biodiversity. These findings demonstrate that water column structure and marker selection critically influence the spatial interpretation of marine eDNA data. The study represents a snapshot of late-summer conditions. Seasonal variability should be considered in future studies. Our results provide a realistic framework for integrating eDNA into offshore environmental surveillance, biodiversity monitoring, and spatial management.

Keywords: DNA, Environmental; Biodiversity; DNA, Ribosomal; Spatial Analysis; Gulf of Mexico; Environmental Monitoring; Sequence Analysis, DNA.

Introduction

Marine biodiversity underpins ecosystem function and resilience, yet its accurate assessment remains challenging, particularly in offshore and remote marine environments. The rapid development of environmental DNA (eDNA) approaches, where DNA extracted from seawater is used to detect species presence and assess biodiversity, has significantly advanced marine biodiversity monitoring capabilities (Patin and Goodwin, 2023; Yang et al., 2024). These molecular methods complement traditional sampling and visual surveys, often providing broader, more sensitive species detection (Govindarajan et al., 2021; Govindarajan et al., 2023; West et al., 2024). Despite their advantages, accurately interpreting the source of detected eDNA signals in marine ecosystems remains challenging. Once released from organisms, marine eDNA disperses vertically and horizontally through physical processes such as dilution, diffusion, and advection by currents, before settling to the benthos or degrading into undetectable shorter fragments (Harrison et al., 2019). Therefore, accurately inferring species presence and location from eDNA relies fundamentally on understanding how eDNA disperses—a core factor governing the "ecology of eDNA" (Barnes & Turner, 2016).

Insights into marine eDNA dispersion dynamics primarily stem from two complementary approaches: (1) hydrodynamic modeling using particle-tracking simulations and (2) empirical eDNA field sampling around known eDNA sources. Both approaches consistently indicate that physical and ecological factors can significantly constrain vertical dispersion. For instance, pronounced stratification, such as haloclines common in fjords, creates distinct vertical eDNA differences, even at small, meter-scale depth intervals (Jeunen et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2023). Similarly, distinct vertical eDNA patterns have been observed in structurally complex habitats such as kelp forests, with clear differentiation between surface and subsurface

communities (Monuki et al., 2021). Limited vertical eDNA dispersion is also apparent in the

ocean's interior, where different water masses harbor unique eDNA signatures (Govindarajan et

al., 2021; Canals et al., 2021). These field observations are consistent with modeling results

(Allan et al., 2021). In contrast, regions characterized by active vertical mixing, such as

upwelling zones, display minimal vertical differentiation in eDNA signatures (Closek et al.,

2019).

While modeling studies predict potential horizontal eDNA transport distances extending

tens of kilometers (Andruszkiewicz et al., 2019; Kutti et al., 2020), empirical field studies often

report localized, patchy eDNA detections even in well-connected marine systems (Port et al.,

2016; Jeunen et al., 2019; West et al., 2020; Dugal et al., 2023; Shea & Boehm, 2024). This

discrepancy arises because physical transport models frequently omit critical ecological and

molecular processes such as sedimentation, adsorption onto particulate matter, and varying

amplification efficiencies that determine detection limits and persistence (Harrison et al., 2019;

Kelly et al., 2019; Collins et al., 2018). Therefore, empirical studies with spatially explicit

sampling designs are critical to validate model predictions, refine our understanding of eDNA

dispersal distances, and enhance the ecological interpretation of eDNA data.

A knowledge gap exists because empirical tests of generalizable hypotheses about marine

eDNA dispersion have rarely been conducted in offshore marine ecosystems. Even fewer studies

use clearly identifiable, isolated natural eDNA sources. Two central hypotheses exist: (1) the

vertical dispersion of benthic-derived eDNA is constrained primarily by water column

stratification, and (2) eDNA detection decreases rapidly with increasing horizontal distance from

its source. Empirical validation of these hypotheses in offshore contexts remains limited (but see

Baetscher et al. 2024; Shea et al. 2022; Ely et al., 2021; Murakami et al., 2019), restricting our

ability to accurately interpret eDNA signals in these environments.

This study aims to fill this critical gap in existing knowledge by empirically testing these

hypotheses at Bright Bankan isolated mesophotic reef in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico that is

uniquely well suited as a natural laboratory for spatial eDNA dispersion studies. Leveraging an

isolated benthic invertebrate community as a clearly defined eDNA point source, we

systematically collected seawater samples at multiple depths and horizontal distances from the

bank. Additionally, by comparing results derived from metabarcoding with universal eukaryotic

(18S rDNA) primers and anthozoan coral-specific (28S rDNA) primers, we evaluated how

primer specificity influences the spatial interpretation of marine eDNA signals. Findings from

this research will significantly improve the interpretation and enhance the precision of eDNA-

based marine biodiversity assessments, optimize field sampling strategies, and inform

conservation and resource management decisions in offshore marine ecosystems.

Materials and Methods

2.1 Study Site

The northwestern Gulf of Mexico contains steep-sloped carbonate banks formed by salt

diapirs along the continental shelf edge, supporting distinct benthic invertebrate communities,

including corals and sponges (Rezak et al., 1985; Dennis & Bright, 1988). Seasonal temperature

fluctuations lead to pronounced summer stratification, creating distinct ecological zones at

different depths (Lugo-Fernández, 1998; Sammarco et al., 2016). Bright Bank, within the Flower

Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary (FGBNMS), lies approximately 108 nautical miles

(NM) south of the Louisiana-Texas coast, rising from ~120 m at its base to a peak of ~33 m

below sea level. The bank's upper surface predominantly ranges between 40 and 80 m in depth

and is isolated from nearby hard substrates such as Rankin & 28 Fathom Banks (~8 NM west)

and Geyer Bank (~12 NM east) (**Figure 1A**). The isolation of Bright Bank's benthic community

makes it ideal for studying spatial patterns of eDNA dispersion.

2.2 Study Design

We conducted an observational study from September 24–26, 2019, aboard *R/V Manta*,

employing systematic spatial sampling to test hypotheses related to eDNA vertical and horizontal

dispersion. Sampling stations included the bank's center and radial points at distances of 1.0, 1.5,

and 3.0 NM (**Figure 1B**). Distances and sampling depths were selected to capture the anticipated

scale of eDNA dispersion. Two additional sites ("mooring" and "*Swiftia*") were sampled ~2 NM

north of Bright Bank, corresponding to previously explored remotely operated vehicle (ROV)

dive sites. Sampling near the seafloor at these sites was conducted to groundtruth the detection of

eDNA from corals known from these sites at depths of ~80 meters. Sampling occurred during

daylight hours between 07:00 and 19:05 local time (CST) (**Table 1, Table S1**).

Water samples were collected using a Niskin bottle rosette at depths from 20 to 100

meters below sea level at 20-meter intervals. At locations with bottom depths shallower than 100

meters, we collected samples as close to the seafloor as possible based on bathymetry data -

within 6 m of the bottom. At the bank's center, four replicate 2L samples were independently

collected at each depth (i.e. separate Niskin bottles), while three replicate samples per depth were

collected at other stations. Samples with an average volume of 2.2 ± 0.21 L (1 SD) were

immediately filtered after instrument recovery through separate 0.22 μm polyethersulfone (PES)

Sterivex filters (Millipore) using peristaltic pumps (Govindarajan et al., 2021). At "Mooring"

and "*Swiftia*" stations, water was sampled near the seafloor, filtering the entire volume of all

Niskin bottles (28.2 and 30 L, respectively) through 0.20 μm PES Mini Kleenpak capsules (Pall).

Negative controls of MilliQ water were filtered alongside field samples (Sterivex average

volume = ~2.37 ± 0.14 L; Mini Kleenpak average volume = 22 L) to monitor potential

contamination. All filtration followed stringent contamination prevention protocols as detailed in

Govindarajan et al. (2022).

2.3 Environmental Profiling

Conductivity, temperature, depth (CTD), fluorescence, turbidity, and dissolved oxygen

were measured concurrently with water sampling. Measurements were made using a Sea-Bird

SBE 19plus V2 CTD mounted on the rosette, as well as a WET Labs ECO-AFL/FL fluorescence

sensor, a WET Labs ECO turbidity sensor, and a SBE 43 dissolved oxygen sensor (Seabird

Scientific, Bellevue, WA). Data from downcasts were analyzed to generate environmental

profiles.

2.4 DNA Extraction and Metabarcoding

DNA was extracted using DNEasy Blood & Tissue Kits (Qiagen) with modified protocols

optimized for Sterivex and Kleenpak filters (Govindarajan et al., 2021; Govindarajan et al.,

2022). Metabarcoding employed two primer sets: broad-range 18S rDNA primers targeting

diverse eukaryotes (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2009) and a taxon-specific 28S rDNA set focused on

anthozoan corals and related invertebrates (McCartin et al., 2024). Combining these markers

provided both broad biodiversity assessments and focused insights into coral communities.

Protocols for amplification using these primers are provided in Govindarajan et al. (2022) (18S)

and McCartin et al. (2024) (28S). Differences between these protocols are summarized in **Table**

2. Following amplification and tagging, PCR products were pooled and sequenced using

Illumina MiniSeq and MiSeq platforms, including sampling and PCR negative controls

(molecular grade water).

2.5 Bioinformatic Processing

Raw sequencing reads underwent trimming, quality filtering, denoising, and chimera

removal using *cutadapt* and *DADA2* (Martin, 2011; Callahan et al., 2016). Amplicon Sequence

Variants (ASVs) were classified taxonomically using a naïve Bayesian classifier implemented in

DADA2 (Wang et al., 2007), referencing custom databases compiled from MetaZooGene and

curated anthozoan sequences (O'Brien et al., 2024; McCartin et al., 2024). For 18S, global data

for all taxa were downloaded from MetaZooGene on April 25, 2024. For *28S*, data from genera

and/or species known from the North Atlantic were downloaded from MetaZooGene on June 20,

2024. Following taxonomic classification, ASVs identified as contaminants from sampling and

PCR negative controls were removed using the R package *decontam* (Davis et al., 2018). A

detailed description of the bioinformatic analyses are provided in Appendix A: Supplementary

Methods.

2.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis and visualization were conducted in *R* (version 4.3.1) using *phyloseq*

(McMurdie & Holmes, 2013), *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2007) and *tidyverse* (Wickham et al., 2019)

packages. Rarefaction curves assessed sequencing completeness. The data were subset to contain

ASVs classified to animal phyla. This animal-only subset was used to explore biodiversity

patterns described in this paper. Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were calculated based on the

presence/absence (Clarke et al., 2014) of ASVs across sampling stations and depths. Distance

matrices underwent Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) and distance-based redundancy

analysis (dbRDA) to test for associations with depth, spatial coordinates, and proximity to the

seafloor. Relationships between PCoA axes and depth were investigated using linear regression.

Marine invertebrate families were classified as benthic based on established ecological

life-history traits (Brusca et al., 2022; Jumars et al., 2015). Families producing pelagic larvae or

with pelagic life stages (e.g. sessile, colonial hydroids) but with predominantly benthic adult

forms were classified as benthic for this analysis. We used Analysis of Compositions of

Microbiomes with Bias Correction 2 (ANCOM-BC2) (Lin & Peddada, 2024) to determine if

eDNA from benthic invertebrates was differentially abundant across sample replicates taken at

different stations and depths.

Bathymetric maps were created using *QGIS*, *marmap* (Pante & Simon-Bouhet, 2013) with

bathymetric data from USGS and GEBCO (Gardner et al., 1998; GEBCO Compilation Group,

2023).

2.7 Analysis and Correction for Potential Contamination

Significant contamination detected in negative controls associated with 18S data from

one cast (Cast 16 - Station 1.0 NM East) led to the exclusion of this data from the analysis.

Minor contamination detected in some negative controls was assessed and determined to be

insufficient to influence overall interpretations; therefore, no further data adjustments were

applied. A detailed summary of ASVs detected in negative controls and corrective measures are

provided in Appendix A: Supplementary Methods, and comprehensive read counts and

taxonomic classifications for all ASVs across all samples are available in **Tables S2** and **S3**.

3. Results

3.1 Water column profile

A strong and consistent thermocline formed below the surface mixed layer, beginning at

depths of 40–50 meters during the entire sampling period (**Figure 2**). This thermocline is typical

for the northwestern Gulf of Mexico in late summer (Lugo-Fernández, 1998). This thermocline

coincided with reductions in salinity and dissolved oxygen and increases in fluorescence and

turbidity, clearly marking the chlorophyll maximum zone at this transition (**Figure S1**).

3.2 Amplicon sequence diversity and sequencing depth

Post-processing yielded an average sequencing depth of $118,676 \pm 26,704$ reads per

sample for the 18S dataset and $45,971 \pm 15,571$ reads per sample for the 28S dataset. The

average ASV richness per sample was substantially higher for the 18S dataset (891 ± 217 ASVs)

compared to the 28S dataset (254 ± 70 ASVs). Rarefaction analyses indicated sufficient

sequencing coverage for both markers, with more pronounced saturation in the 18S dataset

(**Figure S2**).

3.3 Taxonomic composition of eDNA

Sequencing reads classified to animal phyla (hereafter animal reads) represented 43.5 ±

20.7% of the 18S dataset and 68.0 ± 19.6% of the 28S dataset. Animal ASVs accounted for a

larger proportion of the 28S dataset (25.2 ± 9.3%) compared to the 18S dataset (5.2 ± 1.4%). In

the 18S dataset, copepods (classes Calanoida and Cyclopoida, phylum Arthropoda) dominated

animal reads by percentage (86.8 ± 14.4%; **Figure S3**). Hydrozoans (phylum Cnidaria, primarily

siphonophores) comprised 9.0 ± 13.9% of animal reads. Additional taxa that comprised at least

5% of animal reads in any sample included Appendicularia, Thaliacea (Chordata);

Phascolosomatidea, Polychaeta (Annelida); Chaetognatha; Tentaculata (Ctenophora); and

Demospongiae (Porifera). Mollusca, Bryozoa, Echinodermata, Platyhelminthes, Nemertea, and

Rotifera were present at low abundances (<5% in every sample). In the 28S dataset, hydrozoans

dominated animal reads (78.7 ± 21.2%), followed by Tentaculata (Ctenophora, 13.0 ± 16.3%).

Anthozoans and calcareous sponges each comprised >10% of animal reads in multiple samples.

Other groups present in the 28S data included Nuda (Ctenophora), Scyphozoa (Cnidaria),

Cephalopoda (Mollusca), Annelida, Chordata, and Arthropoda.

3.4 Vertical Distribution of Invertebrate eDNA

Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) based on Bray–Curtis dissimilarities

distinguished surface mixed layer samples (20 and 40 m depths) clearly from deeper samples (≥

60 m; **Figure 3**). The first PCoA axes significantly inversely correlated with depth (*18S* P <

0.00001, Adjusted R^2 = 0.7008; *28S* P < 0.00001, Adjusted R^2 = 0.8612), and explained 22.7% of

the variation in 18S data and 14.4% in 28S data. Distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA)

further supported these findings, constraining 27.7% (*18S*) and 21.6% (*28S*) of community

variation. Bray–Curtis dissimilarities were significantly correlated with depth in both datasets

([18S P = 0.001, 28S P = 0.001]; **Tables 3 and 4**).

3.5 Dispersion of eDNA from Benthic Invertebrates

The richness of benthic invertebrate families peaked near the seafloor at the bank's center

(27.3 ± 4.9 families for *18S*; 15.8 ± 0.5 families for *28S*) and declined substantially at 60 m depth

with increasing horizontal distance away (**Figure 4**). Coral eDNA genera richness showed

similar spatial patterns in the *28S* data, consistently declining with distance. Likewise, the

abundance of eDNA from several benthic invertebrate families, including corals, was

significantly correlated with depth and distance from Bright Bank's center. In the 18S data, the

abundance of eDNA from benthic invertebrates, including corals, sponges, polychaetes, and

bryozoans, was significantly lower with increasing distance from the center of Bright (**Table

S4**). In the 28S data, the abundance of eDNA from sponges, corals, and sessile hydroids was

significantly lower with increasing distance from Bright (**Table S5**). Notably, eDNA from some

coral families (e.g., Aphanipathidae) was positively correlated with depth but not with distance

from the center of Bright.

eDNA from corals was consistently and inversely correlated with distance from Bright

Bank across both datasets and both differential abundance analyses; however, coral eDNA was

detected at substantial distances away in the 28S data. Black coral eDNA and eDNA from

octocorals were detected in all sample replicates as far as 1.5 NM (~2.7 km) away from the

center of Bright Bank, particularly at 60 and 80 m at eastern, southeastern, and southwestern

stations (**Figure 5A**). On the contrary, coral eDNA was not consistently detected across sample

replicates in the 18S data at any site other than the center of Bright Bank (**Figure 5B**). Overall,

the relative abundance of coral eDNA was substantially less in the 18S data; at maximum, 0.2%

of the animal eDNA in any 2L eDNA sample and 3% in the large-volume samples. The 28S

libraries were comparatively enriched in eDNA from corals; at maximum, 24.6% in the 2L

samples and nearly 50% in the large volume samples.

4. Discussion

4.1 Vertical eDNA Transport is Limited by Water Column Stratification

Our findings clearly support the hypothesis that vertical eDNA transport is constrained by

water column stratification, consistent with prior studies (Jeunen et al., 2019; Allan et al., 2021;

Govindarajan et al., 2021; Monuki et al., 2021; Hoban et al., 2023; Robinson et al., 2023). Both

metabarcoding datasets (18S and 28S) revealed significant vertical differentiation in animal

eDNA communities. These data also revealed an increase in benthic-derived eDNA with depth

for some groups of octocorals and black corals. These results align closely with direct

observations at deeper habitats on the slopes of Bright Bank and to its east (Herrera & McCartin

2024). Such stratification-driven differences underscore that accurately assessing biodiversity

through eDNA must account for variability in vertical mixing.

Detection of benthic invertebrate eDNA at depths in the surface mixed layer was rare

(**Figure S4**), likely reflecting episodic physical or biological processes such as spawning events,

vertical migrations, larval dispersal, or storm-induced mixing (Harrison et al., 2019). For

example, the 18S dataset revealed notable detections of an opheliid polychaete in the surface

mixed layer, comprising up to 10% of sequencing reads at 40 meters depth, potentially reflecting

a reproductive migration event (Maciolek & Blake, 2006, Pandian 2019). Such episodic

detections highlight the importance of integrating ecological and environmental context into

eDNA sampling strategies, necessitating repeated temporal and spatial sampling to differentiate

between persistent signals and transient biological events (Stommel 1963).

4.2 Horizontal transport of eDNA exceeds one kilometer

Benthic eDNA richness peaked near the seafloor at Bright Bank's center (~58 m depth),

reflecting a diverse assemblage of corals, sponges, polychaetes, bryozoans, ascidians, and

mollusks. Consistent with our hypotheses, both the richness and relative abundance of eDNA

from benthic invertebrates rapidly declined with horizontal distance due to mixing, diffusion, and

degradation processes. These results are consistent with a substantial number of studies that have

found that eDNA metabarcoding distinguishes differences in biological communities that are

physically connected by currents distances over similar or closer distances apart than our field

stations (Port et al., 2016; Jeunen et al., 2019; West et al., 2020; Dugal et al., 2023).

While the diversity of benthic invertebrate eDNA decreased with distance from Bright

Bank, eDNA transport was still apparent in these data. In the 28S data we consistently detected

coral eDNA, particularly from black corals (Antipathidae) and ellisellid octocorals (*Ellisella* spp.

and *Nicella* spp.), at stations up to approximately 2.8 kilometers (1.5 NM) from the bank center.

Based on bathymetry data, these stations were up to 1.46 km from the seafloor at the sampling

depths where corals were consistently detected (60 and 80 meters). The consistent detection of

eDNA likely originating ~1.5 kilometers from its source is similar to empirically measured

transport distances of eDNA originating from caged fish in inlets and bays of marine eDNA.

These studies found that eDNA may be dispersed at detectable concentrations at distances from 1

to 5 kilometers away (Murakami et al., 2019; Shea et al., 2022; Baetscher et al., 2024). Our study

differs from these previous studies in that we measured eDNA dispersal at an offshore habitat

where the coastline does not influence transport. Our study is also methodologically different in

that we used metabarcoding, whereas these previous studies have used quantitative PCR (qPCR).

Quantitative approaches like qPCR or digital droplet PCR that are complementary to

metabarcoding should be employed in future studies to validate observed dispersal distances and

provide absolute eDNA quantification. Even so, it is worth noting that linking eDNA

quantification to organismal abundance and biomass is an area of active research with inherent

uncertainties (Yates et al., 2025; Yates et al., 2019).

Studies incorporating models of ocean circulation and eDNA degradation have predicted

the transport of detectable concentrations of eDNA over tens of kilometers (Andruskiewicz et al.,

2019). Unfortunately, a circulation model that accurately hindcasts the current field at Bright

Bank at a useful resolution (100 m or less) is not available. Generating such a model is a

computationally intensive problem beyond the scope of this study. Still, we can use a model of

eDNA persistence (McCartin et al., 2022) to provide useful predictions. At 22°C, we would

expect eDNA concentrations to decrease by three orders of magnitude within 96 hours. This

decrease, reaching the limit of detection of qPCR assays, is typical of eDNA persistence

experiments (McCartin et al., 2022). Hindcasted currents at 60 meters depth at Bright Bank

derived from the HYCOM-TSIS 1/100° Gulf of Mexico Reanalysis (Chassignet, 2025)

frequently reached and exceeded 0.1 m/s or 0.36 km/hour, a velocity within current speeds

measured near other shelf-edge banks in the region (Lugo-Fernández, 1998). Using this value as

a static estimate for current speed, and ignoring other processes like diffusion, mixing, and

settling, eDNA could be transported away from its source up to 8.64 kilometers per day. Over

four days, eDNA may be transported nearly 35 kilometers. Our observations of detectable eDNA

~1.5 km from its likely source are more than an order of magnitude smaller than this theoretical

upper limit.

4.3 PCR primer and protocol choice influences eDNA spatial resolution

In our study we compared results using PCR primers and a library preparation protocol

designed to broadly amplify marine invertebrates (18S) to PCR primers and a protocol designed

to be taxonomically specific to corals (28S). We found that sequencing using the taxonomically

specific 28S primers consistently detected coral eDNA at greater distances away from Bright

Bank than using the *18S* primers. This difference likely arises from (1) the low relative

abundance of coral eDNA relative to other taxa and (2) amplification biases inherent in mixed-

template PCR reactions (Kelly et al., 2019). In this case, more abundant sequences (e.g. from

copepods) could have been favored over coral sequences using the *18S* primers.

Using taxonomically specific primers improves detection sensitivity and taxonomic

classification for their target taxa; however, using specific primers and protocols with sensitive

detection thresholds may risk extending detection ranges beyond their immediate sources. Thus,

primer specificity and protocol sensitivity critically shape the interpreted spatial distribution of

eDNA using metabarcoding and may influence marine biodiversity assessment outcomes with

management implications. The effect we observed likely extends beyond the 28S primers used in

this study to other taxonomically specific metabarcoding primers (e.g. MiFish) (Miya et al. 2015)

and species-specific qPCR and ddPCR assays. Failure to account for this effect could impact the

spatial accuracy of biodiversity assessments and species detections using eDNA. Conversely,

using primers that broadly amplify many taxa will deliver community-level insights but at

reduced sensitivity for ecologically important taxa that are less abundant or shed less eDNA,

such as corals. These results underscore the importance of explicitly incorporating both

ecological and methodological factors into marine biodiversity monitoring strategies, ensuring

accurate and effective spatial management and surveillance practices using eDNA. Empirically

comparing the sensitivity of different primer sets on samples with known proportions of DNA

from different taxa (i.e. mock communities) can help the assessment of these biases (e.g. Macher

et al., 2023).

4.4 Study Limitations and Future Directions

This study provides essential insights into eDNA dispersion dynamics but also highlights

several current limitations. The Gulf of Mexico is an oceanographically complex region with

seasonal variation (Lugo-Fernández, 1998; Bracco et al., 2019). Our empirical findings provide

valuable baseline information for interpreting spatial scales of eDNA signals. Dispersal patterns

are likely depth-dependent and vary seasonally with changes in oceanographic conditions, and

studies investigating seasonal variability in eDNA dispersal are needed. Sampling during one

season restricts the temporal generalizability of dispersal distances that can be yielded from our

data and similar studies. Seasonal variability in stratification, current strength, and biological

processes likely influence eDNA dispersion, warranting longitudinal studies across different

seasons and environmental conditions.

Secondly, metabarcoding approaches are semi-quantitative, limiting precise

quantification of absolute eDNA concentrations. Integrating metabarcoding with multiple primer

sets—including both broad-range and taxon-specific markers—and quantitative methods

(qPCR/ddPCR) will offer the most robust strategy for environmental monitoring, spatial

biodiversity assessments, and ecosystem management decisions.

Finally, explicit high-resolution hydrodynamic modeling (100 m or less) incorporating

physical oceanographic data (e.g., current speed and direction) and field eDNA measurements

would significantly refine interpretations of observed dispersal distances. Future research should

integrate these empirical and modeling approaches for improved spatial accuracy in marine

eDNA studies.

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Tables

Table 1: Coordinates of CTD cast stations and eDNA sampling depths.

Cast	Latitude	Longitude	Station	Depths sampled (Niskin replicates)
1	27.88619	-93.29568	Center	20 m (4), 40 m (4), 58 m (4)
3	27.90475	-93.313693	NW - 1.5 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 95 m (3)
4	27.92374	-93.33255	NW - 3.0 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 100 m (2)
5	27.90476	-93.27621	NE - 1.5 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 81 m (3), 101 m (3)
8	27.84239	-93.268503	SE - 3.0 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 100 m (3)
9	27.86722	-93.27632	SE - 1.5 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 96 m (3)
10	27.86735	-93.31381	SW - 1.5 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 100 m (3)
12	27.923706	-93.257714	NE - 3.0 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 100 m (2)
13	27.84857	-93.33247	SW - 3.0 NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 100 m (3)
16	27.88623	-93.27616	E - 1.0NM	40 m (3), 60 m (3), 80 m (3), 90 m (3)
2	27.89738	-93.32821	"Swiftia"	84 m (all Niskins over one filter)
11	27.900727	-93.270305	"mooring"	83 m (all Niskins over one filter)

Table 2: Differences between PCR amplification protocols for metabarcoding 18S and 28S markers.

Marker	18S	28S
Target taxa	Eukaryotes	Anthozoan corals

Forward primer	5'-CCCTGCCHTTTGTACACAC-3'	5'-CGTGAAACCGYTRRAAGGG-3'
Reverse primer	5'-CCTTCYGCAGGTTCACCTAC-3'	5'-TTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGACG-3'
Primer reference	Amaral-Zettler et al. (2009)	McCartin et al. (2024)
PCR Mastermix	KAPA HiFi HotStart Ready Mix (Roche)	Platinum Superfi II (Invitrogen)
Protocol description	Govindarajan et al. (2022)	McCartin et al. (2024)
Template dilution	1:10	Not diluted
Total PCR cycles	25	40
PCR product cleanup	Individual PCR products not bead cleaned	0.8X ratio of KAPA Pure Beads
Sequencing platform	Illumina MiSeq - paired-end 250 bp reads	Illumina MiSeq - paired-end 300 bp reads

Table 3: Results of permutational ANOVA to test for significance in distance-based redundancy analyses of 18S data.

Term	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	F	Pr(>F)
Depth	1	1.5712	7.4257	0.001***
Latitude	1	0.2195	1.0375	0.331
Longitude	1	0.2505	1.1841	0.204
Proximity to bottom (Y/N)	1	0.4004	1.8924	0.011*
Residual	30	6.3476		

Table 4: Results of permutational ANOVA to test for significance in distance-based redundancy analyses of 28S data.

Term	Degrees of Freedom	Sum Of Squares	F	Pr(>F)
Depth	1	1.3074	5.5840	0.001***
Latitude	1	0.3464	1.4793	0.034*
Longitude	1	0.2397	1.0239	0.357
Proximity to bottom (Y/N)	1	0.3007	1.2844	0.110
Residual	34	7.9605		

Figures

Figure 1. Study site overview and sampling station locations at Bright Bank A) Bathymetric

map of the study region in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico. Bathymetry is from the United

States Geological Survey (USGS) (Gardner and Beaudoin, 2005) and the General Bathymetric

Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO Bathymetric Compilation Group, 2023). B) Zoomed-in

bathymetry of Bright Bank with 20-meter contour intervals. Station colors represent distances

from the bank's center, except for casts at the "*Swiftia*" and "mooring" stations.

Figure 2: Temperature profiles measured during CTD casts conducted for eDNA sampling over the center and at radial stations distances away from Bright Bank. Sampling depths are indicated in orange and labeled for reference.

 Figure 3. Multivariate community similarity of eDNA samples across depth and markers.

 Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plots based on Bray–Curtis dissimilarities for *18S* and *28S*

 marker datasets. Points represent aggregated replicate data per station and depth.

 Figure 4: Horizontal patterns in benthic eDNA richness at 60 m depth. Richness of benthic

 invertebrate taxa at 60 m depth at sampling stations varying distances from the center of Bright

 Bank. Each point represents a replicate sample.

Figure 5: Spatial detection of coral eDNA across depths and directions from Bright Bank.

A) Presence of coral eDNA at 60 and 80 m depths across radial transects. Yellow points indicate

high-confidence detections (all replicates positive). Isobath contours (60 m and 80 m) and the

boundary of the Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary (FGBNMS) are indicated. **B)**

Proportion of animal sequencing reads classified as coral across sequencing datasets, sampling

stations, and depths of 60 and 80 meters.