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Characterizing spatio-temporal changes in benthic communities: Taxonomic and functional trajectories of intertidal assemblages in the bay of Saint-Brieuc (English Channel)

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Abstract :

Tracking and quantifying ecological changes at large and long-term scales is a central point for monitoring and conservation issues. The Community Trajectory Analysis Framework was used in complement with classical methods to analyse and represent long-term changes in marine habitats at 42 stations in the bay of Saint-Brieuc (western English Channel), sampled in 1987, 2001 and 2019. The taxonomic and functional trajectories of intertidal benthic assemblages were studied at local and assemblage scales. Whatever the perennial contribution of dominant prevalent species at the site scale, some species were highly variable over time and space, influencing the structuration of assemblages. Taxonomic changes were not systematically associated with significant changes in the functional properties at local and community scale. The consideration of local changes and variations at the species level explained the differences in composition observed at the scale of assemblages. Observed changes mainly reflected random population dynamics of structuring prevalent species in habitat under strong natural pressures, rather than specific changes of the community. Few species reveal the long-term effect of green tides in some assemblages. Overall, this study confirms the complexity to disentangle factors of changes in the absence of a monitoring strategy specifically devoted the measurement of environmental factors and anthropogenic pressures. The study also highlights the need for the development of benthic monitoring strategies at multiple spatial and temporal scales.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

► Five benthic assemblages with various dynamics were observed. ► Pattern of dominance of specific species dictates taxonomic trajectories. ► Spatio-temporal patterns in taxonomic and functional trajectories were independent. ► The Community Trajectory Analysis bring new perspectives to track change in marine habitats.

Keywords : community trajectory analysis, ecological trajectories, benthic macrofauna, stability, variability, marine protected area

1. Introduction 39

39	1. Introduction
40	Costal ecosystems face severe natural and anthropogenic pressures that affect,
41	sometimes strongly, both the structure and functioning of benthic communities
42	(Harris, 2012; Cimon and Cusson, 2018). Although assessment of stability/variability
43	of benthic communities, often in relation with management considerations, has
44	received a large attention by scientists, it remains a central point of ecological
45	research and conservation (Ellis et al., 2000). Studying stability/variability in
46	ecological systems requires the consideration of disturbances defined as "any
47	discrete event in time that disrupt ecosystems, community or populations structure"
48	(Picket and White, 1985). Ecological theory suggests that small scale disturbance
49	events at intermediate frequencies may have positive effects on the system at larger
50	scales whereas disturbance on larger scales are much more likely to reduce
51	heterogeneity in communities and induce slower recovery rates (Bazzaz, 1983;
52	Caswell and Cohen, 1991; Connell, 1978; Ellis et al., 2000). Understanding the
53	effects of environmental changes on natural communities requires to distinguish
54	natural and anthropogenic variability (Osenberg and Schmitt, 1996; Stewart-Oaten,
55	1996). However, the lack of reference, non-impacted sites in modern ecosystems,
56	makes this task a real challenge (Boldina et al., 2014). Temporal surveys assessing
57	the evolution of benthic communities are therefore essential to establish baselines

and detect ecological changes (Desroy et al., 2002; Hardman-Mountford et al., 2005;
Schückel et al., 2015; Veiga et al., 2017).

60 Benthic communities are commonly sampled via a network of stations and a 61 sampling periodicity varying from seasonal to decadal. Such an approach allows 62 detecting major changes in benthic macrofauna without being able to infer on the 63 causes of changes (Bacouillard et al., 2020). The simultaneous sampling of several 64 stations distributed in the area of interest makes possible to investigate temporal 65 changes occurring at different inter-connected scales: (1) at the scale of a station, 66 where local processes may drive the composition of communities (sedimentary 67 changes, local anthropogenic pressures), and (2) at the scale of cluster of stations 68 with similar composition (hereafter called assemblages), where processes operating 69 at larger scale may drive the temporal variability (climate, diffuse and chronic 70 anthropogenic disturbances).

Although there is a large consensus that diversity losses threaten ecosystem 71 72 functioning, man-induced changes do not systematically impact diversity. Studying 73 the temporal variability of benthic assemblages through analysis of composition and structure gains or losses seems consequently limited regarding functional 74 considerations. For example, substantial changes in species composition and 75 76 structure in space and time may not systematically results in proportional α diversity (Whittaker, 1972; Dornelas et al., 2014) and trait-based functional changes (McLean 77 78 et al., 2019; de Sousa Gomes-Gonçalves et al., 2020). In this context, trait-based 79 approaches offer a complementary integrative framework to link functional 80 consequences to biodiversity changes (Suding et al., 2008; Boyé et al., 2019). 81 Studies combining composition, structure and functioning assessments of 82 assemblages in a multidimensional scale allow the detection of multi-faceted 83 responses to environmental variability in faunal communities (McLean et al., 2019). The detection of future potential changes in species distribution and assemblage 84 85 compositions, which can be helpful for monitoring and conservation issues (Desroy et

86 al., 2002; Schückel et al., 2013; Veiga et al., 2017), requires the establishment of 87 baseline knowledge. In the English Channel, scientific studies have largely focused 88 on benthic communities in the main coastal bays and estuaries (Desroy et al., 2002). 89 In the bay of Saint-Brieuc (western English Channel), where intertidal habitats are 90 partially protected since 1998 by a National Nature Reserve, the analysis of 91 diachronic changes of benthic assemblages has not been updated for 20 years (Gros 92 and Hamon, 2021). Previous studies underlined the close link between benthic 93 resources and waders which prey on macro-invertebrates (Sturbois et al., 2015; 94 Ponsero et al., 2016), highlighting the need to study and conserve benthic habitats. 95 After two decades, an analysis of benthic assemblages using the same protocols as 96 those used for the definition of historical baselines was needed to assess temporal 97 changes of intertidal habitats in this bay representative of coastal areas characterised 98 by range of impacts due to the complex co-occurrence of management's mosaic and 99 anthropogenic uses (Ellis et al., 2000). Natural and anthropogenic contexts 100 (Supplementary material, Appendix A) make the study site suitable to contribute to 101 the debate about the definition of impact assessment at spatial and temporal scales 102 and the feasibility of such research. It is also essential to provide up-to-date knowledge to policy makers and managers about the evolution of the composition, 103 104 structure and functioning of benthic assemblages. 105 This study, based on a long-term survey in the intertidal soft-bottom sediments of the 106 bay of Saint-Brieuc, aims to analyse the taxonomic and functional variability of 107 benthic communities over the last 30 years at different spatial scales using 42 108 stations sampled in 1987, 2001 and 2019. The approach specifically focused on the 109 detection of trajectory patterns by applying the recent Community Trajectory Analysis 110 Framework (De Cáceres et al., 2019; Sturbois et al., 2021b). Results were discussed 111 regarding potential environmental and anthropogenic driving factors and some propositions were made for such long-term study approaches. 112

114 **2. Material and methods**

115 **2.1. Study area**

116 Fieldwork was conducted in the bay of Saint-Brieuc, France (Figure 1). The study 117 area includes about 2900 ha of tidal flats divided in two coves (Yffiniac and Morieux) 118 mainly dominated by fine to medium sands. The most sheltered parts are dominated 119 by salt marshes. The bay is under the influence of a semi-diurnal megatidal regime. 120 Tidal range varies between 4 m at neap tides and nearly 13 m during spring tide 121 (Figure 2). Divagation of channels is particularly dynamic, with increasing magnitude 122 in low levels (Supplementary material, Appendix B). A large part of the bay (1140 ha) 123 is included in the National Nature Reserve of the bay of Saint-Brieuc, created in 1998 to protect wader populations (Figure 1). The study area undergoes a variety of 124 anthropogenic pressures (Supplementary material, Appendix A): sediment extraction 125 126 conducted until 2004 (1000m³.y⁻¹, around stations 3 and 5) and muddy sediment deposits (near station 11) dredged from the Saint-Brieuc harbour since 2004 (120 127 128 000 m³.y⁻¹). The bay also suffers from eutrophication, resulting in strong ephemeral macroalgae proliferation and cyclic green tides episodes. Professional 129 130 (Cerastoderma edule) and recreational (Cerastoderma edule, Pecten maximus, Arenicola marina) fishing activities has been an important activity for many decades, 131 especially in Yffiniac cove. In the lower level of Morieux cove, mussel farming on 132 wooden poles, called "bouchots" (Figure 1) has increased over the study period, from 133 134 277 ha in 1987 to 386 ha in 2001 and 312 ha in 2019.

135

136 **2.2. Field sampling**

137 Macrofauna was sampled during winter (March) in 1987, 2001 and 2019 at 42

stations, following the sampling grid (Figure 1) and the protocol defined in 1987 by

139 (Gros and Hamon, 2021). At each site, four replicates were collected for

140 macrobenthos analysis using a 1/32m² hand corer (diameter: 20cm), at a depth of 25

141 cm. The content of the cores was gently sieved on site through 1-mm square mesh

sieve. Retained material was preserved for analysis in 5% buffered formaldehyde.

143 Density per m² of *Arenicola marina,* which is difficult to sample with a handcorer, was

144 estimated visually by counting worm casts at each station within 10 quadrats of 1 m².

145 A visual description of the sediment type was recorded and two samples of sediment

were collected from additional cores (diameter 5 cm, depth 5 cm) and subsequently

147 analysed for grain size distribution, and water and organic matter contents. All

replicates were collected at the four corners of a 1m² square, using GPS position-

149 fixing (GPS Etrex Garmin).

150

151 2.3. Laboratory analysis

152 Macrofauna was identified to the lowest possible level (usually species level),

counted, and abundances were expressed as densities per 1 m². Taxon were named
following the World Register of Marine Species. For granulometric analysis, sediment
was desalted with freshwater during 48 h before being dried at 60°C for 48 h, sieved
through AFNOR standard sieves (from 40 to 25000µm), and weighed. Water and
organic matter contents were respectively determined after drying (60°C for 48 h)
and combustion of sediment at 550 °C for 4 h (Hedges and Stern, 1984; Salonen,
1979).

160

161 2.4. Traits collection

162 The functional dataset was composed of six traits divided in 23 categories

163 (Supplementary material, Appendix C). These traits characterized the morphology

164 (body size, flexibility, fragility) and behavioural traits [feeding behaviour, living habit,

tolerance, (Degen and Faulwetter, 2019)]. This set of traits is related to the

vulnerability of species to mechanical disturbances (associated to recreational and

167 professional fishing activity and the circulation of vehicles) and organic enrichment

168 (tolerance). They were chosen to analyse functional changes in the community, in

169 relation to the main pressures identified in the study area. Information was retrieved

170 from primary literature on specific taxa, expert knowledge and three publicly available 171 databases: polytraits (http://polytraits.lifewatchgreece.eu), the World Register of 172 Marine Species (WoRMS Editorial Board, 2020), and Biological Trait Information 173 Catalogue (BIOTIC, http://www.marlin.ac.uk/biotic/). Scores were attributed to 174 species according to their affinity to each category of traits, using a fuzzy coding from 175 0 (no affinity) to 3 [high affinity (Chevene et al., 1994)]. Community-weighted trait 176 values (CWMs) were calculated to characterize the functional structure (Ricotta and 177 Moretti, 2011).

178 2.5. Data analysis

179 Data collected in 1987, 2001 and 2019 were analysed to track taxonomic and

- functional changes. Analysis of sediments (sub-section 2.5.1) and α -diversity (2.5.2)
- 181 were followed by spatial taxonomic clustering (2.5.3) and taxonomic and functional
- trajectory analysis (2.5.4). All the statistical analysis was performed with R 4.0.
- 183

184 **2.5.1 Sedimentary dataset**

Statistical description of sediments, based on grain-size distributions, was computed with the R package 'G2Sd' (Fournier et al., 2014). Ten sedimentary parameters were selected to describe sediment characteristics: water content (H₂0), organic matter content (OMC), arithmetic mean, median (d50), gravel (> 2mm), coarse sand (1mm to 250µm), fine sand (250 to 125 µm), very fine sand (125 to 63µm), and mud (<63µm) contents.

191

192 **2.5.2 Taxonomic α-diversity**

193 In order to assess the different components of α-diversity, the mean number of

individuals per m² (N), taxa richness (S), Shannon-Weaver index (H'), Simpson index

(D) and Pielou's species evenness (J) were calculated for each station prior to any

196 transformations of the dataset.

198 2.5.3 Spatial taxonomic clustering

Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) was performed to distinguish benthic
assemblages (*i.e.* site groups) at each campaign by using the Hellinger distance
between each pair of samples (Legendre and Gallagher, 2001) and by applying the
Ward's clustering method. The indicator value method (Indval) was performed to
characterize assemblages (Dufrene and Legendre, 1997).

204

205 **2.5.4 Detecting trajectory patterns**

206 PCAs were performed on Hellinger transformed data and followed by Community 207 Trajectory Analysis (CTA). CTA is based on geometrical properties of ecological 208 trajectories (De Cáceres et al., 2019). The original framework and its new extension 209 (Sturbois et al., 2021b) were used to study and represent temporal changes at the 210 station scale taking into account all the dimensions of the multivariate analysis through trajectories of surveys in the multivariate space. A set of distance-based 211 212 metrics were calculated. Segment-length represents, for a station, the distance between two consecutive surveys. S1 informs about changes between 1987 and 213 214 2001, and S2 between 2001 and 2019. The trajectory path represents the sum of segment length (S1+S2). Net changes were calculated to analyse trajectories 215 between 1987 and 2019, considering the 1987 data set as an initial state (i.e. the first 216 ecological state of the time series). Net changes informs about the overall change 217 218 occurring during the study. The net change ratio represents the ratio between the net 219 changes and the trajectory path. It informs about the straightness of recovering and 220 or departing processes with respect to the initial state. Recovering and departing 221 consecutive trajectory segments (RDT) were identified by subtracting Net change n-1 222 to Net change n (Sturbois et al., 2021b).

De Cáceres et al. (2019) developed a geometrically-based approach to trajectory resemblance which includes the shape, size, direction and position of trajectories with respect to the resemblance between all observations (state) belonging to a same trajectory. Dissimilarities between ecological trajectories (1987-2001-2019)
were calculated to test their resemblance (De Cáceres et al., 2019) to underline
potential spatial pattern with HCAs. Indicator value method (Dufrene and Legendre,
1997) was performed on taxonomic trajectory clusters to test differences between
1987, 2001 and 2019. The relative contribution of all categories of functional traits
between 1987, 2001 and 2019 were compared for each functional trajectory clusters
and at the scale of the whole study area.

233

234 3. Results

235 3.1 General description of sediment

The sampling area was dominated by fine sediment at the three sampling dates:

237 (arithmetic means= $144.4\mu m \pm 52.5$, $135.9\mu m \pm 44.9$ and $159.5\mu m \pm 70.6$ in 1987,

238 2001 and 2019, respectively). Sand was the most represented grain size class over

the last three decades: $97.0\% \pm 1.9$, $98.5\% \pm 4.1$ and $95.6\% \pm 5.6$. Mud and gravel

were less represented and respectively ranged between $1.2\% \pm 4.0$ to $3\% \pm 5.5$, and

 $0.3\% \pm 0.8$ to $1.4\% \pm 5.0$. Overall, surficial sediment of the study area can be

summarized as fine sands organised along a *continuum* of fine to very fine sands

243 characterised by local variations in mud or gravel contributions.

3.2 General description of the benthos

245 The number of taxa reported in the intertidal flat was variable across the sampling 246 period (Table I): 50 in 1987, 53 in 2001 and 85 in 2019. In comparison to 1987, 11 taxa disappeared and 14 taxa appeared in 2001 and 14 taxa disappeared and 46 247 taxa appeared in 2019. 36 taxa were common to the three datasets and represented 248 249 95.5% ± 2.9 of the total abundance. Polychaetes, crustaceans, and molluscs were dominant. The number of taxa of these three dominant groups increased over the 250 study period. Other categories contributed to less than 5% of the taxa richness, 251 252 except for echinoderms, which represented 8.26% of the total abundance in 2019.

The high total abundance observed in 2001 was due to a strong increase of the mollusc *Donax vittatus* in the low shore (Figure 3), responsible for 51,8% of the total abundance.

In 1987, macrofauna was dominated by molluscs excepted in the low shore, where annelids were the most numerous group (Figure 3). In 2019, distribution between taxonomic groups was less contrasted, especially in the low shore, mostly due to an increase in mollusc abundances. Abundance of crustaceans also increased in most of the study area and a clear extension of the echinoderms distribution was observed in the western part of the study area, mostly due to the ophiuroid *Acrocnida spatulispina*.

Taxa richness increases from high to low shore whereas abundances follow an inverse pattern (Table I). Density, taxa richness and diversity (H, D) recorded from all samples were spatially and temporally variable. Compared to 1987, abundance (815 ind.m⁻² ± 1617 vs 1206 ind.m⁻² ± 1530), taxa richness (10.42 ± 3.21 vs 16.80 ± 6.69) and species diversity slightly increased in 2019.

268

269 3.3 Benthic assemblages

The hierarchical classification separated four clusters in 1987 and 2001 and five clusters in 2019. Mainly influenced by bathymetry (Figure 2), the distribution and structuration of assemblages was stable from upper to lower flat, despite the southwestward extension of assemblage IV, and the apparition of a new assemblage in 2019 (Figure 4).

Assemblage I, located in muddy sands on the upper part of the flat, was

characterized *Pygospio elegans* in 1987, and *Peringia ulvae* in 2001 and 2019 (first

rank indval, Table II). *P. ulvae* was dominant in 1987 and 2019, whereas *Corophium*

278 arenarium was the most abundant species in 2001. Assemblage II, associated to 279 very fine to fine sand of the upper mid-flat, was characterized by Macomangulus 280 tenuis in 1987 and 2019 and Urothoe poseidonis in 2019. M. tenuis remained the 281 most abundant species over time. Assemblage III, associated to very fine to fine 282 sand of the lower mid-flat, was characterized by U. poseidonis in 1987 and Acrocnida 283 spatulispina in 2001, and 2019. This assemblage was dominated by *M. tenuis* in 284 1987, U. poseidonis in 2001, and A. spatulispina in 2019. Assemblage IV, associated 285 to sands mainly located in low tide levels, was characterised by Scoloplos armiger in 286 1987, Donax vittatus in 2001, and Magelona mirabilis in 2019. It was dominated by P. 287 medusa in 1987 and D. vittatus in 2001 and 2019. A new assemblage was identified in 2019, in the upper part of the shore, on bare sands associated to major sand 288 289 intakes. Eurydice affinis characterized this assemblage and Bathyporeia pilosa was 290 the most abundant species. Distribution maps of species used to describe assemblages (Table II) are detailed in Supplementary material, Appendix D. 291

292 **3.4 Detecting trajectory patterns**

293

3.4.1 Taxonomic trajectories

The first period was characterized by less change (total S1 lengths = 453.05, mean= 294 10.79 ± 3.46) than the second [total S2 lengths= 582.34, mean= 13.87 ± 5.56 (Figure 295 296 5, A)]. Highest net changes occurred in the low shore where eight stations 297 concentrated 31% of changes (179.24). A positive correlation (0.529, p=0.0002) was 298 found between net change and latitude. RDT was positive for 31 stations (71.43%) and negative for 11 stations, showing an overall departure dynamics from the initial 299 300 taxonomic state. Total net change (582.34) represented only 56 % of the total 301 trajectory path (1035.39). This low net change ratio (53.14% \pm 0.12) indicated significant direction changes (*i.e.* driving species groups) in the multivariate space 302 303 between 1987-2001 and 2001-2019 for departing trajectories, and included 304 recovering ones.

305 The HCA performed on CTA of trajectory similarities separated four main clusters of 306 taxonomic trajectories (Figure 5, B and C). Cluster A was composed of 8 stations 307 from the sheltered part of the bay, and describing the evolution from an assemblage 308 characterized P. elegans in 1987 and B. pilosa in 2019 and dominated by P. ulvae in 309 1987 and 2019 and C. arenarium in 2001. Cluster B, the most common group (28 310 stations), was characterised by M. tenuis in 1987, U. poseidonis in 2001 and E. dolfusi in 2019. M. tenuis remained the most numerous species over time. Cluster C 311 312 (NC=25.06 ± 0.38; TP=35.33 ± 0.83) and D (NC=20.78 ± 1.91; TP=40.65 ± 5.28) 313 were characterised by longer net changes and trajectory path compared to cluster A (NC=10.49 ± 0.83; TP=21.20 ± 1.43) and B (NC=12.74 ± 0.81; TP=23.94 ± 1.11), but 314 represented a limited number of trajectories (14 % of stations). Cluster C grouped 4 315 stations located in the north-west, characterized by C. gibber at the three campaigns 316 317 and dominated by P. medusa in 1987 and D. vittatus in 2001 and 2019. Cluster D which regrouped only two stations located in the eastern low shore, was 318 characterised by Bathyporeia guilliamsoniana in 1987, P. medusa in 2001 and 319 Nucula nitodosa in 2019. Magelona mirabilis was the most numerous species in 1987 320 321 and 2019 and D. vittatus remained dominant in 2001. Distribution maps of species 322 used to describe taxonomic trajectory clusters (Table III) are detailed in 323 Supplementary material, Appendix D.

324

325

3.4.2 Functional trajectories

326 Functional trajectory paths were, for all sites, similar for both periods, revealing

similar level of functional variability between 1987 and 2001 (254.55, 6.06 ± 2.88)

and 2001 and 2019 (223.41, 5.32 ± 2.61). Seven stations concentrated 30 %

329 (143.67) of the overall trajectory path, illustrating a high functional variability in these

areas over the last 30 years. RDT revealed recovering trajectories for 25 stations (60

331 %), evenly distributed in the study area (Figure 6, A). The low net change ratio

 $(46.78\% \pm 0.11)$ was influenced by recovering trajectories.

333 The HCA performed on CTA of trajectory similarities separated four main clusters

according to the shape of functional trajectories (Figure 6, B and C).

Cluster E grouped six stations located in sheltered and upper parts of the shore and

characterised by the highest net changes (7.50 ± 1.27) and moderate trajectory path

 (10.80 ± 1.09) . Cluster E trajectories were mainly defined by an increase in the

contribution of very sensitive, free living and small species (Figure 7). Cluster F,

339 which concerned only one station, was characterised by the highest trajectory path

340 (27.29) but one of the smallest net change (2.63) in relation with an effective

recovering trajectory between 1987-2001 and 2001-2019. Cluster G was the most

342 common pattern of functional trajectories (30 stations) characterized by moderate net

343 changes (4.66 \pm 0.28) and trajectory path (9.53 \pm 0.48). This cluster was

344 characterised by moderate functional changes, except for an increase in the

345 contribution of flexible and small size species. Cluster H grouped five stations of the

low shore characterised by high trajectory path (19.97 \pm 1.72) and moderate net

347 changes (5.71 \pm 0.94), in relation with recovering trajectories occurring at this sites.

348 The main functional shift in cluster H concerned a positive shift of suspension-

349 feeders, free living, medium fragile, and rigid species, notably attributable to strong

350 variation of *D. vittatus* observed at these stations.

351 Despite some local functional shift depending on functional trajectory clusters, and

352 some slight significant shifts for some categories of traits, the overall functional

353 properties remained stable over time at the site scale (Figure 8).

354

355 **4. Discussion**

4.1 Local ecological dynamics influence benthic assemblages

As expected in such coastal environment (McLachlan and Brown, 2006), macrofauna was dominated by molluscs, polychaetes, and crustaceans, and 95.5% of the total abundance was due to 36 species common to the three sampling periods. This revealed a strong stability in the pool of species influencing community abundance and 361 composition. Some gains and losses of occasional and rare species influenced variations of the relative contribution of taxonomic group to overall richness. Changes 362 363 in assemblages mainly involved some of the prevalent species, suggesting a strong 364 impact of fluctuating population dynamics rather than species replacement in the 365 community. Different indicators and numerous species were involved in the definition 366 of assemblages and taxonomic trajectory clusters but the contribution of some species 367 to these descriptions was constant over time, notably P.ulvae, L. balthica, U. 368 poseidonis, C. edule, M. tenuis, C. gibber and M. mirabilis. At the scale of stations, despite an overall departing taxonomic trend, we observed mainly recovering 369 370 functional trajectories.

Two main mechanisms are involved in the long-term variability of benthic assemblages: the dynamics of structuring species and the existence of strong local variability.

374 1. Coupled with random gain or losses of species (Legendre, 2019), the dynamics of 375 structuring species results in moderate specific taxonomic changes in the multivariate structure of assemblages. However, several species can induce strong trends, such 376 377 as D. vittatus, whose abundance varied from 13.4 ± 15 ind.m² (20 stations) in 1987 to 3107 ± 6347 ind.m² (16 stations) in 2001 and 72.8 ± 101 ind.m² (19 stations) in 2019 378 379 or A. spatulispina and Kurtiella bidentata, whose occurrence and abundance 380 increased. In assemblage I, the decline in L. balthica populations is potentially attributable to climate change (temperature increase) as suggested by different works 381 382 in European regions (Beukema et al., 2009; Genelt-Yanovskiy et al., 2017; Jansen et al., 2007; Ong et al., 2017; Philippart et al., 2003; Van Colen et al., 2018). The bay of 383 Saint-Brieuc being located in the southern part of *L. balthica*'s distribution, populations 384 are likely to be affected by climate warming. 385

2. The stronger local variability is able to induce changes in assemblage definition, according to the initial state defined in 1987. The identification of a new assemblage in 2019, in relation to sedimentary variations, and the re-affectation of some stations to different assemblages illustrate such spatial changes. The distribution of *A*. *spatulispina* and *K. bidentata* in particular significantly extended in the sampling area over time.

392 At some stations, local taxonomic variability was of higher magnitude than the within-393 assemblages dispersion observed in 1987, which resulted in changes in the affectation 394 of assemblage over time. Depending on stations, differences between assemblages 395 were driven by differences in species compositions and/or dynamic of densities (see 396 differences in table II). Some stations were also located at the border of some 397 assemblages implying that they can be influenced by one assemblage or another 398 depending on the year. Because changes in species composition and/or abundance 399 (maybe favoured by hydrodynamics and/or sediments), some stations move from one 400 assemblage to another. For instance, the station 15 located at the border of two 401 assemblages in an area of high tidal channels dynamic was characterised by 402 successive changes over time: some species were sampled at least at two dates (e.g. Cerastoderma edule, Sigalion mathildae, Macomangulus tenuis or Bathyporeia sarsi) 403 whereas others rised high abundance at only one date (e.g. Scolelepis squamata in 404 1987; Macomangulus tenuis and Polycirrus medusa in 2001; Bathyporeia elegans, 405 Cumopsis longipes in 2019). 406

At the opposite, others trajectories buffered local functional changes in some stations at the assemblage scale, especially in the low part of the shore. Taken separately, stations were characterized by different functional trajectories, and the concentration of local recovering trajectories in these assemblages contributed to explain the overall functional persistence. Macrobenthic communities are often associated to a mosaic of micro-habitats where natural disturbance events result in the creation of patches characterized by different recovering stages (Defeo et al., 2009; Ellis et al., 2000). 414 According to Grimm and Wissel (1997), persistence is defined as a stability property 415 of ecological systems which nevertheless integrate moderate temporal variations. It 416 differs of the concept of constancy, which describes unchanged systems. Despites 417 changes observed at the scale of assemblages coupled with fluctuating population 418 dynamics of structuring species, we assume an overall persistence of the whole 419 benthic community in the bay of Saint-Brieuc. Such assumptions are in accordance 420 with Bacouillard et al. (2020), which suggest that local turnover can be very high, 421 especially in response of hydrologic and sedimentary dynamics (Desroy et al., 2007), 422 without adversely affecting the long-term persistence of the community.

423 **4.2 Low shore concentrates taxonomic changes**

The CTA approach revealed that the taxonomic variability increased following an inshore-offshore gradient. In the upper flat, sheltered conditions, strong influence of salinity variations and emersion time limit the number of species and the variability due to species gain. Inversely, the taxa richness increasing towards the lower flat contributes to the magnitude of change in low levels. As observed in 2019 for *Aponuphis bilineata* and *Nucula nitidosa*, the local presence of subtidal species on the intertidal flat constitutes a source of variation.

The northwest part of the bay, characterised by professional and recreational fishing 431 432 activities known to impact benthic community properties (Boldina et al., 2014; 433 Mosbahi et al., 2016), concentrated the highest net changes. Tides associated to 434 hydrodynamics, particularly strong in our study area, is recognized as a dominant factor shaping the variability of coastal systems (Monbet, 1992; Wildish, 1977; 435 436 Wildish and Kristmanson, 1979). This factor is responsible for surficial sediment 437 coverage and, consequently, for the dynamics of the distribution of macrofauna as demonstrated by Fujii (2007) in the Humber estuary (UK), Compton et al. (2013) in 438 the Wadden sea, or Veiga et al. (2017) on North Portuguese coasts. The influence of 439 440 intertidal channels divagation (within a 1420 ha area since 1988, Supplementary

441 material, Appendix A) must also be considered as a driver of sediments

442 resuspension and habitat resetting, particularly important in the low western shore. In 443 the eastern part, low net changes associated with high trajectory path and recovering 444 trajectories could be explained by sand banks displacement from north to south. 445 Such impact of sediment transport has already been highlighted in different coastal 446 areas in New Zealand (Thrush et al., 2003), France (Gouleau et al., 2000) or 447 experimentally in the UK (Whomersley et al., 2010). In this way, we expect any 448 anthropogenic activity potentially modifying sedimentary parameters (bio deposition, 449 sediment deposition, beach nourishment, dredging...) to, in turn, modify intensely the 450 composition, structure and functioning of soft bottom assemblages as suggested by 451 Veiga et al. (2017).

Whomersley et al. (2010) suggested that benthic communities frequently disturbed 452 453 by sediment movements or other natural environmental conditions would show greater resilience against further physical disturbance. Such resilient responses to 454 disturbance, due to the selection of adapted species, depend on the history of prior 455 disturbance and on the inherent ecological plasticity exhibited by species (Davic, 456 457 2003). In our study, 36 prevalent species contribute to the persistence of the community over time. Most of these species are adapted to living in mobile 458 459 sediments (McLachlan and Brown, 2006) and facing erosion and sedimentation. 460 They could then persist because of their tolerance to the harshness of the

461 environment as suggested by Callaway (2016).

In many coastal ecosystems, multiple disturbance sources, both natural and

463 anthropogenic, are often confounded (Whomersley et al., 2010), which makes

difficult the definition of their respective contribution (Harris, 2012). Our study

465 confirms the complexity to disentangle factors of changes in dynamic areas, where

466 strong natural variability results in regular community resets (Defeo and McLachlan,

467 2013), which may overshadow anthropogenic impact. On the opposite, areas

468 characterized by low hydrodynamics where benthic communities are not naturally

469 adapted to disturbances would therefore be very sensitive to additional physical 470 disturbance as showed by Jac et al. (2020). In the bay of Saint-Brieuc characterised 471 by severe natural constrains, further studies coupling experimental and high 472 frequency field samplings should deal with the respective role of hydrodynamics and 473 anthropogenic activities in resetting benthic communities (shear stress measurement 474 in area concerned and not by the circulation of vehicles from mussels farming, 475 analysis of the benthic macrofauna variability coupled with different gradients of 476 fishing activities and or local dynamics...).

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478 **4.3 Functional properties of the community persist over time**

479 The CTA resulted in contrasted taxonomic and functional trajectory patterns (*i.e.* net changes, departing and recovering trajectory). Clare et al. (2015) showed that density 480 compensation by redundant taxa buffers ecological functioning changes, but that 481 functional stability is subjected to aperiodic disruption due to substitutions of dissimilar 482 taxa or uncompensated population fluctuations. Accordingly, high trajectory paths 483 484 observed in the low shore reflected an important functional variability, but recovering trajectories notably influenced by D. vittatus fluctuating population dynamics led to low 485 net changes. Functional properties persisted over time at the scale of the whole 486 487 community. Low sensitivity of traits such as body size, flexibility, fragility to genus and, 488 in a lesser extent, species changes also contribute to limit the influence of taxonomic 489 variability on the functional stability. Lower influence of traits relative to feeding behaviour finally suggested no major changes at the scale of intertidal sedimentary 490 491 habitats, in accordance with (Sturbois et al., 2021b) who showed that high sedimentary 492 variability was limited to few sites.

To choose the set of traits in relation to main pressures, we hypothesised that fishing activities in the lower flat may influence benthic assemblages over time according to changes in relative values of body size, flexibility, fragility. Low net changes in the 496 lower part of the shore for the widespread functional trajectory cluster G and the
497 influence of *D. vittatus* in the functional trajectory of cluster H does not support such
498 a functional response to human pressures.

499 A similar interest was devoted to the tolerance of species to organic matter 500 enrichment according to the eutrophication process, mainly due to green tides. No 501 major change was observed at the scale of the whole study area in the contribution 502 of the different categories of tolerance. In accordance, changes were moderate in the 503 different functional clusters except in cluster E characterized by an important positive 504 shift in the contribution of very sensitive species. Despite a slow long-term water 505 quality improvement trend and a progressive decrease of green tides associated to 506 local water development and management plan, these events still strongly affect the study area. Quillien et al. (2015a) discussed the potential influence of Ulva sp. mats 507 508 on abundance peak of D. vittatus (improved recruitments and negative effect on predators of larvae), which could explain high densities reaching 21 487 ind.m² in 509 510 2001 and 14685 ind.m² in 2011 (unpublished data). Quillien et al. (2015b) also highlighted large-scale effects of green tides on macrotidal sandy beaches in 511 512 Brittany, showing notably that the echinoderm A. spatulispina and the mollusc K. bidentata were stimulated in soft bottom sediments impacted by green tides, contrary 513 514 to the crustaceans B. elegans and Cumopsis spp., which were impacted. In our study, the abundance and occurrence of these four taxa increased over the study 515 516 period, revealing a more complex gradient of sensitivity to green tides and/or nutrient 517 enrichment and the implication of other driving factors. As suggested by Bolam et al. (2000), Everett (1994), and Raffaelli et al. (1999), generalisations on the effect of 518 519 algae mat are not straightforward. In the study area, we believe that the important 520 green-tides associated to nutrient uptake buffer the influence of nutrient enrichment on macrofauna. 521

522 **4.4 The crucial need of data at multiple spatial and temporal scales**

523 The CTA applied to marine communities offers new trajectory metrics and tools (De 524 Cáceres et al., 2019; Sturbois et al., 2021b), useful to the accurate quantification and 525 description of changes as suggested by Cimon and Cusson (2018), which claimed 526 for the development of new metrics to document effects on community dynamics. 527 The potential and the interest of such framework focused on the analysis of 528 ecological dynamics increases significantly with the size of the time series. 529 There is virtually no appropriate benchmark data describing natural standards and 530 alterations of most environmental systems concerned by impacts accumulation (Ellis 531 et al., 2000). Like many estuarine and coastal areas, the bay of Saint-Brieuc has 532 been exposed to strong human influence over the last decades. The ecological state identified in 1987 and considered as the initial state in this study, was defined under 533 a pressure context already well established (notably nutrient enrichment, macroalgae 534 535 proliferation, mussel farming, fishing activities). The absence of a pristine reference state constitutes a strong limitation in the analysis of long-term trends (Hardman-536 Mountford et al., 2005; Rubal et al., 2014; Veiga et al., 2017). Furthermore, our study 537 suffers from the absence of long-term measurements of environmental factors and 538 539 anthropogenic pressures, especially to disentangle natural vs anthropogenic 540 changes.

541 Our results illustrate the value of historical data for marine and coastal management, as well as the importance of maintaining consistent protocols, as underlined by 542 543 Callaway (2016). Overall, the complementary methods and scales used to analyse the 544 data set contributed to the research frameworks focused on the definition of changes 545 and impact assessments at spatial and temporal scales in marine ecosystems. 546 However, it pointed the limitations of sampling strategies that only imply long-term 547 networks. The patterns of changes described were based only on three sampling occasions, which limits the understanding of processes occurring between each 548 surveys, and potentially overshadowing important intermediate changes (e.g. 549 550 occasional dominance by very large numbers from very few species as observed for 551 D. vittatus). As suggested by Bacouillard et al. (2020), the coupling of different spatial 552 and temporal scales in sampling strategy [few stations with high frequency sampling 553 (Hewitt et al., 2016) vs low frequency larger sampling networks (Kröncke et al., 2011)] 554 could help to track changes between long-term networks. Bacouillard et al. (2020) 555 propose in the bay of Seine 60 stations sampled every five years to assess long-term 556 changes in the beta diversity (i.e. assemblages distributions) and five stations sampled 557 at least once a year to analyse the heterogeneity in the responses of local community 558 to multiple stressors. Sturbois et al. (2021a) have also demonstrated such interests of 559 coupling different spatial and temporal scales by the use of two complementary data 560 sets (38 stations in 1987 and 2019, and one station from 2005 to 2019). In this study, the 15 years time series suggested that changes observed in a subtidal benthic 561 community over the last 30 years occurred probably from 2015. It claims for the local 562 563 development of an ambitious monitoring strategy in the intertidal area based on the 42 stations network sampled every 10 years coupled with at least one station sampled 564 565 once a year in each assemblage.

566 An overarching question in conservation biology is the assessment of marine

567 protected area effect on marine habitats (Appolloni et al., 2017; Bevilacqua et al.,

2006; Day et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2012). In this study, it was
not possible to assess accurately any conservation effect of the National Nature
Reserve as 1) species and assemblages remained locally very contrasted between
unprotected and protected areas and 2) such assessment ideally requires a global
network of protected and unprotected areas.

However, this study provides an up-to-date assessment to policy makers and
managers about the evolution of the composition, structure and functioning of benthic
assemblages. This knowledge will integrate future governance rounds, in a multiscale approach involving policy makers and stakeholders, and will make marine
habitats, a central part of the conservation process (Greathead et al., 2020), which
aim notably to extend the current natural reserve perimeter. Such approaches should

not only focus on aggregating local present day practices, but also on exploring
future visions and potential scenarios (Pereira L., 2021).

581

582 **5. Conclusion**

The CTA framework brings new quantitative and qualitative insights to characterize 583 and illustrate changes in marine habitats. The consideration of both local changes 584 585 and variations at population levels helps to explain the differences observed at the 586 scale of assemblages. Observed changes mainly reflected random population dynamics of structuring prevalent species in habitat under strong natural constrains, 587 rather than strong specific changes of the community. Few species may underline 588 the long-term effect of green tides in some assemblages. This study also claims for 589 ambitious monitoring strategy in order to integrate multiple spatial and temporal 590 scales, and efficient measurements of environmental and anthropogenic driven 591 592 factors.

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- 605 Occidentale.

606 Supplementary material:

- 607 Appendix A: Time line of sampling dates with respect to main anthropogenic uses,
- 608 pressures and conservation and protection regulations
- 609 **Appendix B:** Channel intertidal divagation in last the thirty years.
- 610 Appendix C: Categories of functional traits
- 611 Appendix D: Distribution and abundance of species used to describes assemblages
- 612 and taxonomic trajectory clusters
- 613
- 614
- 615

616 Graphical abstract



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619 **Figures:**



Figure 1: Location of the study area and sampling strategy. Black dots corresponds to
the 42 stations sampled in 1987, 2001 and 2019. The North limit of the Nature reserve
is indicated by a black line and mussel bouchots by polygons.





Figure 2: Bathymetry of the study area. Isolines are coloured according to altitude from the top (red) to the low tide level (blue). Mussel bouchots are represented by polygones.

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Figure 3: Variations in relative abundance of the main numerous taxonomic group between 1987 (A), 2001 (B) and 2019 (C). Size of pies corresponds to total abundance and sections to taxonomic group contributions.

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Figure 4: Spatial distribution of benthic assemblages identified with Hierarchical
Cluster Analysis performed on 42 stations in 1987, 2001 and 2019.

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C. Localisation of trajectory clusters



678 Figure 5: Taxonomic trajectories. A.: Maps of local trajectories. Distance based metrics are represented with circular and triangle symbols. Net changes are 679 represented with blue circles between 1987 and 2019. Bottom triangles represent the 680 trajectory segment S1 (1987 to 2001) and top ones S2 (2001 to 2019). Size of 681 symbols corresponds to lengths. For triangles, colors are used to distinguish 682 recovering (black) from departing trajectories (grey). B: Trajectory ordination 683 684 diagram. The three ecological state of each station were connected with arrows in 685 order to represent the whole trajectory path. Each trajectory path was coloured 686 according to taxonomic trajectory clusters defined with Hierarchical Cluster Analysis 687 based on CTA trajectory similarity analysis. Despite trajectory distance-based metrics and dissimilarity were calculated considering all of the dimensions of the PCA, the 688 first two dimensions show only 14% of the total variation, which may potentially hide 689 some patterns. C.: Localisation of trajectory clusters within the study area. 690



716 metrics are represented with circular and triangle symbols. Net changes are 717 represented with green circles between 1987 and 2019. Bottom triangles represent 718 the trajectory segment S1 (1987 to 2001) and top ones S2 (2001 to 2019). Size of symbols corresponds to lengths. For triangles, colors are used to distinguish 719 720 recovering (black) from departing trajectories (grey). B: Trajectory ordination diagram. The three ecological state of each station were connected with arrows in 721 722 order to represent the whole trajectory path. Each trajectory path was coloured 723 according to functional trajectory clusters defined with Hierarchical Cluster Analysis 724 based on CTA trajectory similarity analysis. C.: Localisation of trajectory clusters 725 within the study area.

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Figure 7: Barplots of Community-weighted trait values (CWM) values shift for each
categories of traits (mean 2019 – mean 1987). Bars are coloured according to
functional trajectory clusters.



Figure 8: Box plots of Community-weighted trait values (CWM) traits values in levels of respective categories according to year (1987: red; 2001: green; 2019: blue). Box plot indicates the median (line in the box), the first and third quartiles (hinges) and extreme data points (black points). Significance of student permutation paired tests are indicated for each category traits (ns: non significant; *: pval<0.05; **: pval<0.01; *** pval:<0.001).

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770 **Tables:**

771 Table I: General description of macrofauna

	1987	2001	2019	All years	_
Total Richness	50	53	85	133	•
Mean Richness	10.4 (sd=3.21)	10.8 (sd=5.23)	16.8 (sd=6.69)		
N Annelids	26	23	32	54	
N Crustaceans	13	19	35	45	
N Echinoderms	1	2	1	2	
N Molluscs	9	9	15	24	_
N Nemertia	0	0	1	1	
N Plathelminthe	0	0	1	1	
N Sipuncles	1	0	0	1	
N Constant species	7	4	12		
N Common species	5	13	12		
N Occasionnal species	13	11	11		
N Rare species	25	25	50		
Total abundance	34222	95991	50639		
Mean abundance	815 (sd=1617)	2286 (sd=4496)	1206 (sd=1530)		
Shannon (H)	1.62(sd=0.46)	1.46 (sd=0.76)	1.98 (sd=0.70)		
Simpson (D)	0.696(sd=0.153)	0.61 (sd=0.29)	0.74 (sd=0.21)		
Pielou (J)	0.704(sd=0.153)	0.65 (sd=0.29)	0.71 (sd=0.21)		

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Table II: Characteristics of assemblages identified with the Hierarchical Cluster
Analysis in 1987, 2001 and 2019: Assemblages (Ass), number of station (N st), Taxa
richness (S), Mean density per m² (M Dens), Shannon-Weaver Index (H), Simpson
Index (D) and Pielou's evenness (J) (± = standard error). Distribution of species
used to describe assemblages are detailed in Supplementary material, Appendix D.

790	Ass.	Indicator species	indval	р	Most numerous species	Mean.m² ± se	N st	S	Abund	н	D	J
790		Pygospio elegans	0.857	0.0001	Peringia ulvae	1076.57 ± 958.91	7	8.29	1864.14	1.44	0.67	0.71
704		Hediste diversicolor	0.714	0.0001	Pygospio elegans	260.57 ± 223.57		± 0.96	± 1410.00	± 0.15	± 0.05	± 0.07
791	1-87	Peringia ulvae	0 7 1 4	0 0001	Corophium arenarium	194 29 + 182 40						
		l imecola balthica	0.696	0.0001	Limecola balthica	148 57 + 58 63						
792		Arenicola marina	0.612	0.0003	Bathyporeia pilosa	00 20 + 77 03						
			0.012	0.0000		30.23 ± 11.03						
793		Macomangulus tenuis	0.595	0.0001	Macomangulus tenuis	344.75 ± 152.13	16	9.63	537.56	1.45	0.63	0.65
		Cerastoderma edule	0.498	0.0026	Cerastoderma edule	59.94 ± 20.50		± 0.60	± 172.02	± 0.12	± 0.05	± 0.04
794	II-87				Nephtys hombergii	25.50 ± 6.42						
/ 5 1					Urothoe poseidonis	19.50 ± 6.89						
795					Bathyporeia sarsi	12.00 ± 3.72						
755		Urothoe poseidonis	0.502	0.0007	Macomangulus tenuis	238.4 ± 118.43	10	10.00	837.90	1.61	0.73	0.71
706		Acrocnida spatulispina	0.486	0.0021	Bathyporeia sarsi	225.6 ± 101.72		± 0.70	± 265.84	± 0.09	± 0.02	± 0.03
790	111-87				Urothoe poseidonis	163.2 ± 61.37						
707					Acrocnida spatulispina	36.8 + 19.93						
/9/					Nephtys hombergii	35.2 ± 12.97						
700						00.2 1 12.07	_		405.00			
798		Scolopios armiger	0.947	0.0001	Polycirrus medusa	92.550 ± 32.18	9	14.00	465.89	2.07	0.81	0.79
		Chaetozone gibber	0.889	0.0001	Mageiona mirabilis	71.333 ± 21.28		± 1.13	± 45.52	± 0.13	± 0.03	± 0.03
799	IV-87	Polycirrus medusa	0.763	0.0001	Chaetozone gibber	53.333 ± 17.44						
		Magelona filiformis	0.667	0.0001	Fabulina fabula	41.778 ± 25.11						
800		Magelona mirabilis	0.613	0.0002	Bathyporeia sarsi	34.667 ± 16.71						
		Peringia ulvae	0.713	0.0002	Corophium arenarium	1371.33 ± 1371.33	9	6.89	2630.33	1.10	0.53	0.58
801		Cerastoderma edule	0.390	0.0179	Peringia ulvae	405.56 ± 179.62		± 1.33	± 1487.69	± 0.23	± 0.10	± 0.12
	I-01	Eurydice affinis	0.351	0.0184	Bathyporeia sarsi	297.78 ± 297.78						
802		Pvgospio elegans	0.344	0.0287	Cerastoderma edule	180.44 ± 100.01						
001					Macomangulus tenuis	128 89 + 88 14						
803		Maaaman mulua tanuia	0.544	0.0004	Maaaman mulua tanuia	202.07 ± 446.024	45	0.72	074.00	4 5 4	0.00	0.74
000			0.544	0.0001		382.07 ± 110.231	15	9.75	874.20	1.54	0.69	0.74
004		Lekanesphera levil	0.333	0.0142	Drothoe poseidonis	112.07 ± 51.27		± 1.19	± 206.65	± 0.11	± 0.04	± 0.05
804	II-01	Batnyporiela tenuipes	0.283	0.0335	Cumospsis fagei	72.87 ± 42.31						
					Spiopnanes bombyx	57.73 ± 17.96						
90F					Nephtys hombergii	45.00 ± 11.32						
805		Acrocnida spatulispina	0.870	0.0001	Urothoe poseidonis	122.70 ± 30.46	10	15.40	740.10	2.33	0.87	0.86
		Eocuma dollfusi	0.692	0.0001	Macomangulus tenuis	94.60 ± 26.62		± 0.75	± 96.79	± 0.06	± 0.01	± 0.02
806	III-01	Sigalion mathildae	0.622	0.0001	Acrocnida spatulispina	74.40 ± 27.36						
000		Urothoe poseidonis	0.581	0.0001	Eocuma dollfusi	56.20 ± 22.26						
		Malmgrenia arenicolae	0.524	0.0008	Cumospsis fagei	37.20 ± 10.64						
807		Donax vittatus	0.863	0.0001	Donax vittatus	6175 63 + 2846 18	8	11.38	6475 50	0.61	0.25	0.30
007					Magelona mirabilis	52.25 ± 24.80	-	+ 2 24	+ 2880.00	+0.19	+ 0.09	+ 0.08
	11/-01				Macomangulus tenuis	31.00 + 12.14						
808	10-01				Sigalion mathildae	22 50 + 6 75						
					Polycirrus meduse	19 75 ± 13 64						
					r olycinas medasa	10.70 1 10.04						
809		Peringia ulvae	0.955	0.0001	Peringia ulvae	4437.33 ± 2503.19	3	11.67	5126.80	0.98	0.41	0.39
		Limecola balthica	0.877	0.0010	Macomangulus tenuis	181.33 ± 90.78		± 3.53	± 2396.89	± 0.50	± 0.22	± 0.19
	I-19				Pygospio elegans	157.33 ± 157.33						
810					Cerastoderma edule	88.00 ± 84.03						
					Corophium arenarium	72.00 ± 46.88						
		Urothoe poseidonis	0.510	0.0004	Macomangulus tenuis	410.667 ± 137.42	12	14.67	1135.00	1.80	0.72	0.67
811		Macomangulus tenuis	0.451	0.0019	Urothoe poseidonis	194.000 ± 73.74		± 0.82	± 198.53	± 0.13	± 0.04	± 0.04
	II-19	Cerastoderma edule	0.451	0.0287	Bathyporeia sarsi	144.667 ± 79.88						
010					Cerastoderma edule	94.000 ± 27.35						
812					Spio martinensis	44.667 ± 17.04						
		Acrocnida spatulispina	0.620	0.0001	Acrocnida spatulispina	324 80 + 307 86	10	18 30	825.04	2.07	0.76	0.71
012		Kurtiella bidentata	0.023	0.0001	Kurtiella bidentata	66 40 ± 33 742	10	+ 1 60	+ 96 42	+ 0.20	+ 0.06	+ 0.06
013		Malmarania marphycao	0.02	0.0070	Rathyporoia ologans	40.60 ± 53.742		± 1.03	£ 00.42	£ 0.20	± 0.00	£ 0.00
	111-19	Religiona meduce	0.017	0.0079	Baliriy poreia elegans	49.00 ± 52.092						
814		Polycinus medusa	0.497	0.0007	Polycinus medusa	48.00 ± 38.088						
		Bathyporeia elegans	0.496	0.0125	Cumopsis longipes	45.60 ± 68.201						
		Magelona mirabilis	0.595	0.0001	Donax vittatus	81.71 ± 31.58	14	20.50	730.37	2.49	0.88	0.85
815		Donax vittatus	0.505	0.0109	Magelona mirabilis	68.00 ± 15.68		± 2.00	± 128.38	± 0.12	± 0.01	± 0.02
510	IV-19	Aponuphis bilineata	0.500	0.005	Acrocnida spatulispina	46.28 ± 15.69						
		Scoloplos armiger	0.486	0.0271	Pseudocuma longicorne	45.71 ± 34.59						
816					Polycirrus medusa	43.42 ± 16.49						
010		Eurydice affinis	1.000	0.0004	Bathyporeia pilosa	818.67 ± 500.23	3	7.33	1053.10	0.98	0.47	0.54
		Eurydice pulchra	0.905	0.0004	Scolelepis squamata	85.33 ± 85.33		± 2.03	± 540.33	± 0.28	± 0.15	± 0.17
	V-19	Bathyporeia pilosa	0.714	0.0003	Eurydice pulchra	64.00 ± 25.72						
					Nemertia	18.67 ± 14.85						
					Eurydice affinis	10.67 ± 2.67						

Table III: Characteristics of ecological states of trajectory clusters in 1987, 2001 and

818 2019. Taxonomic trajectory are coloured according to trajectory clusters and

described with distance-based metrics mean \pm se (NC: net change, TP: Trajectory path). Distribution of species used to describe taxonomic trajectory clusters (Ind.sp.:

821 Indicative species, 1st. Num.: two first numerous species) are detailed in

822 Supplementary material, Appendix D.

840		Ind. sp.	28	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1.101	Ind en	10	20 151 Million		Ind en	61	20 14 11 12	121	
838 839	8 NC= 10 TP= 21	Pygospio elegans	Arenicola marina	Peringia ulvae	 Pygospio elegans 	Peringia ulvae	Eurydice affinis	Corophium arenarium	Peringia ulvae	Bathyporeia pilosa	Corophium arenarium	Peringia ulvae	. Bathyporeia pilosa	
836 837	A 1 st 49±0.83 20±1.43	0.750 / 0.0116	0.734 / 0.0018	942.00 ± 841.27	228.00 ± 196.34	0.673 / 0.0206	0.444 / 0.0367	1542.75 ± 1542.75	336.63 ± 188.07	0.719 / 0.0047	0.625 / 0.0132	1667.00 ± 1152.91	332.00 ± 217.43	
834 835	B 28 st NC= 12.74 ± 0.81 TP= 23.94 ± 1.11	Macomangulus tenuis		Macomangulus tenuis	Bathyporeia sarsi	Urothoe poseidonis	Macomangulus tenuis	Macomangulus tenuis	Urothoe poseidonis	Eocuma dolfusi		Macomangulus tenuis	Acrocnida spatulispina	
833		St 4 ± 0.81 1 ± 1.11	0.748 / 0.0001		283.00 ± 96.53	77.71 ± 38.74	0.561 / 0.0075	0.514 / 0.0035	209.14 ± 48.04	106.18 ± 29.61	0.571 / 0.0396		176.00 ± 68.66	133.44 ±43.81
830 831 832	C 4 st NC= 25.06 ± 0.38 TP= 35.33 ± 0.83	Chaetozone gibber		Polycirrus medusa	Magelona mirabilis	Chaetozone gibber	Notomastus latericeus	Donax vittatus	Macomangulus tenuis	Chaetozone gibber	Nemertia spp.	Donax vittatus	Pseudocuma longicorne	
829		0.701 / 0.0159		120.25 ± 68.67	88.00 ± 43.57	0.669 / 0.0185	0.500 / 0.0084	11424.75 ± 4404.48	467.25 ± 407.51	1 / 0.0001	0.723 / 0.0009	194.00 ± 83.03	136.00 ± 118.07	
826 827	D 2st NC= 20.78 ± 1. TP= 40.65 ± 5.	Bathyporeia guilliamsoniana	Pontocrates altamarinus	Magelona mirabilis	Magelona filiformis	Polycirrus medusa	Holothuria spp.	Donax vittatus	Bathyporeia sarsi	Nucula nitidosa	Aponuphis bilineata	Magelona mirabilis	Acrocnida spatulispina	
823 824 825	.91 .28	1.000 / 0.0011	1.000 / 0.0014	84.00 ± 52.00	56.00 ±16.00	0.622 / 0.0292	0.500 / 0.0454	985.50 ± 478.50	50.50 ± 50.50	0.670 / 0.0081	0.623 / 0.0229	176.00 ± 16.00	168.00 ± 64.00	

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