1	Using ecological trajectories to track long-term taxonomic and functional
2	changes in benthic shallow soft-bottom communities (Bay of Saint-Brieuc,
3	English Channel)
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34 Abstract:

35	1.	Taxonomic and functional trajectories of benthic assemblages were studied in
36		shallow soft-bottom sediments in the bay of Saint-Brieuc (Western English
37		Channel). Changes were assessed at different spatial and temporal scales
38		using a macrobenthic dataset based on 38 stations sampled in 1987 and
39		2019, coupled with data from one station sampled annually between 2005
40		and 2019 as part of the European Water Framework Directive monitoring
41		programme.
42	2.	Taxonomic trajectories indicated 1) changes in the structure and distribution
43		of benthic assemblages, 2) an homogenization of the assemblages, and 3)
44		significant functional shifts.
45	3.	Fishing activities and nutrient enrichment are probably strong drivers of the
46		observed changes, as suggested by the higher mortality rate of fragile,
47		flexible, tubiculous and burrowing species, and the increase in the abundance
48		of opportunistic species in the assemblages. Certain populations of
49		macroinvertebrates seem jointly controlled by climate change and by the
50		aforementioned local factors of disturbance.
51	4.	The Community Trajectory Analysis framework appears as a new and
52		interesting method to track ecological changes in marine ecosystems by
53		measuring change with respect to a baseline state, to help define ecological
54		recovery (station returning towards the initial ecological state) and departing
55		(station presenting increased changes over time), and to analyze trajectory
56		similarity.
57	5.	According to the degradation of habitat over time, authors claim for the
58		implementation of knowledge-based conservation strategies, especially within
59		Natura 2000 sites.
60		

62 **1. Introduction**

63

64 Worldwide, marine ecosystems are suffering severe taxonomic and functional 65 changes in response to cumulative effects of anthropogenic disturbances including 66 overfishing, pollution, global climate change, habitat degradation and introduction of 67 non-indigenous species (Gray, 1997; Claudet & Fraschetti, 2010). Human influences 68 induce both acute and chronic effects over various temporal and spatial scales, and 69 can ultimately lead to broad-scale loss of productive habitats, and alteration of 70 community structure and function (Ellis, Norkko & Thrush, 2000). As a result, 60% of 71 major marine ecosystems worldwide are currently degraded or suffer from 72 unsustainable levels of exploitation, leading to the adoption of conservation policies by many countries (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2010; UNEP, 2011). The 73 74 European Water Framework Directive (WFD, Directive 2000/60/EC) and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (European MSFD, Directive 2008/56/EC) require that 75 76 European Member States implement measures to achieve a good environmental status of their water bodies. 77

78 The comparison to reference conditions based on pristine or slightly disturbed areas 79 is recommended by the European WFD to track changes in environmental status, 80 although it is generally recognized that non-disturbed marine and estuarine habitats 81 are rare (Borja, Dauer & Grémare, 2012), and that historical data rarely constitute a 82 pristine state (Callaway, 2016; Bacouillard et al., 2020). In this context, acceptable 83 levels of disturbances can be used to define reference conditions (Borja, Dauer & 84 Grémare, 2012). Such approach requires repeated and standardized surveys over 85 time to 1) track changes with respect to baselines conditions, and 2) provide up-to-86 date ecological state to stakeholders involved in the development of management 87 plans for coastal and marine areas. Benthic macrofauna has been considered as a 88 relevant descriptor to characterize the biological status of water bodies by the 89 European WFD (Borja, Muxika & Rodríguez, 2009; Borja, Dauer & Grémare, 2012),

90 as this compartment influences nutrient cycling, represents an important food 91 resource for higher trophic levels (Snelgrove, 1997; McLusky & Elliott, 2004), and 92 reacts rapidly to disturbances (Gray, 1997; Claudet & Fraschetti, 2010). 93 Among sublittoral macrobenthic assemblages, very shallow subtidal habitats (0-94 15m), accessible for sampling only during high tide, are often excluded from 95 sampling programmes and remain to a large extent poorly monitored (Desroy et al., 96 2002). Very shallow communities are notably characterized by high diversity and 97 productivity levels (Gray, 1997; Levinton, 2001; Snelgrove, 1999). This knowledge 98 gap and the scarcity of data constitute a serious impediment for the implementation 99 of conservation strategies (Ellis, Norkko & Thrush, 2000). 100 On the French coast of the English Channel, scientific studies have largely focused 101 on benthic communities of the main coastal bays and estuaries [e.g. Rance estuary, (Desroy & Retière, 2004), bay of Seine (Dauvin & Desroy, 2005; Desroy et al., 2007; 102 Bacouillard et al., 2020) or bay of Mont-Saint-Michel (Trigui, 2009)]. In the bay of 103 104 Saint-Brieuc (Western English Channel), the ecological state of subtidal communities 105 defined in 1987 by Gros & Hamon (1988) has never been updated, contrasting with 106 the monitoring strategy deployed in the adjacent intertidal area, partially protected 107 since 1998 by a National Nature Reserve primarily devoted to the conservation of 108 birds and, *de facto*, to benthic habitats (Sturbois et al., under review). This shallow 109 subtidal area, belonging to the "Baie de Saint-Brieuc – Est" Natura 2000 site, 110 supports intense fishing activities (dominated by scallop dredging) and mussel rope 111 culture. 112 Historical data are rare in this very shallow area, and limited to the ecological 113 assessment carried out in 1987 by Gros & Hamon (1988) and to the WFD monitoring 114 conducted at one station from 2005 to 2019.

This study, based on a resampling of the stations sampled in 1987 in the bay of
Saint-Brieuc and on the WFD long-term monitoring of the benthic assemblage at one
shallow station, aims to analyse taxonomic and functional trajectories of benthic

118 assemblages in order to: (1) detect patterns of changes over the last 30 years at 119 different spatial scales using the 38 stations sampled in 1987 and 2019, and (2) 120 analyse recent dynamics at one station sampled yearly from 2005 to 2019 as part of 121 the WFD monitoring programme. As single or multiple disturbances differently affect 122 species composition and structure, temporal changes of the benthic community were 123 tracked, both with α and β -diversity metrics (Ellis, Norkko & Thrush, 2000; Cimon & 124 Cusson, 2018). In accordance with Dornelas et al. (2013), Magurran et al. (2019), 125 and Yang (2020) recommendations to develop new multivariate metrics devoted to 126 the study of temporal ecological changes and response to disturbance (Cimon & 127 Cusson, 2018), we specifically focused on taxonomic and functional spatio-temporal 128 trajectories coupling classic multivariate analysis with the recent Community 129 Trajectory Analysis framework (De Cáceres et al., 2019; Sturbois et al., 2021), finally discussing conservation prospects for such coastal areas. 130

131

132 2. Material and methods

133 **2.1. Study area**

134 Fieldwork was conducted in the bay of Saint-Brieuc (France, Figure 1). The study 135 area encloses 11,700 ha of very shallow soft-bottom sediments. The bay is under the 136 influence of a semi-diurnal megatidal regime. Tidal range varies between 4 m at neap 137 tides and nearly 13 m during spring tides. Despite bordering the National Nature 138 Reserve of the bay of Saint-Brieuc and partially belonging to the Natura 2000 "Baie 139 de Saint-Brieuc-Est" site (FR5300066), the study area is exposed to a number of 140 anthropogenic pressures including mussel culture, scallop dredging and 141 eutrophication. Mussels are farmed on bouchots (wooden poles, Figure 1) in the 142 north-eastern part of the intertidal area, occupying 277 ha and 312 ha in 1987 and 143 2019, respectively (Sturbois et al., under review) and are also farmed on ropes in the 144 western part of the study area, around stations 81, 99 and 100. The sea bed is also

145 exposed to long-term scallop dredging activities as the bay of Saint-Brieuc is 146 characterized by the highest fishing pressure in Brittany (Appendix A-1). Regulation 147 changes have led, since 2010, to the concentration of dredging, at the beginning of 148 the fishing season, in areas colonized by the the non-indigenous slipper limpet 149 Crepidula fornicata (Appendix A-2). The bay also suffers from eutrophication 150 resulting in macroalgae proliferation and cyclic green tides episodes (Charlier et al., 151 2007; Gravier, 2012), which notably impact fishes nursery grounds (Le Luherne et 152 al., 2016, 2017) and influence the dynamics of some intertidal benthic populations of 153 invertebrates of the intertidal area (Sturbois et al., under review).

154 2.2. Field sampling

155 Benthic macrofauna was sampled at 38 stations during winter (March) in 1987 and 156 2019 (ResTroph research programme) following the grid (Figure 1) and the protocol 157 defined in 1987 by Gros & Hamon (1988). During both surveys, five replicates were 158 collected at each station with a small Hamon grab (1/8m²) for macrobenthos 159 analyses. The grab contents were gently sieved on board either through 1) a 2 mm 160 circular mesh sieve (1 replicate) to describe benthic assemblages, or through 2) a 5 161 mm circular mesh sieve (4 replicates) to specifically analyse bivalve populations. The 162 retained material was preserved for analysis in 5% buffered formaldehyde. Only the 163 replicate sieved on a 2 mm mesh was used for the long-term comparison of the 164 benthic community. Two samples of sediment were collected in one additional grab 165 using a handcorer, and subsequently analysed for grain size distribution and organic 166 matter content respectively. All replicates were collected at a maximal distance of 50 167 m from each station, using DGPS position-fixing. As part of the ecological status 168 monitoring, one station (R) was additionally sampled yearly (nine replicates, 169 following national recommendation of the REBENT benthic network as part of the 170 WFD) in March from 2005 to 2019, with a Smith McIntyre grab (0.1 m²), and sieved

171 on 1 mm circular mesh sieve. Data at station R were used to assess the year-to-year

172 variability of taxonomic and functional diversity at this site.

173

174 **2.3. Laboratory analyses**

175 Macrofauna was identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level (usually species 176 level), counted, and abundances were standardized to 1 m². Taxon names follow the 177 World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS Editorial Board, 2020). 178 For granulometric analysis, sediment was desalted with fresh water and left to settle 179 for 48 h. Sediment was then dried at 60°C for 48 h and sieved through AFNOR 180 standard sieves, before weighing. Organic matter content was determined after 181 drying (60°C for 48 h) and combustion of sediment at 550 °C for 4 h (Salonen, 1979; 182 Hedges & Stern, 1984).

183

184 **2.4. Traits collection**

185 The functional dataset was composed of six traits representing a total of 25 186 categories (Appendix B). These traits characterized the morphology (body size, 187 flexibility, fragility) and behaviour (feeding behaviour, living habit, tolerance to organic 188 enrichment) (Degen & Faulwetter, 2019). This set of traits is related to vulnerability to 189 mechanical disturbance (fishing activities), and to tolerance to organic enrichment 190 (eutrophication) and was chosen to analyse functional changes in benthic fauna, in 191 relation to the main pressures identified in the study area. Information was collected 192 from primary literature on specific taxa, expert knowledge and the databases 193 polytraits (http://polytraits.lifewatchgreece.eu), the World Register of Marine Species 194 (WoRMS Editorial Board, 2020), and Biological Trait Information Catalogue (BIOTIC, 195 http://www.marlin.ac.uk/biotic/). Scores were attributed to species according to their 196 affinity to each category of traits using a fuzzy coding from 0 (no affinity) to 3 (high 197 affinity) (Chevene, Doleadec & Chessel, 1994). Community-weighted trait values

(CWMs) were calculated to characterize the functional community structure for bothdatasets (Ricotta & Moretti, 2011).

200

201 2.5. Data analysis

Long-term (38 stations, 1987 vs 2019) and inter-annual (station R; 2005 to 2019)

203 datasets were analysed to track for taxonomic and functional changes. The study

204 focused specifically on the analysis of ecological trajectories depicted at different

temporal scales taking the advantage of both data sets: 32 year long-term

206 comparison vs 15 year long-term series. All statistical analyses were performed with

- 207 R 4.0 (R Development Core Team, 2020).
- 208

209 2.5.1 Sedimentary dataset

Statistical description of sediments, based on grain-size distributions, was computed
with the R package 'G2Sd' (Fournier, Gallon & Paris, 2014). Sediment characteristics

and changes were described from ten sedimentary parameters and tested with a

213 Wilcoxon paired-test: organic matter content (OMC), mean and median (d50) particle

size, gravel (> 2mm), coarse sand (2mm to 500µm), fine sand (250 to 125 µm), very

fine sand (125 to 63μ m), and mud (< 63μ m) contents (%).

216

217 2.5.2 Taxonomic α-diversity

- 218 In order to assess the different components of taxonomic α -diversity, the mean
- 219 number of individuals per m² (N), species richness (S), Shannon-Weaver index (H'),
- 220 Simpson index (D) and Pielou's species evenness (J) were calculated for each
- station (2 mm circular mesh sieve) prior to any transformations of the dataset.

222 2.5.3 Spatial and temporal taxonomic clustering

Hierarchical Cluster Analyses (HCA) were performed on both taxonomic datasets to

distinguish benthic assemblages (i.e. stations/surveys groups) by using the Hellinger

- distance between each pair of samples/dates (Legendre & Gallagher, 2001) and by
- 226 applying the Ward's clustering method. The indicator value method (Indval) was
- 227 performed for characterizing assemblages (Dufrene & Legendre, 1997).
- 228

229 2.5.4 Detecting trajectory patterns

On ResTroph and WFD datasets, PCAs were performed on Hellinger-transformed data and followed by Community Trajectory Analysis (CTA). CTA is based on geometrical properties of ecological trajectories (De Cáceres et al., 2019). The original framework and its new extension (Sturbois et al., 2021) were used to study and represent temporal changes at the station scale taking into account all the dimensions of the multivariate analysis through trajectories of surveys in the multivariate space.

237 Long-term comparison. Net changes between 1987 and 2019 were calculated to

analyse trajectories considering the 1987 data set as the initial state. Dissimilarities

239 between ecological trajectories were calculated to test their resemblance (De

240 Cáceres et al., 2019) and underline potential spatial patterns in temporal variations

241 with HCAs. 1) For taxonomic trajectories, the Indicator value method (Dufrene &

Legendre, 1997) was performed on taxonomic trajectories clusters to test differences

between 1987 and 2019. 2) For functional trajectories, the relative contribution of all

244 categories of functional traits between 1987 and 2019 were compared for each

245 functional trajectory cluster and tested at the scale of the whole community (paired

samples Student's permutation tests; p-value < 0.05).

247 Inter-annual dynamics. For the long-term WFD dataset (yearly sampling from 2005 to

248 2019), Trajectory segments lengths (*i.e.* S1=2005 to 2006, S2=2006 to

249 2007,...S14=2018 to 2019), Net change, Directionality and Net change ratio were

250 calculated. Recovering (station returning toward an initial ecological state) and

251 departing (station for which change increased over time) consecutive trajectory

252 segments were identified by subtracting Net change n-1 by Net change n (Sturbois et253 al., 2021).

254

255 **2.5.5 Relation between taxonomic structure and environmental and spatial**

256 variables

257 Multi-collinearity in sedimentary variables was detected with the Variable Inflation

258 Factors methods (VIF). Variables characterized by highest VIF were excluded for

259 further analysis. (1) Redundancy analyses (RDA) was performed to determine the

260 part of variance respectively explained by sedimentary variables in the taxonomic

261 Restroph dataset (Blanchet, Legendre & Borcard, 2008). When significant, (2) a

forward selection was used to test the significance of each variable. (3) Linear and

263 non-linear multi-scale structures of the spatial model were analysed and a linear

spatial model was performed to determine the variance explained by spatial variables

265 (Legendre & Legendre, 2012). (4) A variation partitioning analysis was undertaken to

assess the variation explained and shared by sedimentary and spatial variables

267 (Legendre & Legendre, 2012).

268

269 2.5.6 Species changes in bivalve populations

270 The evolution of the abundance (raw data) of the main bivalve species (four

271 replicates sieved on 5 mm circular mesh) was analysed and differences were tested

with paired samples Student's permutation tests (p-value < 0.05).

273

274 3. Results

275 3.1 General description of sediment

276 Sediments were dominated by sands in 1987 (74.33% ± 12.85, mean +/- sd) and

277 2019 (78.74% ± 12.35) (Appendix C). Fine sands (125-250 μm) were the most

- represented sedimentary class in both years ($42.34\% \pm 17.92$ in 1987; $46.60\% \pm$
- 279 17.99 in 2019). Mud content significantly decreased in 79 % of stations (-11.12% ±

- 286 Sediment properties at station R varied inter-annually (Appendix D): after a first
- 287 period of high inter-annual variability between 2005 and 2014, sediment
- granulometry was less variable from 2015 onward.

289 3.2 General description of the macrofauna

290 Overall, 208 taxa were collected on the 2mm mesh size sieves (with 72 taxa common

to both datasets). Between 1987 and 2019, 57 taxa were lost and 79 taxa gained.

292 Macrofauna was dominated by annelids, molluscs and crustaceans (Appendix E). In

1987, annelids were the most numerous taxonomic group (9344 ind., 55.73%) ahead

of molluscs (3168 ind., 18.89%) and crustaceans (3080 ind., 18.37%). Molluscs were

the most numerous group in 2019 (6600 ind., 42.26%) ahead of annelids (6080 ind.,

296 38.93%) and crustaceans (2448 ind., 15.68%). Sipunculids, echinoderms,

297 platyhelminths and nemerteans contributed less than 5% of the total species richness

298 and abundance. H', D, J and mean Richness all slightly decreased over time while

299 total richness increased.

300 A total of 202 taxa were reported over 15 years at the station R. Richness (63.47 ±

301 11.27) and abundance (928.52 ind.m⁻² \pm 593.83) increased over the study period.

302 Annelids, molluscs and crustaceans dominated the community (Appendix E).

303 Chaetozone gibber (133.07 ind.m⁻² \pm 94.14), Varicorbula gibba (95.87 ind.m⁻² \pm

304 187.35), Aponuphis bilineata (60.07 ind.m⁻² \pm 34.39), Abra alba (44.67 ind.m⁻² \pm

305 92.79), Ampelisca sarsi (44.00 ind.m⁻² ± 128.14), Notomastus latericeus (25.67

ind.m² \pm 26.07), and Ampelisca brevicornis (24.93 ind.m² \pm 30.93) were dominant

307 over the period studied. Some of them exhibited strong temporal variations,

some especially in the second part of the time series between 2012 and 2019 (Figure 2).

Changes were observed in the contribution of the main taxonomic groups to total
local abundance between 1987 and 2019 (Figure 3, A and B): the contribution of
molluscs increased in most stations, especially in the southern part of the study area.
This change, also visible in the fauna of the station R occurred around 2015 (Figure
3, C). Before 2015, the abundance of each taxonomic group at station R was similar
to the abundances measured in 1987 at the southern stations of the bay of SaintBrieuc (stations 62 to 72).

316

317 3.3 Taxonomic clustering

318 **3.3.1 Spatial clustering in 1987 and 2019**

319 In both campaigns, HCAs separated the stations into four main clusters (i.e. benthic 320 assemblages) (Figure 4). In 1987, according to indicator values (p-value<0.05), the 321 southern assemblage I-87 was characterized by C. gibber and Sigalion mathildae, 322 species occurring in shallower fine sands (Table I). C. gibber and A. bilineata were 323 the most abundant species. Assemblage II-87, mainly located in western muddy-324 sands, was characterized by A. brevicornis and V. gibba and dominated by A. 325 brevicornis and Euclymene oerstedii. Assemblage III-87, mainly located in the central 326 part of the study area, occurred in muddy heterogeneous sediment. It was 327 characterized by Ampharete spp. and dominated by Ampharete spp. and Crepidula 328 fornicata. Assemblage IV-87 was located in the north of the study area, characterized 329 by Nototropis vedlomensis and N. latericeus, and dominated by N. latericeus and 330 Nucula hanleyi.

331 In 2019, the southern cluster was the most widespread assemblage (I-19, 19 332 stations), occurring in fine to muddy sands located between the southern and the 333 central part of the study area. It was characterized by V. gibba and Phyllodoce 334 groenlandica and dominated by V. gibba and A. tenuicornis. Assemblage II-19, 335 occurring at nine stations mainly located in the northern-central part, was 336 characterized by Nephtys hombergii and dominated by N. latericeus and V. gibba. 337 Assemblage III-19 (6 stations) was identified in muddy heterogeneous sediments in 338 the north and central parts, and typified by C. fornicata and P. maximus and 339 dominated by C. fornicata and N. latericeus. Assemblage IV-19 was characterized 340 and dominated by *Timoclea ovata* and *N. hanleyi* and limited to four north-western 341 stations.

Species diversity was variable among assemblages (Table I). In 2019, the lowest H'
values were observed in assemblages I-19 and IV-19. Temporal changes in the
distribution of assemblages were concentrated in the southern part of the bay (Figure
4). The overall diversity (H', D, J) decreased in the shallower parts, as a
consequence of the increase of *V. gibba*, and shallower bottoms gradually
homogenised as showed by the assemblage I-19 distribution (50% of stations).

348 3.3.1 Temporal clustering from 2005 to 2019

349 The HCA performed on the station R dataset separated three clusters (Table II). 350 Cluster I, composed of seven years, was characterized by Caulleriella alata and 351 Edwardsia claparedii. Cluster II (4 years) was characterized by Cirratulidae spp. and 352 Tritia varicosa. Cluster III, composed of four of the most recent surveys (2015, 2017, 2018, 2019), was typified by Calyptraea chinensis and Spisula elliptica. C. gibber, A. 353 354 bilineata and Ampelisca spp. remained in the first five highest-ranking species in 355 terms of abundance over the entire study period, and V. gibba and A. alba became 356 dominant during the more recent surveys. Taxonomic diversity indices were quite

357 stable between clusters except richness and abundance, which increased during

358 recent observations (cluster III, Table II).

359

360 **3.4 Species changes in bivalve populations**

361 The abundance (Table III) and distribution (Appendix F) of the main bivalve species

362 changed over time. Significant increases in abundance were detected for Varicorbula

363 gibba, Anomia ephippium, Bosemprella incarnata, Moerella donacina, Nucula

364 hanleyi, Nucula nitidosa, Timoclea ovata and Pecten maximus. Inversely Polititapes

365 rhomboides and to a lesser extent Fabulina fabula decreased significantly over time.

366

367 **3.5 Detecting trajectory patterns**

368

3.5.1 Taxonomic trajectories

369 Long-term comparison. All sampling stations were characterised by taxonomic

370 changes over time (Figure 5, A). Mean net change (± sd) calculated on the 38

371 stations was variable spatially (15.5 \pm 2.23), ranging from 11.4 (station 74) to 21.5

372 (station 104). The HCA performed on CTA analysis of trajectory similarities

373 separated four clusters according to the shape of taxonomic trajectories (Figure 5, A,

B and C). Cluster A was composed of 20 stations describing the evolution from an

assemblage dominated by Ampharete spp. and A. brevicornis in 1987 to an

assemblage dominated by *V. gibba* and *C. fornicata* in 2019. Cluster B grouped 13

377 stations characterized by A. bilineata in 1987 and V. gibba in 2019. A shift between

the dominant species A. brevicornis and A. bilineata (1987) to V. gibba and A.

379 tenuicornis (2019) was observed. Mean net changes (± se) were slightly lower in

cluster B (16.59 \pm 1.09) than in cluster A (20.35 \pm 0.66). The two other clusters

381 characterized a limited number of specific trajectories exhibiting longer trajectory path

in the north part of the study area (stations 105 and 106, and 107,104 and 94).

Most stations encountered similar changes in the multivariate space, as indicated by the similar trajectory directions. Direction (i.e. specific initial and final composition) and trajectory length seemed mainly responsible for the separation of clusters. The convergence of most trajectories, especially from clusters A and B, which grouped 87 % of trajectories, illustrate an homogenization over time with respect to the ecological state described in 1987.

389

390 Inter-annual dynamics. A first period from 2005 to 2014 was characterized by lower 391 net changes than measured at the end of the time series, indicating a greater stability 392 during this first period as underlined by consecutive departing and recovering 393 patterns. This period was followed by a recent period of higher variability in 394 composition and characterized by higher net change values (Figure 6, A). Even if C. 395 gibber and A. bilineata remained among the five most dominant species, the 396 trajectory underlined 1) the shift in dominance by different Ampelisca spp. Species, 397 and 2) the dominance of V. gibba and A. alba in recent surveys (Table II). The alternation of recovering and departing dynamics resulted in low directionality (0.359) 398 399 and low net change ratio (10.11%).

400

401

3.5.2 Functional trajectories

402 Long-term comparison. Net change was variable spatially (7.94 ± 2.53) , ranging from 403 3.97 (station 87) to 15.24 (station 88). The HCA performed on CTA analysis of 404 trajectory similarities separated three clusters of functional trajectories (Figure 7, A, B 405 and C). Trajectory length and direction were mainly responsible for the separation of 406 clusters. Cluster E grouped 27 stations (7.34 ± 0.36) which highest net change 407 values were mainly located in the southern part of the study area, and were 408 characterized by a decrease in the relative contribution of the following categories: 1) 409 medium size, flexible, fragile; and 2) tubiculous, burrowers and tolerant species. 410 Simultaneously, the contribution of suspension-feeders, predators and scavengers

411 increased, as well as rigid, robust, and large and small species. Free-living species 412 became dominant and the contribution of second-order opportunistic species 413 increased. Cluster F grouped six trajectories characterized by higher net changes 414 (10.59 ± 1.64) . The main functional changes consisted in a decrease of deposit-415 feeders, tubiculous, and flexible and fragile species. This group of trajectories was 416 specifically characterized by an important increase of CWM values of very sensitive 417 species, and attached species mainly represented by A. ephippium. Cluster G 418 characterized five trajectories (7.96 ± 0.79) . In addition to a similar pattern 419 concerning deposivorous and tubiculous species, these trajectories were specifically characterized by an increase in the contribution of predator, flexible, fragile, and 420 421 burrowing species and a decrease of rigid, suspension-feeders and tolerant species. 422 At the scale of the whole area including all stations, a similar global pattern was 423 observed (Figure 8). Compared to 1987, the community was dominated by 424 suspension-feeders and free-living species in 2019. Even if significant functional 425 shifts in morphologic traits were observed over time, the fauna remained dominated 426 by medium size, flexible and fragile species. According to the tolerance to nutrient 427 enrichment trait, fauna remained dominated by very sensitive and indifferent species. 428 Inter-annual dynamics. Functional net change increased over time (Figure 6, B). 429 Different categories of traits influenced the functional stability: axis I (41.4%) opposed 430 organisms filter feeders, living free, rigid and robust to organisms deposit feeders, 431 living in tubes and highly flexible (Appendix H). The alternation of recovering and 432 departing dynamics resulted in low directionality (0.387) and net change ratio 433 (10.04%).

434

435 3.6 Relation between taxonomic structure and environmental and spatial
436 variables

437 According to the VIF analysis, coarse sand and mean particle size were excluded438 from the following analysis. The part of the variance explained by sedimentary

439 variables was higher in 1987 (R²adj=0.177; F=2.547; Pr(>F)=0.001) than in 2019 440 (R²adj=0.055; F=1.420; Pr(>F)=0.003). Sedimentary variables characterized by finest 441 grain size were significantly correlated to the taxonomic structure in 1987: fine sand 442 (R²adj=0.157), mud (R²adj=0.123), and very fine sand (R²adj=0.059). In 2019, two 443 sedimentary variables were correlated: mud (R²adj=0.050) and D50 (R²adj=0.032). 444 A linear spatial structuration was revealed for both years (R²adj=0.089; F=2.752; 445 Pr(>F)=0.001 in 1987 vs R²adj=0.100; F=2.994; Pr(>F)=0.001 in 2019). In 1987, 446 sedimentary and spatial variables explained 12% and 5% of the variance, 447 respectively, while 4% was shared. In 2019, the part of the explained variance 448 decreased and the contribution of spatial variables was higher (sedimentary: 2%, 449 spatial: 7%, shared: 3%).

450

451 **4. Discussion**

452 **4.1 Changes probably occurred recently**

The results highlight the relevance of the Community Trajectory Analysis method to assess long-term changes in the spatial structure of benthic assemblages over the study area, based on the comparison of historical and up-to-date data in multivariate spaces.

457 Among the four taxonomic clusters identified in 2019, two of them, representing 74% 458 of stations, pointed towards a potential degradation of habitats indicated by 1) the 459 numerical increase of the opportunistic species V. gibba, and 2) the lower species 460 diversity in one of the two assemblages. This was further confirmed by the analysis 461 of trajectory similarity, which revealed that 87% of the stations (clusters A and B) 462 were notably characterized by increases in the density of V. gibba from 1987 to 2019. 463 At the scale of the study area, however, decreases of β species diversity remained 464 very moderate (Appendix E). 465 Inter-annual dynamics at station R suggests that these changes are very recent 466 (Figure 3). The lower variability observed at station R from 2005 to 2014 may depict

467 natural dynamics, while recent changes since 2015 seem driven by a strong and 468 cumulative disturbance regime. The recent shift in the taxonomic multivariate 469 structure was driven by variations in the abundance of a few dominant species, 470 among which V. gibba, A. alba, C. chinensis and S. elliptica. Interestingly, although 471 benthic communities were highly variable over the last five years, sediment 472 properties and organic matter content did not exhibit such variability, suggesting that 473 the recent pattern in benthic community structure may not be strictly related to habitat 474 characteristics.

475

476 4.2 Functional shifts

477 Ecological processes shaping energy flows in ecosystems are induced by a complex

478 feedback system reflecting species adaption to their environment, while the

479 environment is, in turn, constantly modified by biological activities (Levins &

480 Lewontin, 1985; Díaz & Cabido, 2001; Pacheco et al., 2011).

481 Trait-based approaches have been widely used to characterize functional shifts, in

response to different natural or human disturbance context (Thrush & Dayton, 2002;

483 van Denderen et al., 2015; Bolam et al., 2017). The use of biological traits is

484 expected to provide a good view of functional shifts over space and time (Pacheco et

al., 2011). In our study, traits were chosen to assess the potential impacts of 1)

486 fishing activities (size, flexibility, fragility, habitats, feeding habits) and 2) organic

487 matter enrichment (tolerance, feeding habits).

488

489 *Fishing activities.* Trawling and dredging fishing activities are responsible of many

490 impacts on the seabed, such as the modification of benthic communities and

491 sedimentary habitats (Newell, Seiderer & Hitchcock, 1998; Ellis, Norkko & Thrush,

492 2000; Thrush & Dayton, 2002; Eigaard et al., 2017). Watling & Norse (1998)

493 compared the consequences of disturbance induced on the seabed by mobile fishing

494 gear to forest clear cutting. Scallop dredging in the Irish Sea has been shown to

495 significantly modify benthic communities and *P. maximus* populations under 496 experimental and commercial fishing pressure conditions (Bradshaw et al., 2001). 497 Dredging activities tend to modify the structure of mounds, tubes, and burrows 498 created by organisms living on the sediment surface, and limit small scale habitat 499 structure heterogeneity (Thrush & Dayton, 2002). As underlined by Gray et al. 500 (2006), the homogenization of heterogeneous habitats and the reduction of three-501 dimensional structures above and below the sediment-water interface constitute one 502 of the most damaging effects of fishing activities. 503 In our study, current functional shifts within assemblages led to a relative dominance 504 of robust, rigid and free living species which suggests selective mortality processes 505 of fragile, flexible, and sedentary species due to fishing pressure and human 506 disturbances (Constantino et al., 2009; Duplisea et al., 2002; Jennings et al., 2001; 507 Kaiser et al., 2006; Pedersen et al., 2009). Despite concentrating the highest scallop 508 dredging pressure in Brittany (Appendix A-1), no accurate spatio-temporal 509 assessment of fishing pressure is available for the bay of Saint-Brieuc. The existence 510 of a potential impact of fishing activities on macrobenthos may seem at odds with the 511 increase of suspension-feeder abundances over time in the study area. Van 512 Denderen et al. (2015) studied benthic functional response to fishing activities 513 according to natural disturbance regimes. They showed that fishing impacts are 514 smaller or absent in areas exposed to high natural disturbance, leading to the 515 hypothesis that, depending on local hydrodynamics, natural and fishing disturbances 516 may affect benthic communities in similar ways. The local wave regime has been 517 broadly stable over the last 30 years (SHOM, Appendix H) ruling out a strong 518 influence of hydrodynamics on the observed patterns.

519 Overall sedimentary changes may also have contributed to the decrease of deposit-520 feeders in the study area, as dredging activities are known to homogenise the 521 sediment. Mengual et al. (2019, 2016) showed for example an overall erosion of

522 muddy areas in the bay of Biscay in relation with fishing activities, and a coarsening 523 trend of surface sediments (5cm). Morys, Brüchert & Bradshaw (2021) showed a 524 significant decrease of surface organic matter content in a recent experimentation 525 about the impact of bottom trawling on benthic biogeochemistry. Such organic matter 526 content decrease were observed at station R from 2014 (Appendix D). In our study, 527 sedimentary parameters partly shaped the taxonomic multivariate structure of the 528 benthic community, but the amount of explained variance decreased between 1987 529 and 2019 indicating that sedimentary variables explain only a limited part of the 530 observed changes.

531

532 Organic enrichment. The positive functional shift observed for second-order 533 opportunistic species, and particularly V.gibba, seems to indicate an impact of 534 organic matter enrichment in accordance with Hrs-Brenko (2006) who suggested that 535 eutrophication increases the fecundity of V. gibba. During our study, small individuals 536 of V. gibba were observed attached with their byssus to drifting Ulva sp., suggesting 537 (1) a potential influence of algal mats offering new attachment substrates for early 538 recruitment stages and (2) individuals could drift when attached to algal mats, hence 539 facilitating the colonization of new areas. In the western English Channel, 540 eutrophication can also extend the spawning season of Abra alba (Dauvin & Gentil, 541 1989) which could be partly responsible for the high abundance of A. alba observed 542 at station R in 2015 and 2017. Local disturbance, predation/competition, and climatic 543 factors are also known to control A. alba populations (Dauvin et al., 1993). The 544 persistence of the observed changes needs to be confirmed as A. alba and V. gibba 545 are known to present high population variations in such soft-bottom communities 546 (Cabioch, 1968), however, such high inter-annual variability was not observed until 547 the mid 2010s.

548 Despite the fact the positive shift of second-order species was mainly driven by V. 549 gibba, the community was still dominated by species very sensitive to nutrient 550 enrichment in 2019, some molluscs having increased in abundance and occurrence 551 (B. incarnata, Laevicardium crassum, T. ovata, M. donacina, N. hanleyi, P. 552 maximus). The diversity of temporal dynamics suggests a complex gradient of 553 sensitivity to organic matter enrichment and the implication of additional driving 554 factors. Indeed, (1) discards from scallop dredging could promote opportunistic 555 species and scavengers leading to increases in their abundances (Depestele et al., 2019) and (2) by capturing nutrients, green tides are particularly suspected to buffer 556 557 the influence of nutrient enrichment on macrofauna as discussed by Ponsero & Le 558 Mao (2011) and Sturbois et al. (under review) concerning the neighbouring intertidal 559 area.

560

As in other ecosystems impacted by anthropogenic activities, changes observed in
the bay of Saint-Brieuc result from different pressures acting simultaneously at
different spatio-temporal scales.

564 The selective mortality of fragile, flexible, tubiculous and burrower organisms 565 suggests the influence of a physical disturbance. As wave regime was stable over 566 the survey period (SHOM: Supplementary material, Appendix H), dredging activities 567 appear as the most likely factor of disturbance. The magnitude of fishing influence is 568 difficult to assess because of the lack of accurate data concerning dredging pressure. 569 However, changes in fisheries regulations (i.e. fishing ground zonation) in 2010 and 570 2017, coupled to an increase in the P. maximus population, has led to an increase of 571 scallop dredging activities and inherent mechanical disturbances of the seabed and 572 associated benthic macrofauna. Nutrient enrichment probably drove the ecological 573 response of the primary disturbed benthic assemblages by the stimulation of 574 opportunistic-species, and concomitantly other suspension-feeder species. Climate

575 change occurring at a larger scale, combined with the aforementioned local factors of

576 disturbance, may also jointly control some other bivalve's populations.

577

578 **4.3 Regional scale insights**

579 Recent fishing ground assessments have shown an important increase in the 580 populations of *P. maximus* from the English channel, and particularly in the 581 Normano-Breton gulf where landings have increased from 1200 tons in 1989 to an 582 average of 7000 tons since the early 2000s (Foucher et al., 2015; Foucher, 2017; Le 583 Mao et al., 2019). Over the last ten years, P. maximus densities across all age 584 classes have increased in the lowest levels of the intertidal area (pers. obs.) 585 suggesting a similar scenario in shallow bottoms between the low water mark and a 586 depth of 5 m. The management of *P. maximus* populations by fishermen in 587 collaboration with scientists, as well as climate change, have favoured this stock 588 increase (Shephard et al., 2010). Fishing activities in the bay, associated to 589 recruitment fluctuations, may be involved in the drastic decline of other bivalve 590 populations, such as Polititapes rhomboides, which was commercially harvested in 591 the Bay until recently (Huet & Pitel, 2006). 592 Among other bivalve species, Moerella donacina and to a lesser extent Timoclea 593 ovata increased in abundance and occurrence. These trends are congruent with 594 those reported by Gaudin et al. (2018) who tracked changes in response to climate

change in the English Channel. They notably showed, between the 1960s and 2014,

596 important and moderate increases in occurrence and eastward movements of

597 populations (i.e. tracking colder conditions) for *M. donacina* and *T.ovata*,

respectively. Climate change (temperature increase) is also suspected to be

responsible for changes in the abundance of Albra alba at station R [Dauvin et al.,

1993 ; Thiébaut & Houbin (comm. pers.)], and of Limecola balthica in the nearby

601 intertidal mudflats of the bay of Saint-Brieuc (Sturbois et al., under review).

602 In the past decades, the slipper limpet Crepidula fornicata has progressively become 603 an important component of soft-bottom benthic ecosystems in the English channel 604 (Blanchard et al., 2001; Blanchard, 2005). Total stock reached an estimated 450000 605 tons in the bays of Saint-Brieuc and Mont Saint-Michel in the early 2000s (Blanchard 606 & Hamon, 2006). Current trends are not documented, except in the bay of Brest, 607 where Blanchet-Aurigny et al. (2012) reported that historical Crepidula fornicata beds 608 are currently mainly made up of dead shells. In our study, a decrease in the mean 609 density C. fornicata was observed (40.21 ind.m⁻² \pm 182.42 in 1987 vs 21.11 ind.m⁻² \pm 610 48.46 in 2019), but this overall trend is driven by change observed at a single station 611 (105), while densities remained stable for the rest of the bay.

612

613 4.4 What conservation perspectives for such coastal areas?

Among the different species sampled in this study, *V. gibba* experienced the
strongest increase in abundance, especially in the southern part of the study area. *V. gibba* is considered as an indicator of environmental instability whose strong increase
across Europe has been largely associated to disturbances (Hrs-Brenko, 2006),
particularly pollution and sedimentary instability (Pearson & Rosenberg, 1978; SalenPicard, 1981; FAO & UNEP, 1985; Pranovi, Da Ponte & Torricelli, 2007). Unstable
conditions have been reported to promote *V. gibba* populations (Rosenberg, 1977;

621 Pranovi, Giovanardi & Franceschini, 1998). Cabioch (1968) already noted an

alternation between *V. gibba* and *A. alba* abundance peaks in the Western English

623 channel, similar to what we observed at station R.

High larval settlement of *V. gibba* is known to frequently appear after catastrophic

events (Hrs-Brenko, 2006). This species, which grows rapidly (Jensen, 1990), shows

- 626 strong survival capacity to different abiotic (resistant to pollution, turbidity, hypoxia,
- and sedimentation) and biotic stressors. In Australia, where this species is invasive,
- dramatic rises in abundance can have negative effects on the growth rate of *Pecten*
- 629 fumatus juveniles, a commercial species, as demonstrated experimentally by Talman

& Keough (2001). The bay of Saint-Brieuc, which suffers from eutrophication (but
without hypoxic episodes) and supports intensive scallop dredging activities, appears
to be a favourable area for the proliferation of this species.

633 The massive recruitment of V. gibba also characterizes the pioneer stages of benthic 634 community dynamics following a perturbation (Pranovi, Giovanardi & Franceschini, 635 1998). Bonvicini-Pagliai & Serpagli (1988) called this species "a time recorder of 636 environmental stress". As a dominant suspension-feeder, with rapid juvenile and 637 adult growth, V. gibba plays an important role in the food web by transfering pelagic 638 production to the benthic compartment (Hrs-Brenko, 2006). Once the disturbance 639 regime decreases, biotic interactions will progressively regulate V. gibba populations 640 (Olafsson, Peterson & Ambrose, 1994). Knowledge on the level of disturbance 641 required for the persistence of an abundant V. gibba population and its ability to increase in abundance in the absence of a primary disturbance factor is crucial to 642 643 disentangle effects of natural and anthropogenic factors (Australian government, 644 2008).

When developing management plans for marine areas and benthic resources,
stakeholders must consider that benthic communities have the capacity to adapt to a
predictable and moderate level of anthropogenic disturbance. However, there is a
threshold beyond which populations, even composed of 'resistant' species, will
collapse and cause the impoverishment of communities, with loss of major ecological
functions and inevitable negative feedbacks, even on target species (Pranovi,
Giovanardi & Franceschini, 1998).

The ecological state defined in 1987 does not constitute a reference state, and even less a conservation target, as nutrient enrichment and fishing pressures were probably already well established. CTA could bring new perspectives to the assessment of the ecological distance between current and reference status (Borja, Dauer & Grémare, 2012), by measuring net changes with respect to a predefined

657 reference state. Ideally, such ecological baseline should be defined within an 658 ecological entity, in unaffected areas. In the absence of a local pristine state, or of an 659 ecological state that could be considered as a conservation target, it should be 660 possible to include in the analysis data from similar ecosystems located in the same 661 region to define a reference state in the multivariate space (e.g. a centroid of 662 samples considered as a potential conservation target, including natural variability). 663 Net change calculations over time, with respect to the reference status, may allow 664 the accurate measurement of the restoration process through recovering trajectories. 665 The definition of conservation targets in multivariate spaces could underline the degradation level, with respect to historical data, and help local governance adapt 666 667 management perspectives.

668 Activities with potentially conflicting goals are concentrated in the "Baie de Saint-Brieuc-Est" Natura 2000 site with fishing on the one hand and benthic habitat 669 670 conservation on the other. The assessment of fishing impacts on Natura 2000 sites 671 require high-resolution spatial environmental data, including distribution of natural 672 habitats and species, as well as fine-scale data on the distribution of ongoing fishing 673 activities that overlap with high-value conservation zones (Pedersen et al., 2009; 674 AFB et al., 2019; Lusenius, H. et al., 2019). In this context, this study (1) underlines 675 the value of historical data, even if they do not constitute a pristine state and the 676 limitations in their use as conservation targets, (2) provides up-to-date information 677 about the distribution of benthic assemblages and associated species, and (3) 678 confirms the necessity of measuring the fishing pressure to correctly interpret 679 changes in marine ecosystems attributable to human activities. In our study, the use 680 of the station R data set was essential to the better understanding of long-term 681 changes observed between only two sampling dates (1987 vs 2019). It confirms that 682 the coupling of different spatial and temporal scales in any sampling strategy [few 683 stations with high frequency sampling (Hewitt, Ellis & Thrush, 2016) vs low frequency 684 larger sampling networks (Kröncke et al., 2011)] helps to track changes between

long-term sampling networks as suggested by Bacouillard et al. (2020) and Callaway
(2016) and that the development of such monitoring strategy is important for the
future.

688 This study clearly suffers from the lack of knowledge concerning fishing pressure and 689 potential control areas free of fishing impacts. Unfortunately, there is no area free of 690 dredging activity in the study site or in peripheral areas. Alternatives to characterize 691 the impact of fishing activities in the study area could consist in studying the 692 response of benthic communities to a gradient of fishing pressures as proposed by 693 van Denderen et al. (2015), or within an experimental area closed to commercial 694 fishing as tested by Bradshaw et al. (2001). Further work is needed to 1) quantify 695 fishing efforts in the shallow area (via abrasion maps) as such accurate information is 696 lacking, and 2) design a strategy based on the comparison between dredged and un-697 dredged areas.

698 Overall, access to highly resolved information about fishing activities is paramount to 699 help understand changes in benthic communities and distinguish the impact of 700 fishing activities and other driving factors (nutrient enrichment, sediment instability, 701 climate change) on benthic communities. Up-to-date documented reports on 702 ecological changes and conservation status must be shared with stakeholders to 703 effectively inform public debates (Eastwood et al., 2007; Pedersen et al., 2009). 704 Consultation processes should involve policy makers, members of fishing institutions, 705 fishermen, environmental organizations, and managers of Marine Protected Areas 706 (MPAs) when present. This step should ideally lead to the implementation of fishery 707 management measures to reduce threats, and achieve conservation objectives 708 (Pedersen et al., 2009; AFB et al., 2019; Lusenius, H. et al., 2019). 709 Although progress in expanding the coverage of MPAs has been made, the 710 application of management tools has not yet been implemented in most of these 711 areas (Torriente et al., 2019). Conservation of the marine environment is effectively a 712 relatively new phenomenon and is currently playing 'catch-up' with its terrestrial

713 counterpart where protected areas have been established for many decades (Morris 714 et al., 2014). Despite the need for a worldwide improvement in the designation and 715 management processes of marine areas, it has already been demonstrated that local 716 human impacts on the marine environment could be effectively reduced within 717 networks of Natura 2000 and Marine protected Areas (Fraschetti et al., 2018; Zupan 718 et al., 2018). Management plans are recommended for Natura 2000 sites but are not 719 mandatory under the Habitats Directive. Nevertheless, they appear to be an 720 appropriate solution to reflect transparent conservation objectives (European 721 Commission, 2011). Despite their complexity, fishing regulations implemented 722 through a consultation process and management scheme have been shown to 723 represent win-win scenarios between economic and conservation goals in different 724 marine protected areas around the world (N2K group, 2018). In the bay of Saint-725 Brieuc, the implementation of such win-win scenarios enabled the long-term 726 management of *P. maximus* population with benefits for the fishermen, and more 727 modestly, promoted Cockle fishing grounds (Ponsero, Dabouineau & Allain, 2009). 728 Similar trends were reported in the Irish sea by Bradshaw et al. (2001), who showed 729 positive effects of commercial fishing area closures on P. maximus (and indirectly on 730 fishermen) and on benthic communities which became more diverse.

Faced with our results, which clearly underlined a degradation of soft-bottom
macrobenthos, the ball is in stakeholder's court to integrate this new knowledge in
governance processes and impulse an ambitious conservation strategy. The
existence of a national nature reserve, strongly involved in the study, constitute a
breeding ground for such an approach.

736

737

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756 Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
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paper.

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764 Credit authorship contribution statement

765 Anthony Sturbois: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis,

- 766 Data curation, Writing original draft, Visualization, Project administration, Funding
- 767 acquisition, Investigation (Restro 19). Gaëtan Cormy: Writing review & editing,
- 768 Investigation (Restro 19). Alexandre Le Moal: Writing review & editing,
- 769 Investigation (Restro 19). Gauthier Schaal: Writing review & editing, Investigation
- 770 (Restro 19), Supervision. Caroline Broudin: Writing review & editing, Investigation
- 771 (WFD). Eric Thiébault: Writing review & editing, Investigation (WFD). Alain
- 772 **Ponsero:** Writing review & editing, Visualization, Investigation (Restro 19). **Patrick**
- 773 Le Mao: Writing review & editing, Investigation (Restro 19). Auriane Jones: Writing
- review & editing. Pascal Riera: Writing review & editing. Olivier Gauthier:
- 775 Methodology, Writing review & editing, Validation. Nicolas Desroy: Methodology,
- 776 Writing review & editing, Investigation (Restro 19), Supervision, Validation.
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1107 FIGURES ET TABLES



Figure 1: Location of the study area and sampling strategy. Black dots corresponds to the 38
stations of the ResTroph research program sampled in 1987 and 2019 and white one (station
R) to the Water Framework Directive (WFD) monitoring program conducted from 2005 to
2019. Water depth is represented by dotted (0 m) and continuous lines (5 and 10 m) and
mussel bouchots and ropes by polygons.



1118 Figure 2: Abondance (ind.m²) of dominant species sampled at the station R





1123 Figure 3: Distribution maps of main taxonomic group with mean total abundance (m²) classes

superimposed given as the sum for 1987 and 2019. Colours represents each group: Annelids

1125 errant (blue), Annelids sedentary (light blue), Crustaceans (red), Molluscs (yellow) and

1126 Sipunculids (green). Pies section corresponds to relative abundance of each taxonomic

1127 group. A. and B. represent 1987 and 2019 ResTroph surveys and C. represents surveys

1128 conducted from 2005 to 2019 at station R.

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- 1132 Figure 4: Spatial distribution of benthic assemblages identified with Hierarchical Cluster
- 1133 Analysis of the ResTroph data set (38 stations) in 1987 and 2019.

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1168 Figure 5: Taxonomic trajectories. A.: Maps of local trajectories. Size of circles corresponds to

1169 net change between 1987 and 2019 and colours to cluster of trajectories determined by HCA

1170 on CTA trajectory similarity analysis. All the dimensions of the multivariate space were

1171 considered in net change calculation and analysis of trajectory similarities. B.: Trajectory

1172 ordination diagrams. Only two dimensions are show. C.: Characteristics of initial and final

1173 taxonomic ecological states of trajectory clusters. Taxonomic trajectory are coloured

1174 according to trajectory clusters (blue gradient).



Figure 6: Trajectory of the station R between 2005 and 2019. The origin of the ordination diagram represents the initial state characterized in 2005 after trajectory centering. Only two dimensions are shown. Points corresponds to intermediate ecological states (size= length of each state to initial state considering all PCA components) and are coloured according to time (yellow (2005) to red (2019)). Lines represents segments between transitional state. The black arrow represents the net change between 2005 and 2019.



Figure 7: Functional trajectories. A.: Maps of local trajectories. Size of circles corresponds tonet change between 1987 and 2019 and colours to cluster of trajectories determined by HCA

on CTA trajectory similarity analysis. All the dimensions of the multivariate space were
considered in net change calculation and analysis of trajectory similarities. B.: Trajectory
ordination diagrams. Only two dimensions are show. Taxonomic trajectory are coloured
according to trajectory clusters (green gradient). Characteristics of initial and final functional
ecological states of trajectory clusters are detailed in table IV. C.: Barplots of 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 CWM traits values in levels of respective categories according to year (1987: red; 2019: green). 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.

Asse	emblages	Indicator species	indval	d	Most numerous species	Mean.m² ± se	N st	s	Abund	Ŧ	٩	٦
		Chaetozone gibber	0.555	0.0006	Chaetozone gibber	42.00 ±12.98		12.25	219	2.18	0.85	0.88
		Sigalion mathildae	0.547	0.0007	Aponuphis bilineata	35.00 ±11.60		± 1.05	± 28.20	± 0.07	± 0.01	± 0.02
	1-87	Magelona filiformis	0.500	0.0016	Ampelisca brevicornis	21.00 ±6.22						
		Spiophanes bombyx	0.487	0.0032	Spiophanes bombyx	18.00 ±6.18						
		Aponuphis bilineata	0.442	0.0067	Sigalion mathildae	11.00 ±3.00						
		Ampelisca brevicornis	0.536	0.0004	Ampelisca brevicornis	145.45 ±59.49	ŧ	21.09	535.27	2.53	0.87	0.84
		Varicorbula gibba	0.470	0.0013	Euclymene oerstedii	37.09 ±14.56		± 1.79	± 88.98	± 0.01	± 0.02	± 0.03
	II-87	Ampelisca tenuicornis	0.431	0.0073	Ampelisca tenuicornis	37.09 ±11.63						
		Euclymene oerstedii	0.415	0.0143	Notomastus latericeus	36.36 ±7.50						
28		Nephtys hombergii	0.368	0.0362	Aponuphis bilineata	31.27 ±6.95						
61		Ampharete spp.	0.554	0.0005	Ampharete spp.	150.67 ±98.61	12	24.92	629.33	2.60	0.85	0.82
		Golfingia (Golfingia) elongata	0.532	0.0004	Crepidula fornicata	71.33 ±34.54		± 1.96	± 115.25	± 0.16	± 0.04	± 0.04
	III-87	Crepidula fornicata	0.443	0.0055	Notomastus latericeus	37.33 ±9.96						
		Polycirrus medusa	0.438	0.0051	Polycirrus medusa	32.00 ±9.08						
		Sthenelais boa	0.419	0.0085	Golfingia (Golfingia) elongata	21.33 ±4.33						
		Nototropis vedlomensis	0.384	0.0031	Notomastus latericeus	21.71 ±7.75	7	15.43	225.14	2.43	0.87	06.0
		Notomastus latericeus	0.357	0.0273	Nucula hanleyi	14.86 ±13.57		± 2.08	± 29.90	± 0.17	± 0.03	± 0.03
	IV-87	Hilbigneris gracilis	0.351	0.0387	Hilbigneris gracilis	12.57 ±5.20						
		Glycera capitata	0.286	0.0296	Polycirrus medusa	9.14 ±9.14						
		Protomystides bidentata	0.286	0.0293	Fabulina fabula	9.14 ±4.43						
Γ		Varicorbula dibba	0.612	0.0001	Varicorbula aibba	160.84 ±19.63	19	16.53	466.11	2.08	0.77	0.76
		Phyllodoce aroenlandica	0.368	0.0310	Ampelisca tenuicornis	64.42 ±63.54		+ 1.04	+ 74.66	+ 0.09	+ 0.02	+ 0.03
					Givcinde nordmanni	20.63 +4.07						
	RL-1				Openios no manun	10.12 00.02						
						00.42 02.11						
					Aponuprus biilneata	10.42 ±0.09						
		Nephtys hombergii	0.483	0.0004	Notomastus latericeus	29.33 ±7.06	6	18.78	352.00	2.60	06.0	06.0
					Varicorbula gibba	27.56 ±10.16		± 2.14	± 56.04	± 0.10	± 0.01	± 0.01
	II-19				Nephtys hombergii	25.78 ±5.62						
				-	Anomia ephippium	18.67 ±10.67						
61					Pista cristata	17.78 ±6.77						
50		Crepidula fornicata	0.728	0.0004	Crepidula fornicata	160.00 ±66.58	9	18.83	430.67	2.29	0.80	0.80
		Pecten maximus	0.446	0.0239	Notomastus latericeus	21.33 ±7.35		± 2.68	± 103.08	± 0.21	± 0.05	± 0.06
	III-19	Syllis garciai	0.333	0.0313	Aponuphis bilineata	16.00 ±10.93						
		Amphipholis squamata	0.333	0.0304	Nephtys hombergii	10.67 ±5.72						
		Aequipecten opercularis	0.333	0.0290	Anomia ephippium	10.67 ±9.16						
		Nucula hanleyi	0.611	0.0024	Timoclea ovata	34.00 ±28.73	4	10.50	252.00	1.97	0.81	0.85
		Timoclea ovata	0.596	0.0031	Nucula hanleyi	30.00 ±11.94		± 1.32	± 62.18	± 0.08	± 0.01	± 0.03
	IV-19	Glycera alba	0.481	0.0069	Crepidula fornicata	30.00 ±30.00						
					Notomastus latericeus	26.00 ±17.09						
					Polititapes rhomboides	18.00 ±18.00						

1278 Table I: Characteristics of assemblages identified with the Hierarchical Cluster Analysis in

1279 1987 and 2019: number of station (N st), Specific richness (S), Mean density per m² (Abund),

Shannon-Weaver Index (H), Simpson Index (D) and Pielou's evenness (J) (± standard error). 1280

Assemblages are characterised by indicative and dominant species.

1282

- 1283 Table II: Characteristics of cluster of surveys identified with the Hierarchical Cluster Analysis
- 1284 performed on the WFD data set (2005 to 2015): number of station (N st), Specific richness
- 1285 (S), Mean density per m² (Abund), Shannon-Weaver Index (H), Simpson Index (D) and
- 1286 Pielou's evenness (J) (± standard error). Assemblages are characterised by indicative and
- 1287 dominant species.

1288												
1200	Assemblages	Indicator species	indval	р	Most numerous species	Mean.m² ± se	N sv	s	Abund	н	D	J
		Caulleriella alata	0.643	0.0003	Chaetozone gibber	170.95 ± 52.62	7	62.57	647.30	3.10	0.89	0.75
		Edwardsia claparedii	0.576	0.0259	Aponuphis bilineata	52.54 ± 7.52		± 3.62	± 82.30	± 0.12	± 0.03	± 0.03
1289	в	Magelona filiformis	0.563	0.0009	Notomastus latericeus	26.51 ± 10.09						
	K-1	Scoloplos armiger	0.530	0.0023	Ampelisca brevicornis	23.02 ± 11.53						
1290		Apseudpsis latreillii	0.471	0.0263	Varicorbula gibba	22.38 ± 3.70						
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1201		Cirratulidae spp.	0.758	0.0039	Chaetozone gibber	90.83 ± 25.03	4	53.00	576.67	3.03	0.92	0.77
1291		Tritia varicosa	0.750	0.0194	Cirratulidae spp.	74.72 ± 24.46		± 3.34	± 88.18	± 0.07	± 0.01	± 0.01
	BII	Ampelisca spinimana	0.725	0.0001	Ampelisca tenuicornis	50.00 ± 16.22						
1292	K-11	Nephtys hombergii	0.645	0.0269	Aponuphis bilineata	41.39 ± 11.12						
		Ampelisca tenuicornis	0.590	0.0002	Chaetozone zetlandica	29.72 ± 7.39						
1293												
_		Calyptraea chinensis	1	0.0022	Varicorbula gibba	351.39 ±152.33	4	75.50	1772.50	2.92	0.87	0.67
1294		Spisula elliptica	0.925	0.0010	Ampelisca sarsi	170.83 ±129.74		± 2.40	± 234.74	± 0.11	± 0.02	± 0.02
1234	B.111	Ampelisca spinipes	0.860	0.0035	Abra alba	164.72 ± 31.00						
4205	K-111	Thyasira fexuosa	0.790	0.0016	Chaetozone gibber	164.44 ± 14.47						
1295		Amphictene auricoma	0.750	0.0150	Aponuphis bilineata	116.94 ± 19.90						
1296												

- 1311 Table III: Main bivalves species identified in the four replicates sieved on 5mm circular mesh
- 1312 size at the 38 Restroph stations in 1987 and 2001 (N: total abundance, sd: standard
- 1313 deviation). The significance of trends was tested with a student permutation paired-test (ns:
- 1314 no trend ; : decrease ; +: increase). Distribution maps are detailed in appendix F.

Canadian	T	1987		2019	Trend	p_val		
Species	N	Mean±sd	N	Mean±sd	Irena	t perm. p	aired test	
Acanthocardia echinata	14	0.37 ± 1.02	2	0.05 ± 0.32	87	0.162	ns	
Anomia ephippium	24	0.63 ± 1.68	194	5.11 ± 7.71	+	0.002	***	
Arcopagia crassa	8	0.21 ± 1.30	10	0.26 ± 1.62		0.954	ns	
Bosemprella incarnata	16	0.42 ± 1.24	142	3.74 ± 6.10	+	0.002	***	
Varicorbula gibba	380	10.00 ± 13.91	3564	93.79 ± 101.08	+	0.002	***	
Fabulina fabula	38	1.00 ± 3.15	2	0.05 ± 0.32	3 2 3	0.046	*	
Glycymeris glycymeris	4	0.11 ± 0.45	54	1.42 ± 5.95	a.	0.362	ns	
Laevicardium crassum	6	0.16 ± 0.55	46	1.21 ± 1.71	+	0.004	**	
Moerella donacina	4	0.11 ± 0.45	112	2.95 ± 4.18	+	0.002	***	
Nucula hanleyi	4	0.11 ± 0.45	166	4.37 ± 9.36	+	0.002	***	
Nucula nitidosa	2	0.05 ± 0.32	166	4.37 ± 6.47	+	0.002	***	
Pandora albida	10	0.26 ± 0.83	18	0.47 ± 1.18	×	0.456	ns	
Parvicardium scabrum	0	0.00 ± 0.00	22	0.58 ± 1.39	+	0.010	*	
Pecten maximus	0	0.00 ± 0.00	56	1.47 ± 2.17	+	0.002	***	
Polititapes rhomboides	226	5.95 ± 9.01	48	1.26 ± 4.89	- 27	0.002	***	
Spisula elliptica	6	0.16 ± 0.55	6	0.16 ± 0.72	12	1.000	ns	
Timoclea ovata	10	0.26 ± 0.83	176	4.63 ± 17.47	+	0.006	**	

1328 Additional Files

- 1329 Appendix A: Dredging rules and fishing effort
- 1330 Appendix B: Categories of functional traits
- Appendix C: Map of the sediment properties in the 38 ResTroph stations between1987 and 2019
- 1333 Appendix D: Evolution of sediment properties at station R from 2005 to 2019
- Appendix E: General description of the benthic macrofauna according to samplingcampaigns
- 1336 Appendix F: Map of the distribution and abundance of the main bivalve species
- 1337 Appendix G: Station R functional factor map
- Appendix H: Evolution of the wave regime over the last 30 years close to station R(SHOM)
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