

1 **Uncovering the environmental drivers of short-term temporal dynamics in an** 2 **epibenthic community from the Western English Channel**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Benthic communities, critical to the health and function of marine ecosystems, are under
10 increasing pressure from anthropogenic impacts such as pollution, eutrophication and
11 climate change. In order to refine predictions of likely future changes in benthic
12 communities resulting from these impacts, we must first better constrain their responses to
13 natural seasonality in environmental conditions. Epibenthic time series data (July 2008 –
14 May 2014) have been collected from Station L4, situated 7.25 nautical miles south of
15 Plymouth in the Western English Channel. These data were analysed to establish patterns in
16 community abundance, wet biomass and composition, and to link any observed patterns to
17 environmental variables. A clear response to the input of organic material from
18 phytoplankton blooms was detected, with sediment surface living deposit feeders showing
19 an immediate increase in abundance, while predators and scavengers responded later, with
20 an increase in biomass. We suggest that this response is a result of two factors. The low
21 organic content of the L4 sediment results in food limitation of the community, and the mild
22 winter/early spring bottom water temperatures allow the benthos to take immediate
23 advantage of bloom sedimentation. An inter-annual change in community composition was
24 also detected, as the community shifted from one dominated by the anomuran *Anapagurus*
25 *laevis* to one dominated by the gastropod *Turitella communis*. This appeared to be related

26 to a period of high larval recruitment for *T. communis* in 2013/2014, suggesting that
27 changes in the recruitment success of one species can affect the structure of an entire
28 community.

29 **Keywords:** Benthic epifauna, benthic community, natural variability, Western English
30 Channel, time series, phytodetrital input, bottom-water temperature, supply side ecology.

31 INTRODUCTION

32 Benthic epifaunal communities are under growing pressure from anthropogenic activities in
33 coastal seas, the strength and range of which have increased significantly over the last
34 century with the growth in global industrialisation and urbanisation (Daan et al., 1996,
35 Halpern et al., 2008). As a result, impacts such as pollution, eutrophication and the effects
36 of climate change are of major concern to conservationists and resource managers alike
37 (Capasso et al., 2010). In order to assess long-term changes in epibenthic communities as a
38 result of these impacts, it is critical that we gain an improved understanding of the short-
39 term temporal variability in the responses of community abundance, biomass and
40 composition to environmental parameters (Chikina et al., 2014, Reiss & Kröncke, 2004,
41 Włodarska-Kowalczyk et al., 2016).

42 While descriptions of the large scale spatial distribution and structure of temperate, shelf-
43 sea epibenthic communities in connection with environmental factors are relatively
44 common, only a few studies have investigated the temporal variability of these
45 communities. Many of those focussed on the North Sea, and concluded that sea surface
46 temperature (SST) is a dominant factor influencing the temporal variability of epibenthic
47 communities, particularly in the shallow, well-mixed areas of the south-eastern North Sea

48 (Neumann et al., 2008, Neumann et al., 2009b, Reiss & Kröncke, 2004), which are
49 characterised by strong seasonal fluctuations in temperature (Neumann et al., 2008). The
50 influence of SST appears to be less dominant in the deeper, stratified areas of the northern
51 North Sea however. Neumann et al. (2009a) found no correlation between overall
52 epibenthic community structure and changing SST, although relationships were found
53 between SST and the abundance and biomass of some individual species, in some cases with
54 a one year lag.

55 Shallow-water communities are generally thought to have access to high quality, if
56 temporally variable, food (Pearson & Rosenberg, 1986), and as a result, the influence of
57 organic input on structuring the benthos may be secondary to other physical and biological
58 factors (Quijón et al., 2008). Again, there are comparatively few studies which focus on the
59 responses of benthic epifauna to bloom sedimentation, but a number have investigated
60 macro-infaunal community structures and responses to phytodetrital inputs. The trophic
61 structure of North Sea macrofauna communities was found to reflect differences in the
62 relative quality of organic matter received (Dauwe et al., 1998, Wieking & Kröncke, 2005),
63 and between 55% and 84% of year to year variability in benthic infaunal abundance off the
64 coast of Northumberland was explained by changes in primary production (Buchanan,
65 1993). A marked increase in macrofaunal abundance in the same area in the 1980s was
66 attributed to increases in phytodetrital input (Frid et al., 1996), as were decadal-scale
67 variations in taxonomic composition (Clare et al., 2017, Frid et al., 2009a, Frid et al., 2009b).
68 Josefson et al. (1993) showed that the abundance, biomass and growth of macro-infaunal
69 species were closely related to bloom sedimentation in the Skagerrak-Kattegat region, while
70 macrofaunal deposit feeders were found to increase in abundance immediately following

71 bloom sedimentation in the Western English Channel, while other trophic groups responded
72 more slowly, primarily with an increase in biomass (Zhang et al., 2015). However, not all
73 studies found a clear response to organic input. Quijon et al. (2008) found that the effects of
74 phytodetrital input were short term, and were minor in comparison to the seasonal
75 differences observed in the macrofaunal community, and studies of the infauna of the
76 western Baltic (Graf et al., 1982) and of the epifauna in the German Bight area of the North
77 Sea (Reiss & Kröncke, 2004) failed to find any response to bloom sedimentation at all.

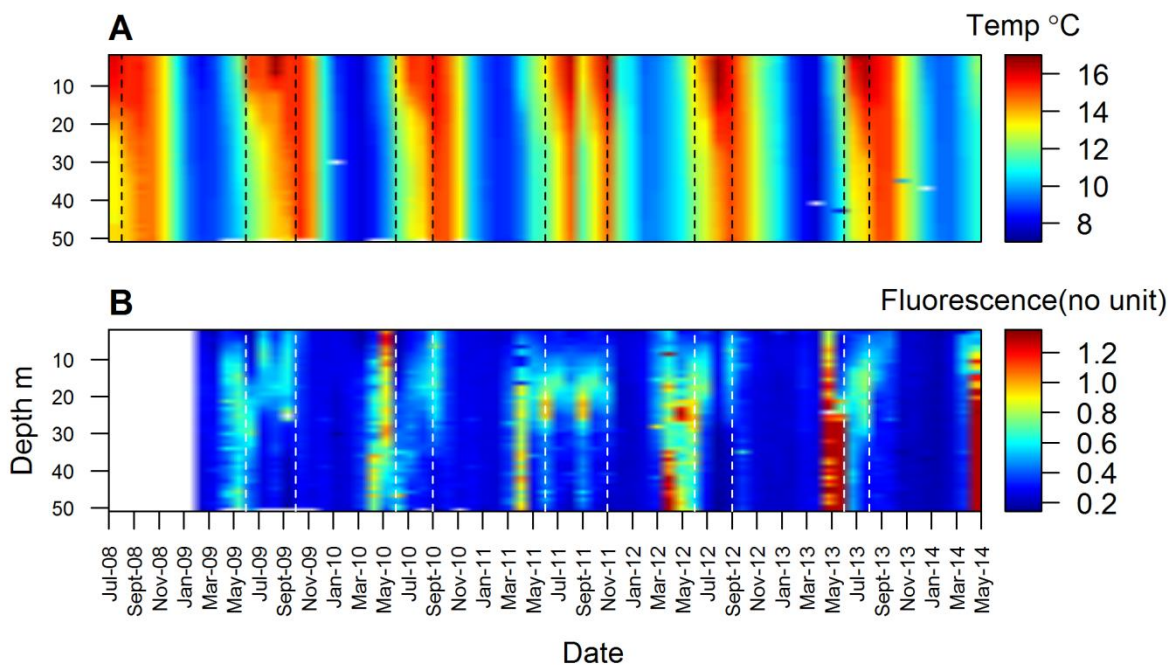
78 In this study, the seasonal and interannual variability of the epibenthic community at Station
79 L4 in the Western English Channel was investigated from July 2008 until May 2014. Since
80 little is known about the ecology and biology of the epibenthos in the Western English
81 Channel, these data provide valuable information on the short-term variation of several
82 epibenthic groups. The purpose of this study was to (I) describe the seasonal and
83 interannual variability in diversity, abundance, and biomass of the epibenthos at Station L4
84 and (II) to identify and discuss environmental drivers in accordance with faunal patterns.

85 MATERIALS AND METHODS

86 **The L4 sampling station**

87 Station L4 is part of the Western Channel Observatory (WCO, www.westernchannel
88 observatory.org.uk), and represents a long term oceanographic and marine biodiversity
89 time series, having been routinely sampled since 1988. In 2008, a benthic series was added
90 – an element often missing from other observatories (Smyth et al., 2015). Situated in the
91 Western English Channel, 7.25 nautical miles south of Plymouth, UK (50°15.00'N,
92 4°13.02'W), it can be considered representative of a temperate coastal environment (Tait et
93 al., 2015). Water column depth is approximately 53m, and the station is well mixed during

94 the winter and stratified over the summer (Figure 1A). Bottom water temperature varies
 95 from approximately 8°C - 16°C (Figure 1A). Chlorophyll-*a* concentration is at its lowest
 96 during winter, and higher during the characteristic spring and autumn phytoplankton
 97 blooms (Figure 1B, note that these are fluorescence measurements, a proxy for chlorophyll-
 98 *a*). Phytoplankton cells can sink very quickly at L4, with high chlorophyll-*a* and
 99 phytoplankton carbon values measured at the seabed within two weeks of the start of a
 100 bloom (Tait et al., 2015, Zhang et al., 2015).



101 **Fig. 1.** Monthly mean water temperature (A), between July 2008 and May 2014 and fluorescence (B) between
 102 Jan 2009 and May 2014 at station L4. Data were collected weekly (weather permitting) using a SeaBird SBE 19+
 103 CTD deployed from the *RV Plymouth Quest*. Dotted vertical lines denote periods of thermal stratification.
 104

105 **Animal collection and processing**

106 Using a 60cm wide Naturalist dredge with a 22mm mesh, three replicate samples were
 107 taken every other month during the period July 2008 - May 2014 from Station L4. For each
 108 replicate the dredge was lowered to the seabed and then towed for approximately 2 mins at
 109 a speed of approximately 0.3 knots. Total towed distance was calculated for each replicate
 110 using the formula:

$$\cos^{-1}(\cos lat_S * \cos lat_E + \sin lat_S * \sin lat_E * \cos(lon_S - lon_E)) * 6371$$

111 Where: lat_S is start latitude (in radians), lat_E is end latitude (in radians), lon_S is start
 112 longitude (in radians), lon_E is end longitude (in radians) and 6371 is the approximate radius
 113 of the Earth (in Km).

114 All organisms collected in the dredge were fixed in 10% formalin solution. Prior to analysis,
 115 samples were rinsed at 4mm and epifaunal individuals carefully picked out. All individuals
 116 were identified to species level, wherever possible, using a stereo microscope (Leica M32
 117 Kombistereio). Individuals within each of the identified taxonomic groups were counted,
 118 carefully blotted dry and weighed on a Sartorius R220D microbalance (± 0.01 mg, European
 119 Instruments). Standardised values for abundance and biomass for each time point were
 120 calculated by dividing the total abundance (or biomass) in three replicate samples by the
 121 total area covered by the dredge. Those species which were only ever represented by a
 122 single individual across the course of the time series (N = 23) were excluded from further
 123 analysis.

124 **Ancillary data**

125 During the study period (July 2008 – May 2014), a suite of environmental and biological data
 126 were collected from L4 every week (weather permitting) from the *RV Plymouth Quest*.
 127 Vertical profiles of temperature and fluorescence were measured using a SeaBird SBE 19+
 128 CTD. Water samples for phytoplankton analysis were collected from a depth of 10m using
 129 10L Niskin bottles attached to the CTD rosette, and zooplankton were collected in two
 130 vertical WP2 net hauls (mesh size = 200 μ m, mouth aperture = 57cm diameter) taken from
 131 the seabed to the surface (UNESCO, 1968).

132 Phytoplankton analysis

133 Paired water-bottle samples were preserved with 2% Lugol's iodine solution (Thronsdon,
134 1978) and 4% buffered formaldehyde. Between 10 and 100 ml of sample (depending on cell
135 density) were settled for at least 48 h (Widdicombe et al., 2010). Cell volumes were
136 calculated according to the equations of Kovala and Larrance (1966) and converted to
137 carbon (pgC cell^{-1}) (Menden-Deuer & Lessard, 2000) and then expressed per unit volume of
138 seawater (mgC m^{-3}).

139 Meroplankton analysis

140 Haul samples were preserved and stored in 5% formalin. Two subsamples were extracted
141 using a Folsom splitter and a Stempel pipette, to identify large and small organisms
142 separately, then counted and identified under a microscope. Abundances in the two hauls
143 were averaged to reduce the variability related to the sampling, and counts were converted
144 to individuals per m^3 (John et al., 2001). Due to the difficulties in larval identification and
145 because different analysts have worked on the data set over the years, meroplankton are
146 only identified to major taxonomic groups. These groups are: Decapoda, Brachyura,
147 Cirripedia, Bivalvia, Gastropoda, Echinodermata and Polychaeta. These groups provide an
148 overall picture of the seasonal changes in the meroplankton assemblage at L4. For this
149 study, all groups except Cirripedia were considered, because although Cirripede larvae can
150 dominate the meroplankton at L4 (Highfield et al., 2010) mature animals are rarely present
151 in the epibenthic faunal samples.

152 Statistical analysis

153 All statistical analyses were conducted in R statistical software. Time series of epibenthic
154 abundance and wet biomass per square metre between July 2008 and May 2014 were

155 compiled. Missing data were interpolated using the “zoo” package in R (Zeileis et al., 2018).
156 Data for each sampling month (January, March, May, July, September and November) were
157 pooled across the whole time series and overall means of community, major phyla and
158 dominant species abundance and wet biomass were calculated to establish the structure of
159 the community. Average individual body mass of the whole community and each phylum
160 was calculated by dividing the overall mean wet biomass by the overall mean abundance for
161 each sampling month. To establish whether responses to environmental drivers were more
162 easily identifiable when considering functional groups rather than taxa, species were
163 grouped into one of five feeding guilds (predator/scavenger, omnivore, surface-deposit
164 feeder, subsurface-deposit feeder, suspension feeder). Information on polychaete feeding
165 mode was retrieved from Jumars et al. (2015). Information on feeding mode for all other
166 phyla was retrieved from the Marine Life Information Network’s biological traits catalogue
167 (MarLIN, 2006). Where a species exhibited more than one feeding method, it was classified
168 by the preferred or most frequently documented method. While we appreciate that the
169 “fuzzy coding” method (Chevene et al., 1994, Neumann & Kröncke, 2011), which uses
170 positive scores to describe the affinity of species to trait categories, would reflect a wider
171 range of ecological function than the method adopted here, the aim of the present study
172 was to provide a broad overview of the structure of the community and its responses to
173 environmental variables, rather than an in-depth analysis of biological traits. Data on
174 meroplanktonic larval abundance, water temperature and phytoplankton carbon for the
175 duration of the time series were also collected and monthly means calculated.

176 The “vegan” package in R (Oksanen et al., 2017) was used to construct a species
177 accumulation curve to determine whether the full diversity of Station L4 had been captured,

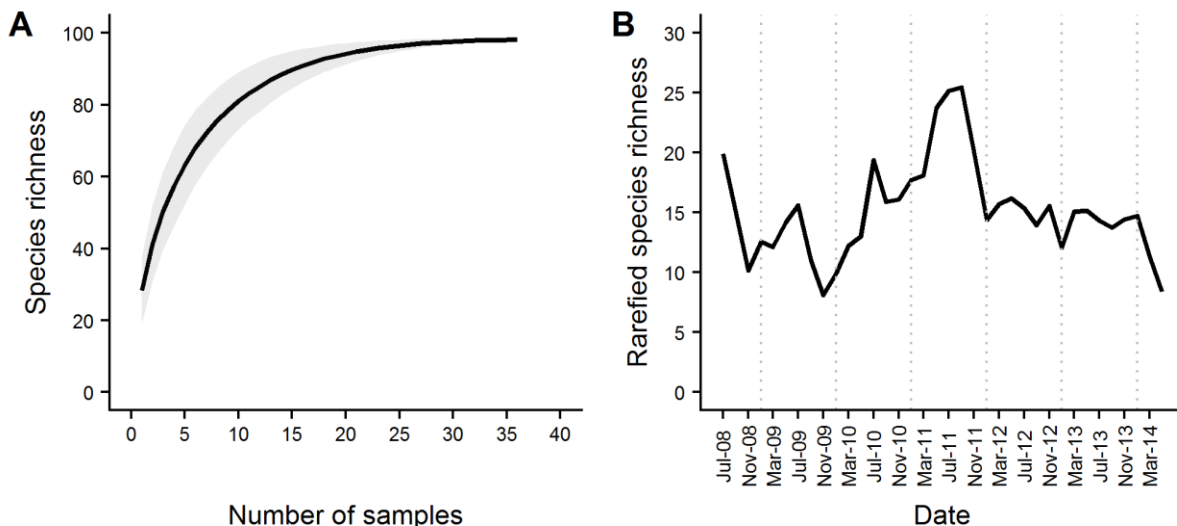
178 and to calculate rarefied species richness as an indicator of changes in diversity over the
179 course of the time series. Rarefied species richness was chosen as the measure of diversity
180 as the total area covered by the dredge varied between sampling dates. As a consequence,
181 it is likely that the number of species (and individuals) collected in each sample was a
182 function of the area sampled. Rarefaction techniques can correct for this difference in
183 sampling effort by generating the expected number of species in a small collection of n
184 individuals drawn at random from a larger pool of N individuals (Gotelli & Colwell, 2001).

185 In order to identify any correlation between the biological (community, feeding guild and
186 phyla abundance and biomass) and the environmental (water temperature, phytoplankton
187 carbon) data series, cross correlation analysis was performed (Olden & Neff, 2001, Probst et
188 al., 2012) in R using the “astsa” package (Stoffer, 2016). Where relationships between data
189 series were found, linear regressions were used to quantify the relationship for a particular
190 time lag. Cross correlation analysis was also performed on the phyla abundance and larval
191 abundance data series. Prior to this analysis, all data series were checked for
192 homoscedasticity by fitting a simple ordinary least squares regression model and checking
193 the residuals against the fitted values. The community abundance and biomass series, and
194 the larval abundance data series were found to be heteroscedastic and were log- n
195 transformed to achieve homoscedasticity. All data series were differenced to remove any
196 trends or seasonal effects (Probst et al., 2012), and then checked for stationarity using an
197 Augmented Dickey-Fuller test in the “tseries” package for R (Trapletti et al., 2017). Finally, to
198 ensure that estimates of cross correlations were not inflated by any temporal
199 autocorrelation, series were checked for any autocorrelation by generating ACF and PACF
200 plots (Olden & Neff, 2001).

201 RESULTS

202 **Variations in the epibenthic community 2008-2014**

203 The total area covered by the dredge across the three replicate samples varied from
 204 326.1m² in March 2009 to 1170.3m² in September 2012. A total of 169 species were
 205 recorded over the course of the series, 143 of which were used for analysis. The number of
 206 species represented by only a single individual in each sample ranged from 4 (17% of total
 207 species recorded in the sample) in January 2012 to 23 (38% of total species recorded in the
 208 sample) in July 2009. The species accumulation curve for Station L4 started to level off after
 209 approximately 20 samples (corresponding to a sampling period of 2.5 years) had been
 210 collected (Figure 2A). Rarefied species richness varied across the course of the series (Figure
 211 2B) with values ranging from 7 – 24 species. Spring/summer values were generally higher
 212 than values in the preceding winter. Rarefied richness reached a maximum in
 213 spring/summer 2011, and declined steadily to the end of the series.

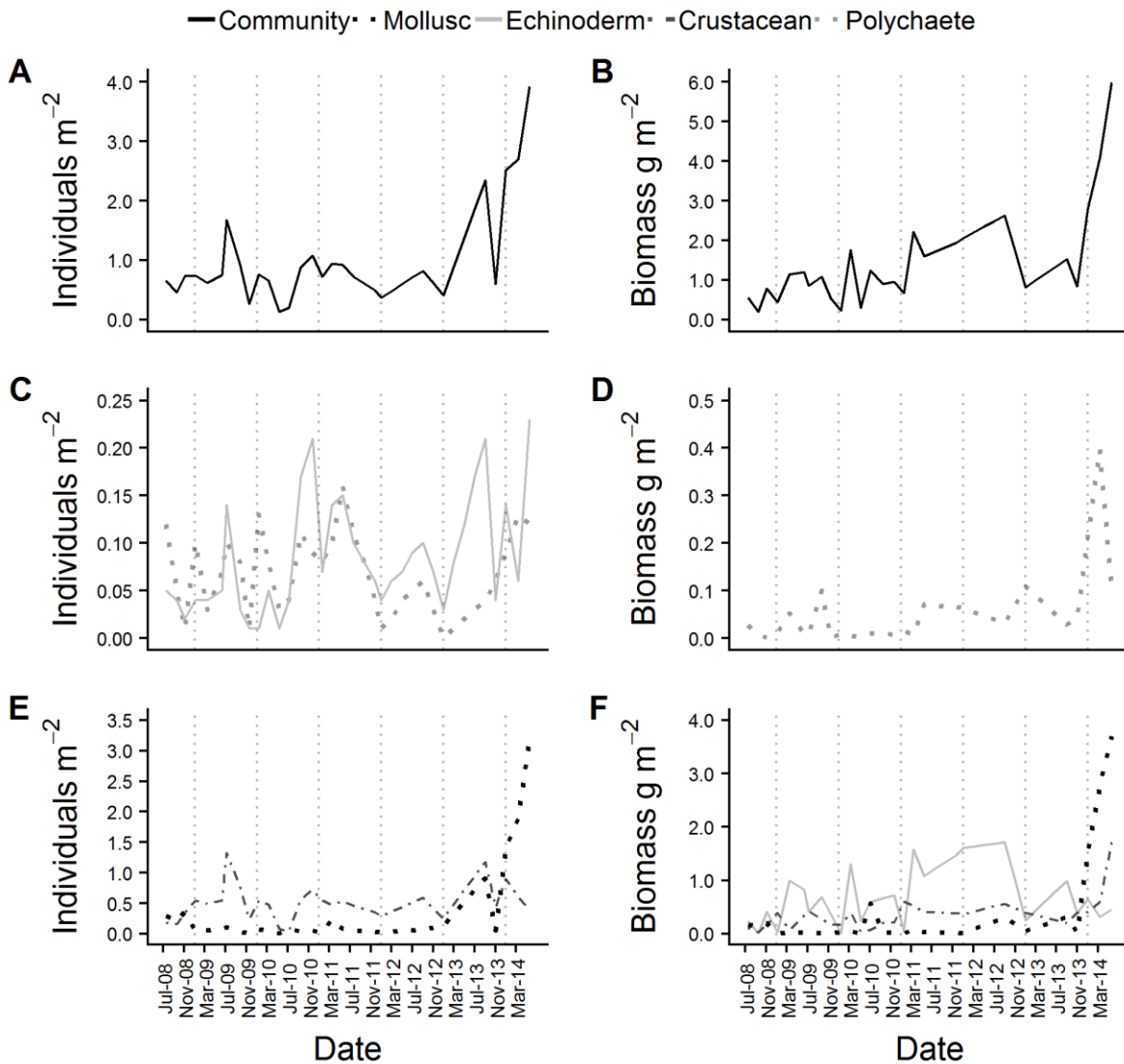


214 **Fig. 2.** Species accumulation curve (A) and rarefied species richness (B) over the course of the L4 epibenthic
 215 time series, July 2008 – May 2014. The species accumulation curve started to level off after approximately 20
 216 samples (representing a sampling period of 2.5 years) were collected. Grey shading denotes standard deviation
 217 from the mean curve, generated from 1000 random permutations of the data. In terms of diversity, the series
 218 is characterised by a period of high species richness in late 2010/2011, with periods of lower richness at the
 219 beginning and end of the series. Dotted vertical lines denote January of each year.
 220

221 Community abundance over the course of the series varied from 0.13 individuals m⁻² in May
 222 2010, to 3.93 individuals m⁻² in May 2014 (Figure 3A). Community wet biomass ranged from
 223 0.21 g m⁻² in September 2008 – 5.99 g m⁻² in May 2014 (Figure 3B). The peak in community
 224 abundance seen in summer 2009 was largely attributable to a peak in crustacean
 225 abundance (Figure 3E). The increase in abundance in autumn 2013 was driven by increases
 226 in crustaceans (Figure 3E), molluscs (Figure 3E) and to a lesser extent, echinoderms (Figure
 227 3C). The abundance maximum in spring 2014 was due predominantly to an increase in
 228 mollusc numbers (Figure 3E). All but one of the observed peaks in wet biomass were driven
 229 by increases in echinoderm biomass (Figure 3F). The very high wet biomass maximum in
 230 spring 2014 can be attributed to increases in biomass of molluscs and crustaceans (Figure
 231 3F). The increase in polychaete biomass in spring 2014 (Figure 3D) was due to the presence
 232 of a single large *Aphrodita aculeata* (Linnaeus 1758) in the sample. The species which
 233 contribute to these peaks in community abundance and biomass can be found in Table 1.

234 **Table 1:** Species which contributed to the observed peaks in abundance and/or biomass at station L4 between
 235 July 2008-May 2014.

Date	Peak in abundance/wet biomass?	Contributing species	Taxonomic authority
Summer 2009	abundance	<i>Anapagurus laevis</i>	Bell, 1845
Autumn 2013	abundance	<i>A. laevis</i> <i>Galathea nexa</i> <i>Macropodia</i> spp. <i>Turitella communis</i> <i>Astropecten irregularis</i> <i>Ophiothrix fragilis</i>	- Embleton, 1834 - Risso, 1826 Pennant, 1777 Abildgaard, 1789
Spring 2014	abundance & biomass	<i>T. communis</i> (abundance & biomass) <i>Liocarcinus depurator</i> (biomass) <i>Atelecyclus rotundatus</i> (biomass)	- Linnaeus, 1758 Olivi, 1792
March 2010	biomass	<i>Marthasterias glacialis</i>	Linnaeus, 1758
March 2011	biomass	<i>Luidia ciliaris</i>	Philippi, 1837
September 2012	biomass	<i>Marthasterias glacialis</i>	-



236
 237 **Fig.3.** Abundance of the whole L4 epibenthic community (A), polychaetes and echinoderms (C) and molluscs
 238 and crustaceans (E) over the study period July 2008 – May 2014. Biomass of the whole community (B),
 239 polychaetes (D) and echinoderms, molluscs and crustaceans (F) over the same period. Dotted vertical lines
 240 denote January of each year.

241

242 Benthic larvae were always present in the water column over the course of the time series.

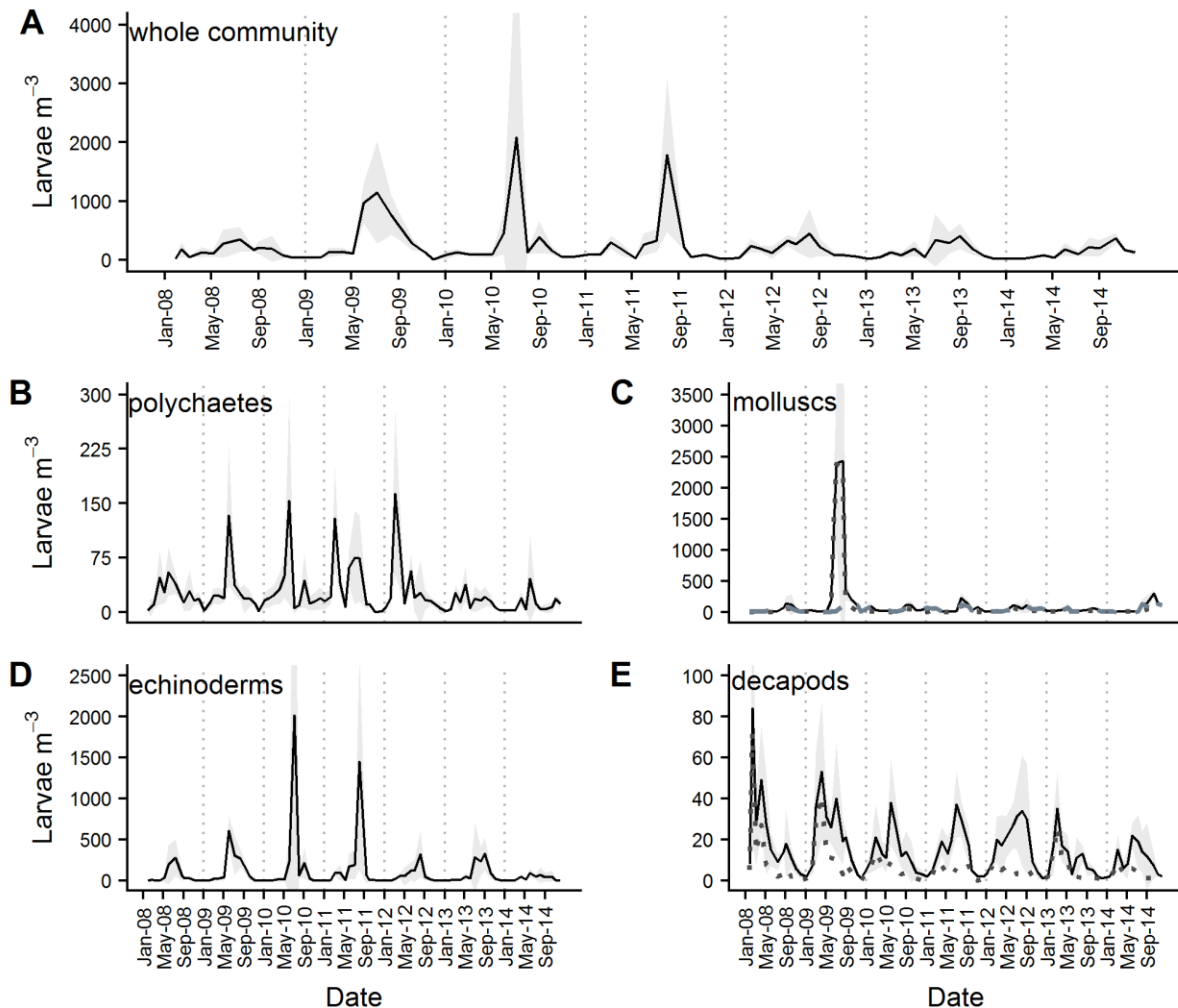
243 Abundances ranged from $12 (\pm 8)$ individuals m^{-3} in December 2009 to $2080 (\pm 3656)$

244 individuals m^{-3} in July 2010. In 2009, 2010 and 2011, summer abundances of benthic larvae

245 were very high, reaching more than 1000 individuals m^{-3} (Figure 4A). In 2009, the majority of

246 the benthic larvae recorded were gastropod molluscs (Figure 4C), while in 2010 and 2011,

247 echinoderm larvae were the primary contributors to the observed peaks in abundance
 248 (Figure 4D).

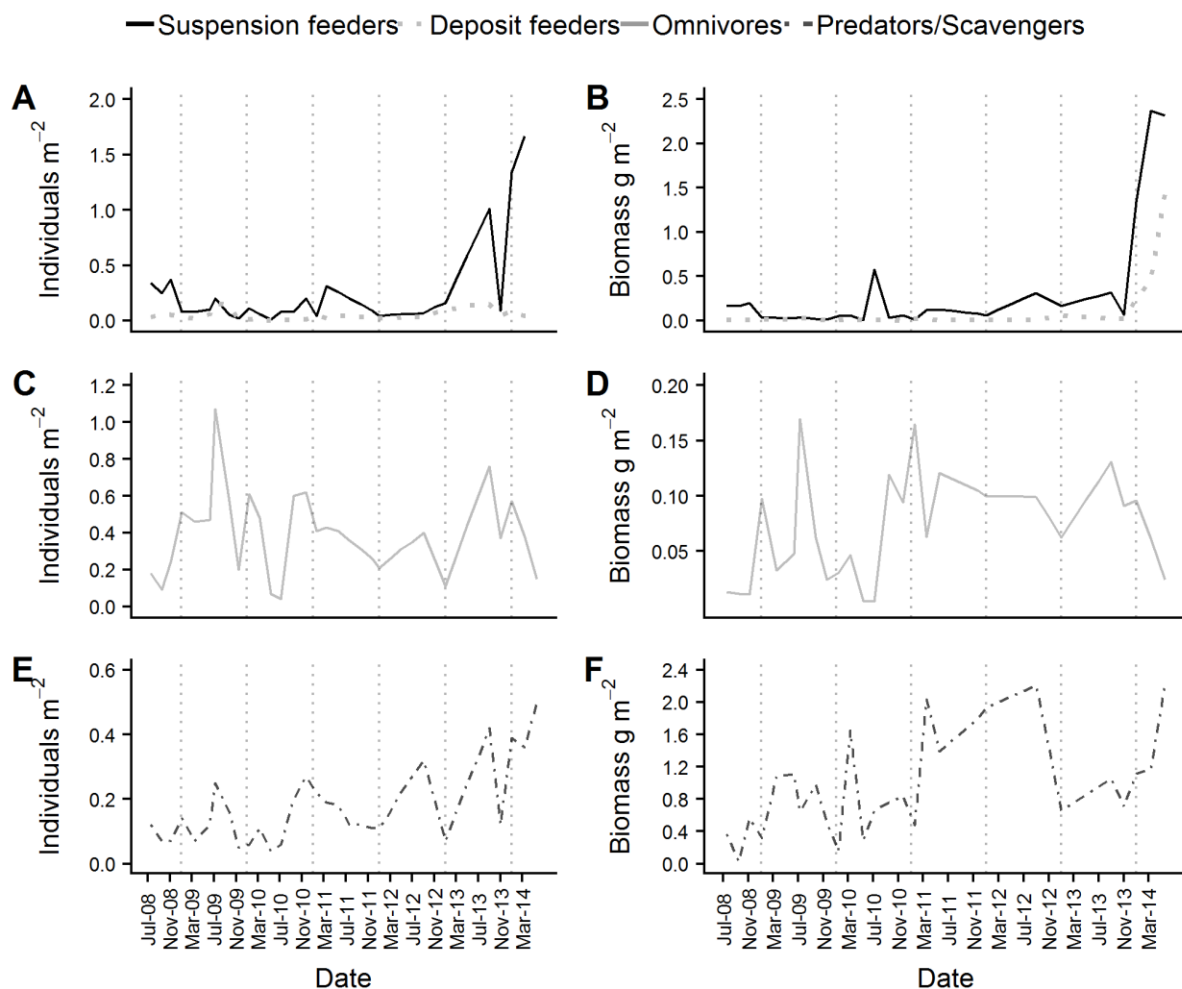


249 **Fig. 4.** Abundance of benthic larvae in the water column for (A) the four major benthic phyla, (B) polychaetes,
 250 (C) molluscs, (D) echinoderms and (E) decapod crustaceans during the study period July 2008 – May 2014. The
 251 grey dotted line in panel (C) is the abundance of gastropod larvae present, while the grey dashed line is the
 252 abundance of bivalve larvae. The grey dotted line in panel (E) is the abundance of brachyuran larvae present.
 253 Grey shading represents standard deviation from the mean calculated for the phyla.
 254

255

256 Both the abundance and wet biomass of suspension and deposit feeders was relatively
 257 stable over the course of the time series, although suspension feeder abundance increased
 258 sharply in summer 2013 and spring 2014 (Figure 5A). Likewise, the wet biomass of
 259 suspension and deposit feeders reached a peak in spring 2014 (Figure 5B). In terms of

260 abundance, omnivores were the most dominant feeding guild at L4 (Figure 5C), while the
 261 predator/scavenger guild dominated in terms of wet biomass (Figure 5F). The
 262 predators/scavengers (Figure 5E) exhibited an increase in abundance in spring 2014,
 263 although it was not as dramatic as that recorded for the suspension feeders. The number of
 264 taxa mapped into each feeding guild is shown in Table 2. The majority of taxa recorded were
 265 predators/scavengers, while sub-surface deposit feeders were represented by only a small
 266 number of taxa.



267
 268 **Fig. 5.** Abundance (left hand side of the panel) and wet biomass (right hand side of the panel) of the main
 269 feeding guilds found at L4. (A) and (B) are suspension and deposit feeders, (C) and (D) are omnivores and (E)
 270 and (F) are predators/scavengers. Deposit feeders were split into surface and sub-surface feeders for the
 271 purposes of analysis, but were combined for plotting.

272

273 **Table 2:** The number of taxa mapped into each feeding guild, and their percent contribution to the total
 274 number of species recorded at station L4 between July 2008 – May 2014.

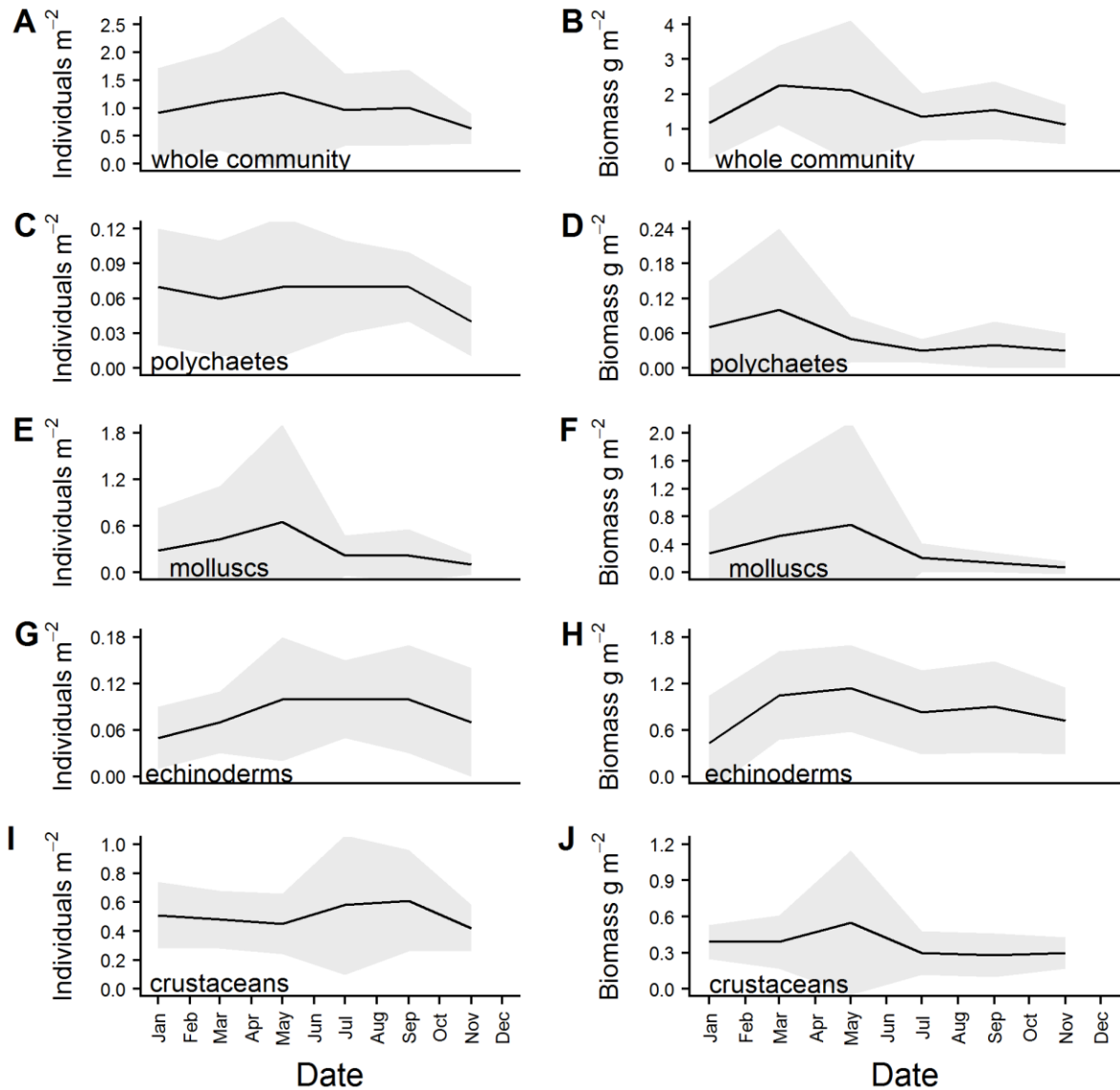
Feeding guild	Number of taxa	% of total number of species recorded
Suspension feeders	39	27.2
Surface deposit feeders	19	13.3
Sub-surface deposit feeders	8	5.6
Omnivores	25	17.5
Predators/scavengers	52	36.4
Total	143	100

275

276 **Overall structure of the epibenthic community**

277 There was some structure apparent in the overall means of the community abundance and
 278 wet biomass series. Abundance increased from January to reach a peak in May, before
 279 declining again over the summer. There was a second, smaller increase apparent in
 280 September, and abundance then decreased steadily through the winter (Figure 6A). Wet
 281 biomass peaked in March, and remained fairly high over the spring before declining from
 282 May onward. There was a second, smaller increase in community wet biomass in September
 283 (Figure 6B). The first peak in abundance can be attributed to an increase in abundance of
 284 molluscs (Figure 6E) which, when added to an already high abundance of crustaceans
 285 (Figure 6I), raised community abundance to ~ 1.2 individuals m^{-2} . While mollusc abundance
 286 dropped sharply after the May maximum (Figure 6E), the decline in community abundance
 287 was more gradual, due to an increase in the abundance of crustaceans (Figure 6I), and
 288 numbers of polychaetes and echinoderms remaining relatively high (Figure 6C and G). This
 289 increase in crustacean abundance, which reached its maximum in September, was the
 290 primary contributor to the second community abundance peak (Figure 6A). The biomass
 291 maximum in March was predominantly caused by a sharp increase in biomass of

292 echinoderms (Figure 6H), and polychaetes (Figure 6D). Both molluscs and crustaceans
 293 (Figure 6F and J) reached a biomass peak in May, ensuring that community biomass
 294 remained high throughout the spring (Figure 6B).

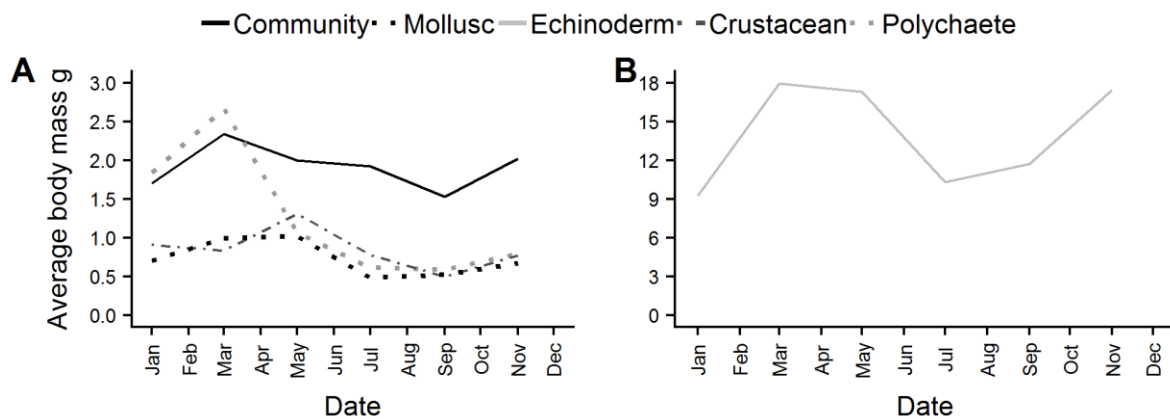


295 **Fig. 6.** Overall means for community and major phyla abundance (left hand side of panel) and wet biomass
 296 (right hand side of panel), calculated from data for each sampling month (Jan, Mar, May, Jul, Sept, Nov) pooled
 297 across the whole time series. Shaded grey area represents standard deviation of the mean.
 298

299

300 Average individual body mass of the whole community reached a maximum in March, and
 301 then decreased steadily over the summer, before increasing again from September (Figure

302 7A). Polychaete (Figure 7A) individual body mass exhibited a similar pattern, although the
 303 decline after March was much steeper. Peaks in body mass for crustaceans and molluscs
 304 (Figure 7A) were reached in May, again with a decrease over the summer, and an increase
 305 beginning in September. Echinoderms (Figure 7B) reached a maximum in March, and body
 306 mass remained high into May before declining. There was a subsequent increase in
 307 echinoderm body mass although it started earlier than in other taxa, in July.

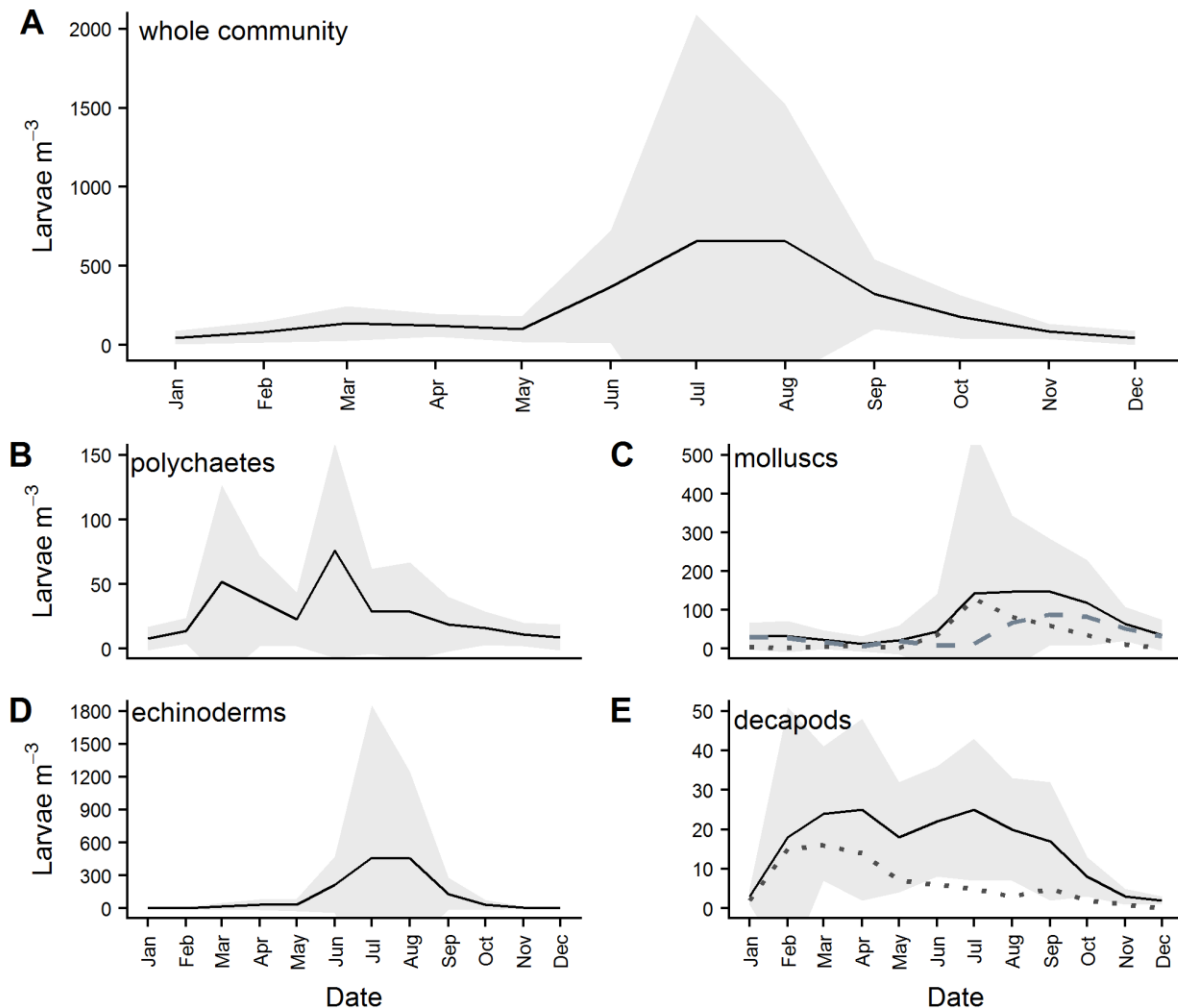


308 **Fig. 7.** Average individual body mass of the whole epibenthic community, molluscs, polychaetes and
 309 crustaceans (A), and echinoderms (B).
 310

311

312 Overall monthly means of larval abundance show that the highest numbers of benthic
 313 larvae are recorded in the water column in July/August (Figure 8A). While all four major
 314 phyla contribute to this peak in abundance, it is largely attributable to high abundances of
 315 molluscs (Figure 8C) and echinoderms (Figure 8D). Different classes of mollusc appear to
 316 have different spawning times at L4, with gastropod larvae abundances (grey dotted line,
 317 Figure 8C) in the water column peaking slightly earlier than bivalve larvae (grey dashed line,
 318 Figure 8C). Polychaete larvae exhibited two peaks, in March and June (Figure 8B), while
 319 decapod larvae abundances peaked in March/April (Figure 8E), and remained relatively high
 320 throughout the summer, before declining steadily from July. Much of the initial peak in

321 decapod larval abundance can be attributed to brachyuran larvae (grey dotted line, Figure
 322 8E), although this declines after April.



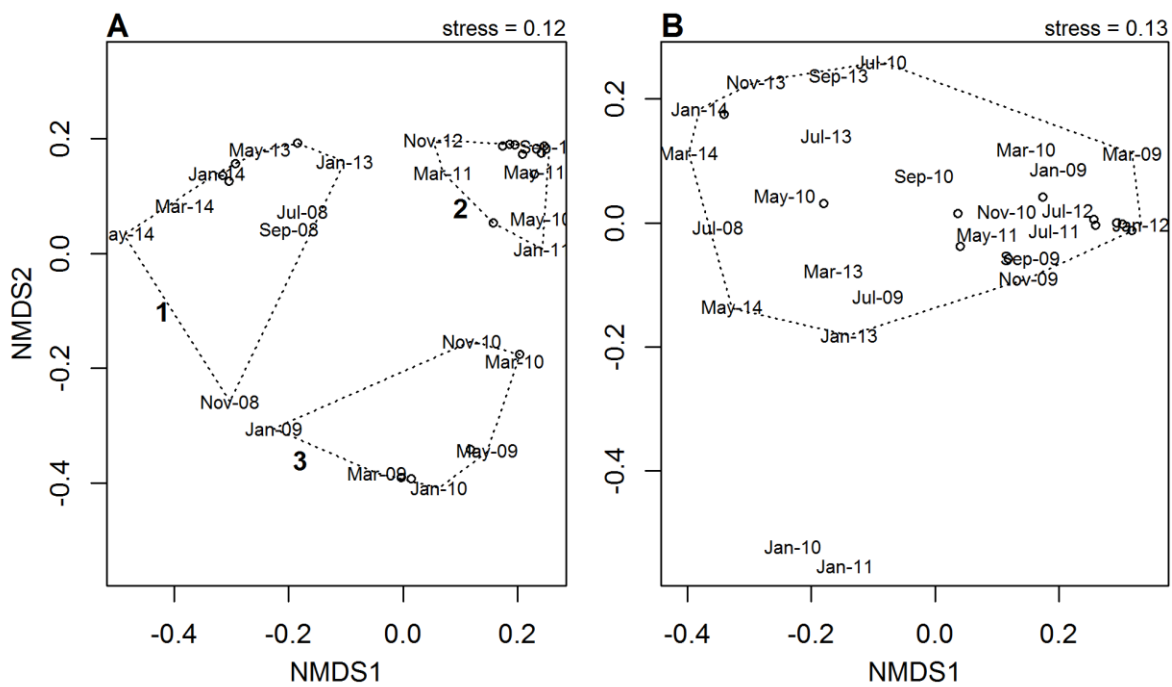
323 **Fig. 8.** Overall monthly mean abundances of benthic larvae in the water column for (A) the four major benthic
 324 phyla combined, (B) polychaetes, (C) molluscs, (D) echinoderms and (E) decapod crustaceans. Means were
 325 calculated for each month from data pooled across the whole time series. The grey dotted line in panel (C) is
 326 the abundance of gastropod larvae present, while the grey dashed line is the abundance of bivalve larvae. The
 327 grey dotted line in panel (E) is the abundance of brachyuran larvae present. Grey shading represents standard
 328 deviation from the mean calculated for the phyla.
 329

330

331 Drivers of variation in epibenthic community structure

332 NMDS ordination revealed no clear seasonal pattern over the course of the time series in
 333 either the abundance or wet biomass data, but there were some interannual differences in
 334 the abundance data. Analysis of community abundance identified 3 clusters (Figure 9A).

335 Cluster 1 consists of the years 2008, 2013 and 2014. Cluster 2 contains the years 2011 and
 336 2012, and cluster 3 contains the years 2009 and 2010. The differences between these three
 337 clusters were driven by differences in the relative abundances of the two dominant species.
 338 In cluster 1, the gastropod *T. communis* was dominant, whereas in cluster 3 the anomuran
 339 crab *Anapagurus laevis* was dominant. Cluster 2 was characterised by a more even
 340 community structure, with no single species dominant. There were no clear interannual
 341 patterns identified in the biomass data, with most data points falling into a single cluster
 342 (Figure 9B). The only months to fall outside this cluster were January 2010 and January
 343 2011. This appears to be due to the fact that during these months, the asteroid *M. glacialis*,
 344 which dominated the biomass over the course of the time series, was not recorded.



345 **Fig. 9.** NMDS ordination of community abundance (A) and wet biomass (B) data over the course of the time
 346 series July 2008 – May 2014. Although there is no seasonal pattern evident in either the abundance or wet
 347 biomass data, there is some interannual variation in the abundance data, predominantly due to the relative
 348 variations in abundance of the dominant species.
 349

350

351 All significant results of the cross correlation analysis are shown in Table 3. There was no
352 significant relationship between total community abundance and any of the explanatory
353 environmental variables. Community wet biomass correlated with both phytoplankton
354 carbon and temperature, with a 6 month lag in both cases. If both carbon and temperature
355 are left in the linear model as explanatory variables, the model fit improves and both terms
356 remain significant. There was no significant interaction effect detected between carbon and
357 temperature. Of the four major phyla, only echinoderm biomass exhibited significant
358 relationships with any of the explanatory environmental variables, correlating with
359 temperature with a 6 month lag. Both mollusc and echinoderm abundance were correlated
360 with larval abundance. Mollusc abundance was correlated with total mollusc larval
361 abundance and gastropod larval abundance with a 4.5 year lag in each case. Echinoderm
362 abundance is correlated with echinoderm larval abundance with a lag of 3 years.

363 Analysis of the community when grouped into feeding guilds (suspension feeders, surface
364 and sub-surface deposit feeders, omnivores and predators/scavengers) showed a
365 relationship between predator/scavenger biomass and phytoplankton carbon with a 6
366 month lag (Table 3). As with community wet biomass, this group also exhibited a
367 relationship with temperature, again with a six month lag. If both of these terms are left in
368 the model, they remain significant and the overall fit improves (Table 3). There was no
369 significant interaction effect detected however. This analysis also showed a relationship
370 between phytoplankton carbon and surface-deposit feeder abundance, with an immediate
371 response from the surface-deposit feeders to phytodetrital input (Table 3).

372
373
374

375 **Table 3.** Significant models identifying relationships between the epibenthic community and environmental
 376 variables. In those models where two predictors were included, the significance value for the whole model has
 377 been given in the column for R^2 , and the significance value for individual predictors has been given in the
 378 coefficients column.

Response variable	Predictor	lag	R^2 (p)	Coefficient (p)
Community biomass	phytoplankton carbon	6 months	0.4 (0.0001)	0.1
Community biomass	temperature	6 months	0.43 (0.0001)	0.18
Community biomass	carbon + temperature	6 months	0.6 (<0.0001)	Carbon = 0.1(0.003) Temperature = 0.14 (0.002)
Echinoderm biomass	temperature	6 months	0.37 (0.0003)	0.11
Predator/scavenger biomass	phytoplankton carbon	6 months	0.32 (0.0006)	0.1
Predator/scavenger biomass	temperature	6 months	0.38 (0.0003)	0.13
Predator/scavenger biomass	carbon + temperature	6 months	0.53 (<0.0001)	Carbon = 0.09 (0.02) Temperature = 0.12 (0.002)
Surface-deposit feeder abundance	phytoplankton carbon	0 months	0.42 (0.02)	0.09
Mollusc abundance	mollusc larvae	4.5 years	0.81 (0.001)	0.21
Mollusc abundance	gastropod larvae	4.5 years	0.61 (0.01)	0.17
Echinoderm abundance	echinoderm larvae	3 years	0.58 (0.002)	0.1

379

380 DISCUSSION

381 Time series data (collected every other month during the period July 2008 – May 2014) for
 382 benthic epifauna at Station L4 were analysed to establish patterns in community
 383 abundance, wet biomass and composition, and to link any observed patterns to
 384 environmental variables. A clear response to the input of organic material from
 385 phytoplankton blooms was detected, with sediment surface living deposit feeders showing
 386 an immediate increase in abundance, while predators and scavengers responded later, with

387 an increase in biomass. An inter-annual change in community composition was also
388 detected, as the community shifted from one dominated by the anomuran *Anapagurus*
389 *laevis* to one dominated by the gastropod *Turitella communis*.

390 There is some evidence for benthic-pelagic coupling at Station L4, demonstrated by the
391 correlation between surface-deposit feeder abundance and phytoplankton carbon. This
392 pattern has been previously observed in the macro-infauna at L4, with deposit feeders
393 rapidly responding to phytodetrital input with an increase in abundance, while predators
394 and scavengers responded more slowly with an increase in biomass (Zhang et al., 2015).
395 While many studies have concluded that benthic communities can be structured by
396 phytodetrital input over both short-term and decadal scales (Buchanan, 1993, Clare et al.,
397 2017, Dauwe et al., 1998, Frid et al., 2009a, Frid et al., 2009b, Josefson et al., 1993, Wieking
398 & Kröncke, 2005) clear responses to organic input from benthic fauna can be difficult to
399 detect (Graf et al., 1982, Reiss & Kröncke, 2004). The “food bank” hypothesis suggests that
400 large reserves of labile organic matter in sediments can sustain benthic communities at
401 constant levels of abundance on a year round basis, and clear responses to phytodetrital
402 input are difficult to detect as a consequence (Kędra et al., 2012, Mincks et al., 2005,
403 Włodarska-Kowalczyk et al., 2016). This appears not to be the case at Station L4, which is
404 fairly impoverished in terms of organic matter content, with organic carbon contributing
405 only 0.4% to total sediment mass (Zhang et al., 2015). It is possible that this comparatively
406 low sediment carbon content results in the epibenthic community at L4 being food limited,
407 and so the seasonal pulses of phytodetrital input elicit measurable responses. Furthermore,
408 spring bloom sedimentation in temperate areas can often occur when bottom water
409 temperatures are low, and benthic faunal responses are limited as a result. Weeks can pass

410 before water temperature increases enough to allow for macrofaunal feeding (Lopez &
411 Levinton, 2011). It is possible that the particular hydrographic conditions in the Western
412 English Channel, where bottom water temperatures fluctuate less than in other temperate
413 systems, result in early spring temperatures high enough for the surface-deposit feeders in
414 the L4 community to respond immediately.

415 Interestingly, there was no apparent decrease in diversity associated with the sedimentation
416 of the spring bloom. In macrofaunal communities, enriched sediments are typically rapidly
417 colonised by a few opportunist, fast-reproducing species (Widbom & Frithsen, 1995) which
418 can take advantage of the fresh organic matter, generally resulting in a reduction in diversity
419 (Chamberlain et al., 2001, Widdicombe & Austen, 2001). As noted above, epibenthic
420 surface-deposit feeders did show an immediate increase in abundance with the arrival of
421 phytodetritus, but rarefied richness values for May (post sedimentation) are generally equal
422 to or higher than values for March (pre-bloom). It is possible that these values are indirect
423 evidence of predation. Predation is thought to play a key role in marine sedimentary
424 systems, due in part to the lack of clear evidence for competitive exclusion (Peterson, 1979,
425 Woodin, 1999). While detection of predation is challenging, and numerous studies have
426 found no consistent regulatory role (Thrush, 1999), it has been suggested that epibenthic
427 predators can equalise numbers and increase evenness by preying preferentially on
428 numerically dominant species (Quijón & Snelgrove, 2005). Given the fact that L4 community
429 wet biomass is predominantly represented by predators and scavengers, there is a
430 possibility that opportunistic deposit feeders are prevented from becoming dominant after
431 sedimentation of the spring bloom by the feeding of the predator/scavenger group. This
432 pattern in the regulation of benthic community structure has been noted before (Posey et

433 al., 1995), with those authors concluding that the presence or absence of predation may
434 alter the visible response of the benthos to organic enrichment. While there was no direct
435 evidence of predator-prey interactions (e.g. a clear relationship between deposit-feeder and
436 predator/scavenger abundance or biomass, as defined by Lotka-Volterra type models)
437 detected in this study, the patterns in species richness observed would seem to support the
438 proposal that epibenthic predators can be of major influence in benthic communities
439 (Quijón & Snelgrove, 2005), and may diminish or counterbalance the changes in prey
440 species that result from phytodetrital input.

441 A relationship between community wet biomass and both bottom-water temperature and
442 phytoplankton carbon was detected at Station L4, although there was no significant
443 interaction between the two predictors and their effects on biomass. This leads us to
444 propose that temperature and phytoplankton carbon primarily influence biomass at
445 different times of the year. Community wet biomass peaks in March/May, driven
446 predominantly by an increase in biomass of echinoderms and molluscs. Individual body
447 mass curves for these two phyla show an identical pattern, with a maximum also being
448 reached in March/May. It is possible that this is representative of the development of the
449 gonads in preparation for spawning. Several studies have found that ripe gonads in these
450 two phyla can make a significant contribution to body mass (Alunno-Bruscia et al., 2011,
451 Barker & Nichols, 1983, Berthelin et al., 2000, Freeman et al., 2001, Nichols & Barker, 1984a,
452 Nichols & Barker, 1984b). This view would appear to be supported by the increase in
453 benthic larvae (of which mollusc and echinoderm larvae are recorded in the highest
454 numbers) in the water column from May onwards, while community, mollusc and
455 echinoderm biomass decreases after May, perhaps indicating spent individuals. We suggest

456 that this pre-spawning biomass is influenced by temperature. Several studies have noted
457 the role of temperature in triggering gonad development in marine invertebrate species
458 (Aktaş et al., 2003, Balogh et al., 2018, Herrmann et al., 2009, Sastry, 1966, Sastry & Blake,
459 1971), and it is possible that gonad development at L4 is initiated by the high water
460 temperatures recorded in September, with full maturation and spawning occurring the
461 following spring. Gonad development and maturation in some temperate echinoderm &
462 mollusc species has been recorded to take up to six months, which would be in keeping with
463 the six-month lag between peaks in temperature and biomass identified in this study
464 (Bowner, 1982, Kim et al., 2016, Sköld & Gunnarsson, 1996). Although there was no
465 significant interaction between temperature and phytoplankton carbon and their effects on
466 biomass detected in this study, food availability will clearly affect gonad development as it
467 dictates the nutritional status of an individual (Nunes & Jangoux, 2004), and the autumn
468 bloom characteristic of Station L4, along with the carbon from seaweed detritus which
469 contributes to winter organic matter in the area (Queirós et al., 2019) is likely to help fuel
470 gonad development over the winter. In contrast to maximum temperatures, maximum
471 phytoplankton carbon values are generally recorded in April/May, with a response in
472 community biomass seen six months later. It is possible that the relationship between
473 phytoplankton carbon and biomass is indicative of somatic growth, which occurs after
474 spawning has taken place in the spring. The seasonal prioritisation of either sexual or
475 somatic growth in benthic fauna is well documented, particularly in echinoderms (Coma et
476 al., 1998, Greenwood, 1980, Guillou & Michel, 1993, Lozano et al., 1995, Peterson & Fegley,
477 1986). This shift in energetic prioritisation is often related to reproductive effort being
478 concentrated at a time favourable to the survival of offspring, e.g. spawning prior to or
479 coincident with a phytoplankton bloom (Giangrande et al., 1994). The same lagged

480 relationship between biomass, temperature and phytoplankton carbon was also recorded in
481 the predator/scavenger group. The biomass of this feeding guild is dominated by
482 echinoderms (70%), so the postulated relationships outlined above could also be driving the
483 responses of this group.

484 The role of larval supply as a determinant of the structure and dynamics of marine
485 populations (i.e. supply side ecology) has long been discussed (De Wolf, 1973, Lewin, 1986,
486 Thorson, 1950, Underwood & Fairweather, 1989), and there is much evidence to suggest
487 that variations in recruitment can contribute to patterns of abundance and demographics in
488 adult populations of fish (Doherty & Fowler, 1994, Williams, 1980), barnacles (Gaines &
489 Roughgarden, 1985, Scrosati & Ellrich, 2017, Sutherland, 1990), mussels (Scrosati & Ellrich,
490 2017) and bryzoans (Hughes, 1990). We propose that larval recruitment of dominant species
491 is also a key influence on benthic community structure and composition at Station L4. The
492 dramatic increase in community and suspension feeder abundance and biomass in May
493 2014, and the shift in community structure (from one dominated by *Anapagurus laevis* in
494 2009 to one dominated by *T. communis* in 2013/2014) are likely due to the sieve
495 recruitment (the point at which individuals recruited to the population reach a size where
496 they would be retained on the sieve mesh) of the high numbers of gastropod larvae present
497 in the plankton in 2009. Previous studies of benthic recruitment have stressed that sieve
498 recruitment can be far removed in time from actual settlement (Buchanan & Moore, 1986),
499 as many benthic macrofaunal settlers are of meiofaunal size. The lag of 4.5 years identified
500 between mollusc abundance and gastropod larval abundance likely reflects the fact that any
501 newly settled animal needs to reach a size both big enough to be collected by the dredge,
502 and to be retained on the 4mm sieve used in this study.

503 Analysis of the first six years of the epibenthic time series at Station L4 reveals some
504 temporal structure in community abundance and wet biomass, apparently influenced by
505 both bottom water temperature and seasonal phytodetrital input. We suggest that the
506 spring phytoplankton bloom fuels somatic growth, while gonad development and
507 maturation is triggered by warmer water temperature in the autumn, resulting in a pre-
508 spawning biomass peak evident in early spring. Different functional groups within the
509 community were found to respond to the bloom in specific ways, a result that is in keeping
510 with previous studies of the L4 macro-benthos. While benthic faunal responses to changes
511 in water temperatures have been previously recorded in other temperate systems, clear
512 responses to phytodetrital input as seen here are less common. We suggest that the reason
513 we can detect this response is a combination of two factors. 1) The relative impoverishment
514 of the L4 sediment in terms of organic content, indicating a food limited community, and 2)
515 the comparatively small range of bottom water temperatures, resulting in relatively mild
516 winter/early spring conditions and a community that is able to take immediate advantage of
517 bloom sedimentation.

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