1	Sandy beaches as biogeochemical hotspots: the metabolic role
2	of macroalgal wrack on low-productive shores ¹
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18 Abstract

19 Sandy beaches, which represent the most common type of land-sea interface, harbour distinctive biotic communities and regulate the flow of energy between marine and 20 21 terrestrial ecosystems. Accumulations of sea wrack on sandy beaches are of crucial importance for recycling beach nutrients and for regulating trophic connectivity and 22 23 coastal functioning. We investigated the role of beaches as biogeochemical hotspots by 24 examining the metabolic activity in accumulations of different species of wrack on two exposed beaches affected by different levels of human pressure. Experimental wrack 25 patches provided large amounts of different sedimentary nutrients over time due to 26 27 remineralization of the algae. Unsurprisingly, the variation in the nutrients present in the beach sediments was related to the species of wrack considered. Macroalgal wrack was 28 29 metabolically very active and supported high respiration rates represented by intense CO_2 30 fluxes. Importantly, we demonstrated that the wrack metabolic rate differed significantly depending on the algal species considered. Different macrofauna and bacterial 31 32 assemblages were identified in the different wrack patches and on the different beaches. We suggest that human activities such as beach grooming can modify the wrack-associated 33 34 communities, thus contributing to the variability in the biogeochemical processes and 35 metabolic rates. Significant changes in the type and amount of wrack deposited on beaches can change fundamental processes related to the marine-terrestrial transfer of nutrients and 36 energy and to the marine-atmospheric transfer of CO₂ emissions, with ecological 37 38 consequences for nearshore environments.

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41 Keywords: bacterial assemblages; benthic macrofauna; CO₂ emissions; metabolic

42 hotspots; non-native species; nutrient inputs

43 **1. Introduction**

Sandy beaches are valuable ecosystems that provide ecological and socioeconomic 44 services such as provision of harvestable resources, recycling of organic matter and 45 nutrients, coastal protection and social recreation (Schlacher and others 2008). They are 46 also natural habitats for many distinctive plants and animals, and as transition zones can be 47 colonized by highly diverse and unique biological communities (Schlacher and others 48 49 2008). These different components interact in a large ecological network to create the open ecosystems of sandy beaches. Sandy beaches represent the main interface between marine 50 and terrestrial ecosystems and regulate exchanges between these key systems, thus 51 52 contributing to the normal functioning of both (e.g. Dugan and others 2003; Lastra and others 2008; Spiller and others 2010). 53

The spatial input of nutrients via the movement or deposition of organisms or material 54 55 on shorelines around the world is of key significance for relatively unproductive coastal ecosystems such as exposed beaches. This pattern has been increasingly studied in recent 56 57 years (e.g. Inglis 1989; Dugan and others 2003; Ince and others 2007; Lastra and others 2008; Crawley and others 2009; Rodil and others 2015a,b). Macrophytes become naturally 58 59 detached from rocky shores and subtidal bottom habitats and transported to nearby beaches 60 where they accumulate and decompose as wrack for variable amounts of time (Orr and others 2005; Mews and others 2006). Wrack deposits have the potential to provide rich and 61 highly heterogeneous habitats for a range of organisms, including marine and terrestrial 62 63 macroinvertebrates and also microbial communities (Colombini and Chelazzi 2003). Furthermore, by providing external food sources to beaches, wrack becomes an important 64 65 vehicle of carbon and nutrient exchange between different aquatic ecosystems and between marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Dugan and others 2011; Spiller and others 2010). 66 Wrack that is deposited across the entire intertidal range is moved by tides and waves 67

before being washed away. However, wrack accumulations may remain, age and 68 69 decompose on the supratidal areas for several weeks and are often buried, thus affecting the physical and chemical characteristics of the sediments for a long period (Orr and others 70 71 2005). Wrack will thus decay and release nutrients into the sediment, stimulating the growth of bacteria, supplying organic matter for the macrobenthos and modifying oxygen 72 exchange in the sediment (Dugan and others 2011). Typical benthic communities (i.e. 73 bacteria, meio- and macrofauna) also play a key role in the decomposition and 74 transformation of wrack through fragmentation, decomposition and remineralization 75 (Lastra and others 2008; Dugan and others 2011). These processes will depend on the 76 77 quantity and quality of the wrack as well as on the frequency and spatial distribution of the accumulations (e.g. Orr and others 2005; Mews and others 2006; Olabarria and others 78 79 2007; Rodil and others 2008). Most studies of beach wrack have focused on the surface of 80 sediments, and the effects of buried wrack have received only incidental attention (e.g. Olabarria and others 2010; Pelletier and others 2011). Moreover, most studies have 81 82 focused on the fauna, with little consideration given to the metabolism of the community thriving on these deposits, which is likely to be dominated by microbial communities. For 83 example, bacteria are responsible for remineralizing most of the detritus back into 84 85 nutrients, thus playing a key role in the functioning of nearshores (Koop and others 1982, Inglis 1989). 86

87 Interfaces between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems have been recognized as

biogeochemical hotspots (*sensu* McClain and others 2003), and recent evidence shows that
sandy beaches fit this concept for nutrient cycling (Dugan and others 2011). Beach wrack
deposits can be considered metabolic hotspots with high activity and rates of CO₂ flux
relative to other marine and terrestrial habitats (Coupland and others 2007). Community
respiration may be a good indicator of the flow of organic matter in ecosystems (Williams

and del Giorgio 2005). Thus, intense respiration reveals an active metabolic role of wrack 93 94 material, whereas low respiration rates suggest that the material accumulated has a largely structural role (Coupland and others 2007). The metabolic activity of beach wrack has not 95 96 been studied in detail, although it is the foundation for thriving life and the development of diversity in such environments characterized by low productivity (see Coupland and others 97 98 2007). The biogeochemical processes associated with wrack must be investigated in order 99 to improve our understanding of the ecological role of these spatial deposits in supporting the basic processes of nutrient remineralization and beach functioning (Dugan and others 100 2011). The role of these processes may vary depending on the beach considered and on the 101 102 intensity of human impact. For instance, wrack is often removed mechanically from tourist beaches, thus significantly reducing the amounts of organic matter in shoreline sediments, 103 104 offshore nutrient concentrations, and microbial and macrofauna numbers in the terrestrial 105 and aquatic parts of the beach ecosystem (e.g. Dugan and others 2003; Malm and others 106 2004; Russell and others 2014).

107 We considered whether two ocean-exposed sandy beaches act as biogeochemical 108 hotspots (McClain and others 2003) by extending the hotspot concept to wrack deposits. We deliberately buried macroalgal detritus to test the fate and the respiration rates 109 110 supported by beach wrack and to examine changes in the sedimentary biogeochemical composition. Specifically, we compared *in situ* respiratory CO₂ fluxes in four macroalgal 111 species, and we described how the different types of wrack affected the nutrient 112 113 composition and respiratory rates in the sediment over time. In addition, we examined the 114 role of macrofaunal and bacterial assemblages in the wrack metabolic activity and nutrient 115 remineralization by comparing the existing relationships between sedimentary changes and beach benthic communities. We performed the study on two sandy beaches affected by 116 different types of human activity to examine different ecological responses associated with 117

118 different anthropogenic impacts.

119 **2. Material and methods**

120 **2.1.** Study sites, experimental design and set-up

The study was conducted at two nearby beaches: América (AM) and Abra (AB) 121 122 beaches, which are typical of exposed sandy beaches on the NW coast of Spain. Both beaches are influenced by a mesotidal regime with a medium tidal range of ~3.5 m. AM 123 beach (42° 7' 53" N, 8° 49' 83" W), which is about 1280 m long and 103 m wide (low 124 125 spring tide), is located in an urbanized area that receives large numbers of tourists during 126 weekends and summer. The beach has a well-developed seafront promenade, and a dune habitat rehabilitation project was initiated in 2005 in some areas between the promenade 127 128 and the beach. The abundance of macroinvertebrates on AM beach is generally low, and 129 supratidal macrofauna is rarely found (De la Huz and others 2005). AM beach is subjected 130 to frequent mechanical grooming (i.e. daily during summer and holidays and occasionally 131 during the rest of the year) to remove accumulations of detritus from the ocean, including wrack (pers. obs). AB beach (42° 9' 11" N, 8° 49' 49" W), which is about 225 m long and 132 40 m wide, is located in an urbanized area, but is relatively isolated from visitors. The dune 133 134 habitat is non-existent and the space is occupied by old houses and a seawall. 135 Invertebrates, such as amphipods, are abundant on the beach (pers. obs.). Mechanical 136 grooming to remove debris is not currently carried out on the beach (pers. obs.). 137 Despite the difference in the dimensions, these two neighboring beaches are exposed to similar oceanographic conditions and receive similar deposits of algal wrack species 138 (Barreiro and others 2011). Thus, wrack is naturally very abundant, diverse and variable on 139 140 both beaches (supplementary material Figure S1), with patches mainly composed of brown algae spread through the beach shore (Barreiro and others 2011, 2013). Three days before 141 142 the start of the experiment, entire fresh portions of four of the most abundant brown

macroalgal species found on this coastline (Olabarria and others 2009; Barreiro and others 143 144 2011, 2013) were collected. Two native species Saccorhiza polyschides (Lightfoot) Batters, 1902 (hereafter Sp) and Cystoseira baccata (S. G. Gmelin) P. C. Silva, 1952 (Cb), 145 146 and two non-native species Sargassum muticum (Yendo) Fensholt, 1955 (Sm) and Undaria pinnatifida (Harvey) Suringar, 1873 (Up) were collected by hand from nearby 147 rocky areas, transported to the laboratory, separated into patches of similar weight $(1.0 \pm$ 148 149 0.1 kg wet weight) and stored in bags while the decomposition process began. We used a standardized, manageable quantity of wrack that was sufficient to trigger both microbial 150 degradation of the wrack and the macrofaunal colonization processes (Olabarria and others 151 152 2007; Rodil and others 2015a,b). We included non-native species because they are increasingly abundant on shores around the world, with important ecological and 153 154 economic effects on coastal systems (e.g. Rodil and others 2008; Williams and Smith 155 2007; Suárez-Jiménez and others 2017). 156 The experiment began on 13 March 2015 (time 0) and lasted for 12 days, i.e. a 157 sufficient length of time for the wrack degradation and community colonization process to 158 occur (Olabarria and others 2007; Rodil and others 2008; Lavery and others 2013). Experimental patches of each algal species (n = 4) were placed in previously dug (10 cm 159 depth), square holes (0.25 m^2) and were covered with a fine layer of sand (1-2 cm). The 160 spacing between each patch was 2 m apart, and the location was determined by random 161 distribution. On days 3, 6, and 12, four randomly chosen replicate patches were sampled 162 163 on each beach. Thus, a total of forty-eight patches of wrack were placed on each beach at 164 the highest mark of the drift line parallel to the shoreline (i.e. 4 algal species x 3 days x 4 replicates). Procedural sand controls (PC, n = 4), in which the sediment was disturbed but 165 no wrack was added, were established. Wrack degradation, which rapidly affects 166 sedimentary traits, nutrient recycling and community structure of beaches, is dependent on 167

the algal species (Lavery and others 2013; Rodil and others 2015a,b). On day 12, all wrack 168 169 patches left on AB were washed away due to an extremely high spring tide (augmented by a solar eclipse and a *perigee* full moon). 170

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2.2. Sediment and nutrient analyses

172 Sediment samples were randomly collected from underneath each wrack patch to measure sedimentary water content, organic matter and nutrient contents. The water 173 content (%) of sediment samples (~80 g) was calculated as the difference between the 174 initial wet weight and the final dry weight (60°C, 24 h). Total organic matter (OM, %) 175 176 was measured as the difference in the weight of sediment (~ 50 g) before and after ignition (500 °C, 4 h). The inorganic dissolved nutrients in sediments (\pm 20 g) were 177 filtered (2-4 μ m filter paper) to remove any particulate material and stored at -30° C. 178 179 The nutrients were quantified by continuous flow analysis (CFA) in Auto-Analyzer (Bran Luebbe AA3). The Berthelot reaction was used to determine the ammonium 180 181 concentration (NH_4^+) (absorbance at 660 nm); nitrites (NO_2^-) were determined by the sulphanylamide and N-1-napthylethyleneidiamine dihydrochloride reaction (550 nm); 182 nitrates (NO₃⁻) were converted to NO₂⁻ and measured as above. Phosphates (PO₄⁻³) were 183 184 determined by the ammonium molybdate and ascorbic acid reaction (880 nm).

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2.3. Wrack metabolic activity



each wrack patch using a portable soil respiration gas analyzer (WEST Systems 187

fluxmeter[®]). This device, which includes a metallic cylindrical respiration chamber (cover 188

- 189 area 500 cm²), allows measurement of fluxes in 2-3 minutes based on the rate of
- accumulation of CO₂ within the chamber. On days 0 (4 random replicates of freshly 190
- 191 allocated algae), 3, 6 and 12 of the study, the chamber was inserted (approx. 2cm) into the

192 wrack deposit in each corresponding experimental patch by applying gentle pressure to the 193 top of the chamber. Wrack temperature was simultaneously measured with an alcohol thermometer (°C). The fluxes were always measured between 10:00 and 12:00 (solar 194 195 time), because mid-day values of CO₂ efflux have been shown to be representative of daily averages (Xu and Qi, 2001). Immediately after the measurements, we excised the wrack 196 area below the flux chamber (i.e. 500 cm²) with a cutter. The excised portions were placed 197 198 in plastic bags, transported to the laboratory and frozen (- 20°C). All the macrofauna associated with the excised wrack portions were separated and preserved in ethanol (70%) 199 for later identification. All the excised wrack portions were dried (60°C, 48 h) and weighed 200 201 (g) to estimate the change in wrack biomass over time.

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2.4. Wrack-associated bacterial community structure

203 Sediment samples were randomly collected to evaluate bacterial communities by

Automated-rRNA Intergenic Spacer Analysis (ARISA). This technique exploits the

variability in the length of the intergenic spacer (IGS) between the small (16S) and large 205

206 (23S) subunit rRNA genes in the rrn operon (Ranjard and others 2001). The DNA was

amplified using ITSF (5'GTCGTAACAAGGTAGCCGTA-3') and ITSReub (5'-207

208 GCCAAGGCATCCACC-3') primer sets (Cardinale and others 2004), to amplify the ITS1

region in the rRNA. Total DNA was extracted from 1.0 g wet weight of homogenized 209

210 subsamples by using the Power Soil Extraction Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories, Inc). PCRs were

211 performed in triplicate 25 mL volumes containing between 5 and 50 ng of DNA, 400 mM

of both primers, 0.3 mM dNTPs, 3 x Taq PCR buffer, 2.5 U Taq DNA polymerase, 2.5 212

mM MgSO₄ and 1 mg mL⁻¹ serum albumin (BSA). A standardized amount of the product 213

214 was diluted 1:5 and mixed with 0.5 µL of ROX-labelled genotyping internal size standard

(ROX 1000, Applied Biosystems). The sample fragments were analyzed in a genetic 215

216 analyzer (ABI3730 XL).

ARISA fragment lengths were analyzed using Peak Scanner Software (Applied 217 218 Biosystems). Fragments that differed by less or equal to 2 base pair (bp) were considered identical, and fragments with Fluorescence Units below 50 were considered 219 220 "background noise". Fragments > 200 bp were considered too short ITS for bacteria and removed. The bacterial richness was estimated as the total number of unique operational 221 222 technical units (OTUs) identified within each electropherogram (see supplementary 223 material, Figs. S2-S3), where the number of peaks represented the species number 224 (phylotype/genotype richness), and the peak height (fluorescence units) represented the relative abundance of each bacterial species. The Shannon-Wiener diversity index, 225 226 which considers the number of species present and their relative importance within the assemblage, was calculated using the PRIMER S/W (Clarke and Gorley, 2006). 227

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2.5. Wrack-associated macrofauna community

Samples of macrofauna were collected under each experimental patch with a 10-cm 229 230 diameter corer (n = 3), penetrating 20 cm deep into the substratum. The samples were 231 enclosed in individually labelled plastic bags, before being transported to the laboratory. The individuals were sorted, identified and counted to the lowest possible taxonomic 232 233 level. Macroinfauna collected from the sediment and all the macrofauna associated 234 with the excised wrack portions (see section 2.3.) were pooled to obtain total abundance 235 (i.e. counts) and the number of taxa per experimental patch, and used as the main 236 benthic community descriptors.

237 **2.6. Sta**

2.6. Statistical analysis

Changes in wrack temperature, biomass and metabolic activity (i.e. CO₂), and
changes in sediment water content, organic matter and inorganic nutrient concentrations
were analyzed using 3-way ANOVA models. A Type II Sum of Squares ANOVA

(Langsrud, 2003) was used to deal with unbalanced data (i.e. missing data from AB day 241 242 12). Beach (AM and AB), patch (Sp, Up, Cb, Sm, PC), and time (t3, t6, and t12 days, or t0, t3, t6 and t12 days for CO_2) were considered orthogonal fixed factors. Changes in 243 244 bacterial richness (OTUs) were analyzed using the same models. The normality (Shapiro test) and the variance (Levene's test) of the residuals were evaluated, and Box-245 246 Cox power transformations were performed when necessary. Three factor non-247 parametric multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, PRIMER S/W) was used to examine differences between bacterial assemblages (Anderson and others 2008). The 248 data were normalized by presence/absence before being analyzed using a Bray-Curtis 249 250 resemblance matrix (4999 permutations). Significant effects identified were further investigated by pairwise comparisons. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS, 251 252 PRIMER S/W) was used to visualize multivariate patterns in bacterial assemblages. 253 Changes in macrofauna were analyzed by use of generalized linear models (G_zLM), due 254 to the large number of zero values. A posteriori comparisons were performed using the 255 least squares means (lsmeans) package (Lenth 2016) and Tukey's adjustment. 256 We used G_zLM to examine the relationships between the main benthic community descriptors (i.e. bacterial diversity, OTUs and macrofauna abundance) and the biomass, 257 258 metabolic activity and nutrient release from the wrack. We included the same categorical factors as above and the main benthic community descriptors (as co-259 variables) as the predictor variables, and considered wrack biomass (i.e. dry weight), 260 261 metabolic activity (i.e. CO₂) and sedimentary traits (i.e. water content, organic matter 262 and inorganic nutrients) response variables. We first fitted maximal models using all the 263 factors and descriptors (variance inflation factor < 2) to check for interactions between factors and continuous predictors. We simplified the models by removing non-264 significant interaction terms and non-significant explanatory variables. The Akaike's 265

266 Information Criterion (AIC) and the proportional increase in explained deviance (pseudo- R^2) were used to evaluate each model fit. A *posteriori* comparisons were 267 performed by reassigning the "Intercept" term sequentially and using Ismeans. The 268 269 following model assumptions were checked: (i) homogeneity, by examining plots of residuals against fitted values; (ii) normality, by examining quantile-quantile plots or 270 271 histograms of the residuals; and (iii) data independence, by examining plots of residuals 272 against each explanatory variable. All statistical analyses were performed with R software (R Development Core Team, 2016). 273

274 **3. Results**

3.1. Ambient conditions within experimental wrack patches

276 Wrack biomass decreased over time (t3 > t6 > t12; p < 0.001), with significant (p <

277 0.001) differences between algal species (Sm = Cb > Sp = Up) (Figure 1a-b, Table S1).

278 Wrack temperature varied significantly over time on AM beach (t3 < t6 > t12), and it

was higher (p < 0.001) in patches on AB than on AM (Figure 1c, Table S1). The

- sedimentary organic matter content was higher (p < 0.001) in patches of Up at t12 than
- in the patches of the other wrack species (Figure 1d, Table S1). Water sediment differed

282 (p < 0.001) between beaches (AM > AB) and between patches (Up > Sp = Sm > Cb >

283 Sand) (Figure 1e-f, Table S1).

3.2. Nutrient analysis of the sediments under patches

The concentrations of inorganic dissolved nutrients, i.e. NO_2^- , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and PO_4^{3-}

, varied between patches, and patterns differed between beaches and over time (Figure

- 287 2, Figure 3, Table S2). Thus, the concentration of NO₂⁻ under Sp was higher (p < 0.001)
- than under any other patch, except for Up on AB (Figure 2a). The NO₂⁻ concentration
- increased significantly (p < 0.001) over time, only in the Sp patch (t3 < t6 = t12; Figure

3a). The NO₃⁻ concentration differed significantly (p < 0.001) between patches on AM 290 beach (Sp > Up = Cb = Sm > Sand) and on AB beach (Sp = Up > Cb = Sm > Sand) 291 292 (Figure 2b). The concentration of NO₃⁻ under Sp increased significantly (p < 0.001) 293 over time (t3 < t6 = t12) (Figure 3b). The concentration of NH_4^+ differed significantly (p < 0.05) between wrack and the bare sand (control) on AM beach (Figure 2c) and at 294 t12 (Figure 3c). No significant differences in NH₄⁺ concentrations were found on AB 295 (Figure 2c). The concentration of PO₄³⁻ was significantly higher (p < 0.001) in the Up 296 patches than in other patches on AM and AB (Figure 2d) on all sampling dates (Figure 297 3d). The concentration of PO_4^{3-} in the Sp and Sm patches on AM and in the Cb patches 298 on AB were significantly higher than in the bare sand (Figure 2d). The concentration of 299 PO_4^{3-} increased significantly (p < 0.001) over time in both the Sp (t3 < t6 = t12) and Sm 300 (t3 = t6 < t12) patches (Figure 3d). 301

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3.3. Wrack metabolic activity

303 The experimental wrack patches supported high metabolic activities, as reflected by the accumulated CO₂ fluxes: (mean \pm SE) 3.5 \pm 0.4 on AM and 4.2 \pm 0.6 on AB (µmol 304 $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), compared to the mean value of 0.1 µmol $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the bare sand 305 306 control (Table 1). The first wrack metabolic measurements (t0) already showed a significant response relative to bare sand (Figure 4, Table 2). The metabolic rates varied 307 significantly (p < 0.001) between patches, between beaches and over time (i.e. triple 308 interaction, $F_{8,105} = 4.8$) (Table S2). Thus, the metabolic activity in Sp was very high 309 and increased significantly (p < 0.001) over time on AM and AB, although it was 310 311 significantly lower (p < 0.001) at t12 in the Sp patch on AM (Figure 4, Table 2). The metabolic activity was higher in Up than in the other types of wrack (see t3 for both 312 beaches) between patches (p < 0.001) and over time (Figure 4) on AM and AB (Table 313

2). The metabolic activity was lower in the Cb patches than in the other patches at all

times (Figure 4). The metabolic rate in Cb patches on both beaches increased

significantly (p < 0.001) after six days (Figure 4, Table 2). The metabolic rate in the Sm

- patches increased significantly (p < 0.001) after 12 days on AM and after 6 days on AB
- (Figure 4). The only significant difference (p < 0.01) between beaches in relation to the

metabolic activity (AM < AB) was observed for Sm (AM: 0.528 \pm 0.066 $\mu moles~m^{-2}~s^{-1}$

and AB: $1.467 \pm 0.229 \ \mu \text{moles m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$; mean $\pm SE$) at t3 (Figure 4, Table S3).

321 **3.4.** Wrack-associated communities: bacterial and macrofaunal characterization

Bacterial relative abundance and richness ranged respectively from 862 to 298 150

fluorescence units (peak heights) and from 11 to 268 OTUs (Figures S2-S3). The

presence of wrack increased the richness ($F_{4,75} = 2.6$; p < 0.05) of bacteria relative to the

bare sand. OTUs richness increased over time at AM (t3 < t6, t3 < t12; p < 0.01 and t12

326 < t6; p < 0.05) and AB (t3< t6; p < 0.001) (Figure 5a, Table S4). The similarity in the

327 wrack-associated bacterial assemblages between beaches was low, but significant

328 (33.4%, t = 4.2; p < 0.001). The assemblages varied significantly between patches,

between beaches and over time (pseudo- $F_{1,75} = 4.8$; p < 0.001). Thus, Sp and Up showed

the lowest similarities on AM, and Sm showed the lowest similarities to the other

patches on AB (Figure 6, Table S5,). The bacterial assemblages within patches of the

same wrack species showed lower similarity on AM than at AB over time (Table S5,

333 Figure 6).

A total of 1,969 macroinvertebrates from 9 taxa were identified (Table S6). The

number of taxa (AM: t3 = t6 < t12, AB: t6 < t12) and abundance (t3 = t6 < t12)

associated with wrack increased significantly (p < 0.001) over time (Table S4).

However, the number of taxa was significantly larger (p < 0.001) on AB than on AM

338 (Figure 5b). Abundance differed significantly between wrack patches on AB (Table S4,

Figure 5c). Most organisms sampled on AM were dipteran larvae belonging to the Anthomyiidae family (p < 0.001), and most specimens from AB were amphipods (Talitridae family) (p < 0.001). The abundance of Anthomyiidae differed significantly (p < 0.001) between patches on AM (Sp = Cb > Up = Sm) and AB (Cb > Sp > Up = Sm) (Figure 5d), and it increased (p < 0.001) over time (t3 = t6 < t12). The abundance of Talitridae differed significantly between patches, but only on AB (Cb = Sm > Sp = Up = Sand; p < 0.001) (Figure 5e).

- 346 **3.5. Relationships between wrack-related variables and community descriptors**
- Bacterial richness (OTUs) was significantly (p < 0.01) and negatively (Estimate = -
- 348 0.003, t = -2.9; pseudo- R^2 = 59.1) related to wrack biomass (F_{1,74} = 8.85; *p* < 0.01)
- (Figure 7a). Bacterial diversity (Shannon-Wiener index) was significantly (p < 0.05)

and positively (Estimate = 0.22, t = 3.3; pseudo- $R^2 = 24.1$) related to the sedimentary

dissolved inorganic nitrogen (i.e. $DIN = NO_2^- + NO_3^- + NH_4^+$) under the wrack patches

352 (F_{1,73} = 11.2;
$$p = 0.0013$$
) (Figure 7b).

Macrofaunal abundance was significantly and positively related to both organic matter ($F_{1,97} = 4.9$; p < 0.05) and NH_4^+ ($F_{1,99} = 7.3$; p < 0.01) concentrations in the sediment (Figure 7c-d). However, these relationships depended on the wrack species considered (i.e. wrack: abundance interaction, Table 3). Thus, the macrofauna-OM relationship ($F_{4,90} = 3.2$; p < 0.05) was stronger in Up than in the other types of wrack patches (Figure 7c, Table 3). The macrofauna-NH₄⁺ relationship ($F_{4,88} = 6.5$; p < 0.001) was also stronger in Up than in the Cb and Sp patches (Figure 7d, Table 3).

360 **4. Discussion**

The role of beaches as metabolic hotspots and that of wrack as a source of CO₂ are poorly studied topics (Coupland and others 2007). Here we demonstrate the active 363 metabolic role of beach wrack and how different algal species support different wrack364 respiration rates.

365 **4.1. Wrack degradation and metabolic activity**

366 The biomass of all algae decreased rapidly throughout the study period, following a typical wrack decomposition pattern (e.g. Olabarria and others 2007; Rodil and others 367 368 2008). However, the algal biomass differed after 12 days, indicating a species-specific 369 mass loss. Thus, the weight loss was greater in S. polyschides and U. pinnatifida patches than in S. muticum and C. baccata patches. Our results also showed that beach wrack was 370 metabolically very active, and supported intense CO₂ fluxes, thus confirming the findings 371 372 of a previous study also conducted on beach-cast metabolic rates (Coupland and others 2007). Thus, wrack supported higher respiration rates than bare sediments, with some 373 374 patches showing higher rates than reported for other wrack species (Coupland and others 375 2007). Our findings indicate that beach wrack deposits act as metabolic hotspots, as 376 observed in other major ecosystems around the world, including land communities, such as 377 tropical rain forests, and seafloor communities, such as seagrass meadows (see Coupland 378 and others 2007 for explicit comparisons). In contrast to the latter study, we show that wrack differing in species composition had different metabolic rates, indicating a 379 380 differential species-specific metabolic activity. For instance, metabolically reactive S. polyschides and U. pinnatifida are structurally simple algal species with long, labile strap-381 like blades that stack up in layers on the sand and that degrade rapidly and become readily 382 383 available for consumption. S. muticum and C. baccata are morphologically more complex 384 algae with resistant leathery branches bearing secondary branches that slow down their degradation, so that they remain for longer on the beach. Some marine vegetation, such as 385 seagrass, with large and robust structures and known to be resistant to degradation, contain 386 refractory organic matter components that are resistant to degradation and microbial attack 387

388 (Trevathan-Tackett and others 2017). Similarly, wrack structure (shape and toughness) is
389 important in relation to algal-specific biochemical composition (nutrients and phenols) and
390 variable surface:volume ratio in the sediment (e.g. Duggins and Eckman 1997; Bucholc
391 and others 2014).

392

4.2. Effects of wrack patches on sedimentary nutrients and community structure

High levels of sedimentary nutrients associated with the remineralization of wrack were 393 394 recorded, suggesting rapid leaching from the wrack (Dugan and others 2011). Nutrient variability in the beach sediments is often related to different types of accumulations found 395 on the shore (Dugan and others 2011; Barreiro and others 2013). For instance, structurally 396 397 simple algae with the potential to store large quantities of nutrients can cause rapid leaching of nutrient compounds during decay (Hanisak 1993; Barreiro and others 2013). 398 399 Thus, U. pinnatifida provided the greatest amounts of organic matter, probably due to the 400 rapid decay. Similarly, the greatest contributions of nitrate and nitrite (i.e. NO_x⁻-N) were associated with S. polyschides and U. pinnatifida. High levels of NO_x -N suggest rapid 401 402 nitrification of the NH₄⁺ derived from remineralized wrack (Dugan and others 2011). 403 Release of large amounts of PO^{-3}_{4} was also associated with U. pinnatifida. The rapid release of inorganic nutrients during algal mineralization is ecologically relevant because 404 405 these compounds represent a main source of nutrients for microbes and macrofauna (Malm and others 2004: Ince and others 2007). 406

The decomposition of wrack and the consequent leaching of the organic matter into the underlying sediment require the joint action of microbial decomposers and detritivores (Koop and Griffiths1982; Inglis 1989; Dugan and others 2003, 2011). For instance, the dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) stored in the sediments beneath wrack may be associated with degradation and consumption of the wrack by respectively bacteria and macrofauna (Orr and others 2005). Thus, the strong positive relationship between DIN and

bacteria in the experimental wrack patches supports the role of bacteria as key 413 414 decomposers of wrack (Koop and others 1982; García-Robledo and others 2008; Sosik and Simenstad 2013). In our study, large numbers of bacteria rapidly colonized the wrack, and 415 416 bacterial assemblages varied significantly, possibly due to the specificity of bacteria associated with different algae (Barott and others 2011). The activity of bacterial strains 417 418 consisting of several genera with diverse capacities poses an advantage in the presence of 419 different wrack. Thus, the relationship between DIN and bacteria observed in the patches may reflect aerobic respiration by autotrophic bacteria (García-Robledo and others 2008). 420 The rapid rate of degradation and greater nutrient releases from S. polyschides and U. 421 422 pinnatifida, together with significant DIN-bacteria relationships, indicates the need for studies with higher sampling frequency (i.e. daily or even hourly). This type of studies 423 424 would provide more accurate information on nutrient release and a more detailed response 425 of the benthic community to the wrack biomass.

426 The beach macrofauna community is capable of quickly processing detritus and linking 427 oceanic productivity to upper-trophic consumers (Dugan and others 2003). For instance, the organic matter and NH4⁺ concentrations under U. pinnatifida were significantly and 428 positive related to the presence of macrofauna. This macroalgal species degrades quickly 429 430 and is very rich in nutrients that are readily available to consumers and essential for various metabolic functions (Sánchez-Machado and others 2004; Park and others 2012). 431 The beaches under study showed contrasting community structure and colonization 432 433 patterns related to the beach life-history that affected the potential relationships between 434 wrack biochemical composition and associated consumers. Thus, on AM the typical macrofauna were only found at the end of the experiment, and even then, the associated 435 macrofauna assemblage was dominated by dipteran larvae. Conversely, typical wrack-436 associated talitrids were only present on AB, facilitating degradation of the wrack and 437

consequently the beach nutrient cycling. Talitrids were most abundant in the *S. muticum*and *C. baccata* patches on AB. This is probably related to the potential benefits provided
by the structurally complex macroalgae (long-lasting refuge from predation and
environmental stress) as an alternative habitat for the fauna (e.g. Cowles and others 2009).

AM beach is subjected to regular mechanical grooming that removes wrack and 442 modifies the community, while no cleaning activities are carried out at AB. Beach 443 grooming is known to modify the role of the beach microbial community through changes 444 in bacterial production in the underlying sand and in the associated surf zone that can 445 affect the microbial food-web and even the water quality (Malm and others 2004; Russell 446 447 and others 2014). Removing wrack from beaches potentially alters local benthic communities (Dugan and others 2003). The lack of talitrids on AM, combined with regular 448 449 and intense beach grooming, may have created a situation where the presence of wrack 450 triggered the oviposition of dipteran larvae, leading to an increase in the presence of flies. This represents an important change in the beach community scenario from a typical beach 451 fauna to a terrestrial community type. 452

453

4.3. Ecological implications

The role of detrital subsidies on sandy beach communities can be affected in a future 454 scenario of global change. For instance, climate change may alter the amount and identity 455 of the macroalgae growing offshore affecting how much, and the kind of wrack, is 456 deposited on intertidal shores worldwide (e.g. Bishop and others 2010; Byrnes and others 457 2011; Krunhshal and Scheibling 2012; Rodil and others 2015a). As global climate change 458 459 factors increase wrack production (Smetacek and Zingone 2013) and introduced algae spread worldwide (Williams and Smith 2007), unwanted piles of wrack will be cast ashore 460 thus affecting coastal goods and services and challenging the coastal functioning. For 461 instance, U. pinnatifida and S. muticum are highly invasive and colonize coastal areas 462

worldwide, thus potentially influencing benthic communities and food-webs on coastal 463 464 shores (e.g. Rodil and others 2008; Suárez-Jiménez and others 2017). In some areas of the world, the increasing development of massive Sargassum spp. shore-accumulations (i.e. 465 466 golden tides) is known to affect tourism-based economies (Smetacek and Zingone, 2013). However, moderate accumulations of specific species of wrack, including non-native 467 species, may have a positive role on beach communities as trophic deposits (Olabarria and 468 469 others 2009; Quijón and others 2017; Suárez-Jiménez and others 2017). Here, we show that wrack can represent an important source of beach metabolic activity, depending on the 470 type of wrack that accumulates on the beach. Consequently, large wrack accumulations of 471 472 specific algal species can promote high emissions of CO₂ (Coupland and others 2007; the present study), potentially affecting the functioning of land-sea interfaces. For instance, the 473 474 high carbon-to-nitrogen ratio (50:1) of Sargassum spp. makes this alga a very efficient 475 vehicle for sequestering carbon in the oceans (Smetacek and Zingone 2013). U. pinnatifida can also contribute to increasing the carbon export to nearby ecosystems and can alter the 476 biomass export regime as it spreads across shallow coastal habitats (Tait and others 2015). 477 Therefore, increasing accumulations of wrack emitting CO₂ into the atmosphere from 478 intertidal shores can affect the role of macroalgae in marine carbon sequestration (Krause-479 480 Jensen and Duarte 2016). The potential influence of beach wrack in the global carbon balance, mainly during seasonal peaks in accumulation, has not generally been considered 481 and deserves further detailed study. The capacity of beaches as metabolic hotspots and 482 483 wrack as a source of CO₂ adds further value to the many ecological services provided by 484 beach systems. Significant modifications in the quality (non-indigenous species) and quantity (beach grooming/seaweed tides) of beach wrack may change fundamental 485 processes related to the marine-terrestrial transfer of nutrients and energy, and to the 486 marine-atmospheric transfer of greenhouse gas emissions. 487

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Table 1. Summary showing the mean \pm standard error of the metabolic activity (µmol CO₂ µm⁻² s⁻¹) of all the wrack species (^awrack patches averaged over time) and per sampling day (^btime averaged for all the wrack species) from the two study beaches (AM: América and AB: Abra). We also show maximum and minimum values, and the cumulative sum of the CO₂ flux per sampling time (12 days for AM, 6 days for AB) and wrack species.

_

Beach	Wrack species ^a	Mean±SE	Maximum	Minimum	Cumulative	Time ^b	Mean±SE	Maximum	Minimum
AM	S. polyschides	3.4±0.6	8.98	0.71	13.8	time 0	0.9±0.1	1.65	0.04
	U. pinnatifida	6.5±0.9	11.2	1.33	25.8	time 3	2.6±0.7	9.94	0.04
	C. baccata	1.4±0.2	2.26	0.51	5.5	time 6	4.2±0.9	11.2	0.07
	S. muticum	2.7±0.6	8.01	0.36	10.8	time 12	3.6±0.6	8.01	0.07
	Sand control	0.07±0.02	0.11	0.04	0.3				
AB	S. polyschides	4.7±0.9	8.07	0.60	14.2	time 0	1.0±0.13	1.90	0.10
	U. pinnatifida	8.3±1.5	14.9	1.50	24.9	time 3	3.95±0.9	12.0	0.10
	C. baccata	1.5±0.2	2.40	0.80	4.5	time 6	5.1±1.0	14.9	0.10
	S. muticum	2.1±0.3	3.90	0.90	6.4	time 12	-	-	-
	Sand control	0.09±0.03	0.13	0.05	0.3				

664	Table 2. A posteriori comparisons (posthoc tests, lsmeans) on the effects of wrack
665	patches, beach (AM: América, AB: Abra) and time (0, 3, 6 and 12 days) on wrack
666	metabolic activity (CO ₂ : μ moles m ⁻² day ⁻¹) after a 3-way ANOVA analysis (see

667 supplementary material Table S2).

Wrack patch	Beach	posthoc tests ($p < 0.001$)
S polyschides (Sp)	AM	t6 > t12 = t3 > t0
b. porysentaes (Sp)	AB	t0 < t3 < t6
U ninnatifida (Un)	AM	t0 < t3 = t6 = t12
0. pinnanyiaa (0p)	AB	t0 < t3 = t6
C hassafa (Ch)	AM	t0 = t3 < t6 = t12
C. baccata (Cb)	AB	t6 > t0 = t3; t3 = t6
Sumition (See)	AM	t0 = t3 = t6 < t12
S.muticum (SIII)	AB	t0 = t3 < t6
Sand control	AM	
Sand control	AB	t0 = t3 = t0 = t12
Time		
0	AM	Sand $< Cb < Up = Sm; Cb = Sp; Up = Sm = Sp$
0	AB	Sand $< Cb = Sp; Sp = Sm; Cb < Up$
2	AM	Sand < Sm = Cb < Sp < Up
5	AB	Sand < Sm = Cb < Sp = Up
ć	AM	Soud $\zeta G_{m} = C I_{m} \zeta G_{m} = U I_{m}$
0	AB	Sanu < $Sm = Cb < Sp = Up$
12	AM	Sand $< Cb = Sp < Sm = Up$

Table 3. Summary of the generalized linear models indicating the significance of macrofauna abundance on wrack-related response variables 669

(OM: organic matter (%), NH₄⁺: ammonium (µM)), including significant pair-wise contrasts between patches (Sp: *S. polyschides*, Up: *U.* 670

671 pinnatifida, Cb: C. baccata, Sm: S. muticum).

Regression-based models	Coefficient	Estimate	t ^(p)	Contrasts	Estimate	t ^(p)	pseudo-R ²
	Cb:Abundance	0.001	0.67	Cb-Up	0.007	3.24**	
	Sm:Abundance	0.0001	0.04	Sm-Up	0.007	2.5^{*}	20.2
OM ~ Patch: Abundance"	Sp: Abundance	0.001	0.69	Sp-Up	0.006	2.9^{*}	29.2
	Up: Abundance	0.01	4.35***				
	Cb:Abundance	-0.22	-1.28	Cb-Up	1.5	4.8***	
	Sm:Abundance	0.50	1.44	Sp-Up	Up 1.1 3		25.1
NH4 ⁺ ~ Patch: Abundance [*]	Sp: Abundance	0.20	0.80	Sm-Up	0.75	1.7+	35.1
	Up: Abundance	1.30	4.9***	Cb-Sm	0.72	1.9+	

Model summary (G_ZLM)

^aNegative binomial model distribution (log-link structure) to avoid overdispersion.

Proportional increase in explained deviance: pseudo-R². Significance: ***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05; +0.05 .

672 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. Mean (+SE) amount of (a) wrack biomass over time and (b) among algal species, (c) wrack temperature at the beaches over time, (d) sedimentary organic matter between patches and over time, (e) sedimentary water content at the beaches and (f) between wrack patches (time-accumulated). Beaches (América, AM, and Abra, AB), wrack (*S. polyschides Sp, U. pinnatifida Up, C. baccata Cb, S. muticum Sm*, and procedure sand control PC) and time (3, 6 and 12 days). Data are displayed per significant factors

679 (non-significant factors are averaged, see Table S1).

- **Figure 2.** Mean (+SE) amount of sedimentary NO_2^- , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3+} underneath the
- 681 experimental wrack patches (S. polyschides Sp, U. pinnatifida Up, C. baccata Cb, S.
- 682 muticum Sm, and procedure sand control PC) at the beaches (América, AM, and Abra,
- AB). Data are displayed per significant factors (see Table S2).
- **Figure 3.** Mean (+SE) amount of sedimentary NO_2^- , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3+} underneath the
- experimental wrack patches (*S. polyschides Sp, U. pinnatifida Up, C. baccata Cb, S. muticum Sm*, and procedure sand control PC) over time (3, 6 and 12 days). Data are
 displayed per significant factors (see Table S2).
- **Figure 4.** Mean (±SE) wrack metabolic activity (i.e. CO₂) at the beaches (América and
- Abra) compared between wrack patches (S. polyschides Sp, U. pinnatifida Up, C. baccata
- 690 *Cb*, *S. muticum Sm*, and procedure sand control PC) over time (0, 3, 6 and 12 days). Data
- are displayed per significant factors (see Table 2 and Table S2).
- Figure 5. Mean (+SE) wrack-associated (a) bacterial richness (operational technical units),
 and (b) macrofauna taxa at the beaches over time, (c) total macrofauna abundance
 (counts), (d) Anthomyiidae abundance at the beaches (AM and AB) and (e) talitridae
 abundance between wrack patches (AB beach). Beaches (América, AM, and Abra, AB),
 wrack (*S. polyschides Sp, U. pinnatifida Up, C. baccata Cb, S. muticum Sm,* and procedure

- sand control) and time (3, 6 and 12 days). Data are displayed per significant factors (non-significant factor are averaged, see Table S4).
- 699 Figure 6. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) for differences in bacterial
- assemblages between beaches (América, AM, and Abra, AB), wrack (S. polyschides Sp, U.
- 701 pinnatifida Up, C. baccata Cb, S. muticum Sm, and procedure sand control, PC), and over
- 702 time (3, 6 and 12 days).
- **Figure 7.** Responses of the (a) wrack biomass (dry weight) to bacterial richness (OTUs),
- 704 (b) sedimentary total dissolved inorganic nitrogen concentration (DIN) to bacterial
- diversity (Shannon-diversity), and responses of the sedimentary (c) organic matter and (d)
- 706 ammonium (NH_4^+) concentration to macrofauna abundance. Wrack patches: S.
- 707 polyschides, Sp; U. pinnatifida, Up; C. baccata, Cb; S. muticum, Sm.







■Sp□Up■Cb□Sm № PC







748 Figure 6.



