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Assessment of surf zone zooplankton dynamics in a southwestern atlantic sandy beach: Seasonal cycle and tidal height influence

M. Clara Menéndez, Carla A. Baleani, Martin Amodeo, E. Marcelo Acha, M. Cintia Piccolo

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3	ASSESSMENT OF SURF ZONE ZOOPLANKTON DYNAMICS IN A SOUTHWESTERN
4	ATLANTIC SANDY BEACH: SEASONAL CYCLE AND TIDAL HEIGHT INFLUENCE
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6	M. Clara Menéndez ^{*1} , Carla A. Baleani ¹ , Martin Amodeo ¹ , E. Marcelo Acha ^{2,3} and M. Cintia
7	Piccolo ¹
8	
9	¹ Instituto Argentino de Oceanografía. Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y
10	Técnicas. Camino La Carrindanga km 7.5, B8000FWB Bahía Blanca, Argentina.
11	² Instituto Nacional de Investigación y Desarrollo Pesquero. Paseo Victoria Ocampo Nº1,
12	Escollera Norte, B7602HSA Mar del Plata, Argentina.
13	³ Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas y Costeras, Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata-
14	CONICET, Funes 3250, Mar del Plata, Argentina.
15	
16	*Corresponding author: menendez@criba.edu.ar, Camino La Carrindanga km 7.5,
17	B8000FWB Bahía Blanca, Argentina. Telephone/Fax: ++54 291 486-1112/1519 int. 154.
18	
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21	
22	Abstract
23	Surf zones of sandy beaches are poorly studied in comparison to estuarine and
24	continental shelf waters, specifically because of the difficulties experienced in sampling in

high-energy environments. The zooplankton of these areas, therefore, has received less

attention than that in other coastal systems. The aim of this study was to investigate the 26 seasonal patterns and tidal height effects (high tide/low tide) on the surf zooplankton 27 community in a temperate southwestern Atlantic sandy beach. We also aimed to evaluate 28 29 the influence of some environmental variables (water temperature, salinity, chlorophyll-a, suspended particulate matter and particulate organic carbon) on the community structure 30 and to compare the surf community to nearby coastal zone (< to 50 m). Sampling was 31 carried out from September 2009 to November 2010, with a monthly frequency during 32 autumn-winter and bi-monthly during spring-summer. All samples were collected in a fixed 33 station during high and low tide, using a conical net with a 300 µm mesh size. The net was 34 hand-pulled parallel to the cost across 200 m, for 15-20 minutes. Surf waters hosted a very 35 rich zooplanktonic community that were numerically dominated by crustaceans (30-99% of 36 total abundance), especially two calanoid copepods: Acartia tonsa and Paracalanus parvus. 37 The apparent low phytoplankton production detected in surf waters would be compensated 38 by large quantities of detritus and suspended matter that could be an alternative food 39 source for copepods that inhabit surf waters. Total abundances exhibited a strong seasonal 40 variation, ranging from 2.42 (Spring 2009) to 11076.9 ind. m⁻³ (Autumn 2010). The tidal 41 height was not a significant source of zooplankton variation, probably other factors are 42 more influential at this short-term time scale. Surf waters were inhabited by a typical 43 zooplanktonic community, coexisting both estuarine and neritic organisms. Most of the 44 observed species were similar to those described for coastal waters, but others like A. 45 tonsa were practically restricted to this particular zone. Water temperature, in combination 46 with suspended particulate matter and chlorophyll-a, explained the observed temporal 47 zooplankton pattern. Results obtained in this study highlight the importance of the surf 48 waters of sandy beaches and will be useful for further studies and/or monitoring programs 49 conducted in similar high-energy, turbulent, and turbid ecosystems. 50

51 **1. Introduction**

Sandy beaches are highly dynamic environments that make up two-thirds of the 52 world's ice-free coastlines (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). Nowadays, they are under great 53 pressure due to the intense coastal development which include human recreational 54 activities (tourism), pollution, mining, disruption of sand transport, and the development 55 associated with the expanding of human populations (Defeo et al., 2009; McLachlan and 56 Defeo, 2018). Additionally, global climate change has incorporated another dimension to 57 worldwide modifications of shorelines (Defeo et al., 2009; Orlando et al., 2019). Sandy 58 beaches provide a wide range of ecosystem services, many of which are essential to 59 support human uses: sediment storage and associated buffering against extreme events, 60 dynamic response to sea-level rise, breakdown of organic materials and pollutants, water 61 filtration and purification, nutrient cycling, water storage and groundwater discharge, 62 maintenance of biodiversity, nursery areas for diverse species and feeding-breeding 63 habitats for endangered wildlife (Defeo et al., 2009). Despite their ecological and socio-64 economic importance and strong potential as indicator of coastal system state, sandy 65 beaches are underrepresented in the scientific literature. Considering that over the past few 66 decades, these systems have suffered an increasing anthropogenic pressure, the 67 establishment of systematic monitoring programs has become increasingly critical in order 68 to understand the impact of these alterations on the ecological processes and biodiversity. 69

Sandy shores consist of three entities -surf zones, beaches, and dunes- which are linked by the interchange of material (mainly sand) and together they comprise a single geomorphic system, the *littoral active zone* (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). It is characterized by wave- and wind-driven sand transport and lies between the outer limit of wave effects on bottom stability and the landward limit of aeolian sand transport (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). The *littoral active zone* also conform two different ecological

systems: the marine beach/surf zone mainly influenced by wave energy and the terrestrial 76 dune strongly influenced by wind energy. In the beach/surf zone ecosystem, the entire 77 resident fauna is of marine origin. Additionally, the main exchanges of organic materials 78 and nutrients are with the sea, the pathway for such exchanges being the surf zone 79 (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). Besides its importance in shaping the beach and in 80 transporting materials, the water envelope of the surf zone supports a varied fauna of 81 zooplankton and fishes (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). Numerous studies have dealt with 82 surf hyper and epibenthos (e.g. Dominguez Granda et al., 2004; Marin Jarrin and Shanks, 83 2011; Marin Jarrin et al., 2015, 2016) and larvae, juvenile and adult fishes (e.g. Strydom, 84 2003, 2007; Inoue et al., 2008), but less attention has been paid to smaller zooplanktonic 85 organisms (<20 mm) in spite of their importance as trophic intermediates. The difficulties 86 experienced in working in high-energy surf zones have been indicated as the main reason 87 for the lack of this information (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018). 88

Zooplankton has a crucial position in surf zones, functioning as a linkage between 89 primary producers and higher trophic levels such as fishes and shrimps, in addition to its 90 role as environmental indicator (Pinheiro et al., 2013; Oliveira-Santos et al., 2016). It also 91 represents a food source for filter-feeding benthic macrofauna, so changes in this 92 community may have a severe impact on beach ecosystems (Defeo et al., 2009). 93 Zooplankton spatial and temporal dynamics and their relationship with the hydrological 94 variables has been extensively studied in several types of coastal systems (e.g. David et 95 al., 2005; Margues et al., 2007, 2009; Leandro et al., 2007), however, there have been very 96 few studies in sandy beach surf zones (DeLancey, 1987; Avila et al., 2009; Costa et al., 97 2011; Pinheiro et al., 2011, 2013; Aboul-Ezz et al., 2014; Oliveira-Santos et al., 2016; Stull 98 et al., 2016). Moreover, a very limited number of these studies provide estimates of 99 abundance and/or biomass (McLachlan and Defeo, 2018) and most of them are focused on 100

101 tropical and/or subtropical beaches (Avila et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et al., 2011, 2013; Oliveira-Santos et al., 2016). These studies evidenced that seasonal variation 102 in precipitation and the associated changes in salinity, are the main factors influencing the 103 tropical and subtropical zooplankton communities (Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et al., 2011). 104 In other coastal zones located in temperate regions, however, water temperature has been 105 shown to be the most important parameter affecting the distribution and abundance of 106 zooplankton (e.g. Marques et al., 2009). Planktonic organisms in coastal zones are also 107 subject to tidal and diurnal environmental variability (e.g. Margues et al., 2009), which are 108 correlated to changes in wave height, beach slope and light availability (Marin Jarrin and 109 Shanks, 2011). Given their importance in surf zone ecosystems, understanding the 110 zooplankton community structure at different temporal scales and how the environmental 111 112 variables control their variation is essential for a correct interpretation of the ecology of these coastal waters. 113

The purpose of the present study was therefore to examine the seasonal patterns and tidal height effects on the surf zone zooplankton community in a temperate southwestern Atlantic sandy beach. The specific aims were (*i*) to describe the taxonomic composition and the abundance pattern of the zooplankton at seasonal and tidal scales, (*ii*) to evaluate the influence of physico-chemical variables on the community structure and finally, (*iii*) to compare the zooplankton communities from the surf waters and those for the nearby coastal zone (< to 50 m).

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122 2. Materials and methods

123 2.1 Study area

124 The southern coast of Buenos Aires Province, Argentina, is an open and straight E-125 W oriented shoreline (Figure 1). Monte Hermoso (MH) (38°59' S, 61°06' 'W) is a dissipative

sandy beach characterized by a low slope and backed by extensive sand dunes (*e.g.* Delgado *et al.*, 2012; 2017) (Figure 1). The area has a mesotidal regime with semidiurnal tides and a tidal amplitude that varies from 2.33 to 3.35 m for neap and spring conditions, respectively (Servicio de Hidrografía Naval, 2009). The mean significant wave height oscillates between 0.25 and 1.5 m, associated with significant wave periods between 1 and 16 seconds, with maximum heights occurring in spring and minimum ones in winter (Delgado *et al.*, 2012).

MH coastal waters are temperate (6.1-22.9 °C), relatively high saline (33.5-36), and 133 highly turbid (24-64 NTU), with pronounced seasonal variability and homogeneity of the 134 water column all year round (Delgado et al., 2017). MH inner shelf is affected by the Bahia 135 Blanca Estuary (BBE) plume (38° 45'-30° 40' S; 61° 45'-62° 30' W) and consequently, it is 136 highly vulnerable to the seasonal and interannual dynamics of this estuary (Delgado et al., 137 2017). The BBE is a shallow, funnel shaped system, orientated NW/SW. It comprises a 138 dense arrangement of meandering channels and islands, surrounded by extensive intertidal 139 mudflats and marshes (Perillo and Piccolo, 1991). The BBE is considered a source of 140 saline waters because of the relative low fluvial input ($\sim 2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^1$), the presence of salt flats, 141 and the restricted water circulation (Perillo and Piccolo, 1991). Thus, high saline and turbid 142 waters provided by the estuarine plume deflected towards MH coastal waters, creating a 143 highly complex oceanographic and ecological regional ecosystem (Delgado et al., 2017). 144

The region has a temperate climate characterized by warm summers, cold winters, and moderate springs and autumns. Mean air temperatures oscillate between 14 and 20 °C and the annual mean precipitation is 650 mm (Campo de Ferreras *et al.*, 2004). The prevailing wind directions are from the N, NW and NE but the strongest winds come from the S, SE and SW, especially in spring and summer, with mean speeds fluctuating between 22 and 24 km h⁻¹ (SMN, 1992).





Figure 1. General location and map of the study area (top), the surf zone of 154 Monte Hermoso sandy beach (bottom). Also noted in the map is the Bahia Blanca 155 Estuary, the second largest estuarine system in Argentina, South America. 156

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2.2 Field sampling 158

The surf zone waters of MH sandy beach were sampled on 16 occasions from 159 September-2009 to November-2010. For most dates, sampling frequency was monthly 160 (September 2009, October 2009, January 2010, March 2010, May 2010, June 2010, 161 August 2010 and November 2010). During most of the austral spring-summer months, that 162 is November 2009, December 2009, February 2010 and October 2010, sampling was done 163 fortnightly (hereafter mentioned as Month-I and II). No field data for April 2010, June 2010 164

and September 2010 are available as no samples were taken due to difficult weather 165 conditions. Field sampling was conducted at a fixed station (38° 59' 22.8" S-61° 18' 42.1" 166 W) in waters ranging from 0.7 to 1.2 m at high (HT) and low tide (LT), always during the 167 daylight hours. Zooplankton samples were collected by pulling a conical-cylindrical net 168 (300-µm mesh) parallel to the coast across 200 m (15-20 minutes). The net was equipped 169 with a *General Oceanic*[®] flow meter. Samples were immediately preserved in a 4% buffered 170 formaldehyde solution. The mesh size used certainly under-estimates the copepod early life 171 stages and smaller organisms. Thus, mainly larger copepodites and adult copepods are 172 considered in this study which should be discussed with some caution. Surf zone water 173 temperature, salinity and pH were measured in situ using a digital multisensor Horiba U-10[®] 174 (0.5 m depth). At the same time, water samples for determination of chlorophyll-a (Chlo-a), 175 phaeopigments, particulate organic carbon (POC) and suspended particulate matter (SPM) 176 were collected from surf waters and transported to the laboratory in dark and cooled 177 conditions. 178

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180 2.3 Laboratory analysis

For zooplankton analysis, samples were rinsed to remove the formaldehyde and 181 examined under a stereoscopic microscope to identify the organisms to the lowest possible 182 taxon level. According to the lifetime spent as a planktonic form, the organisms were 183 grouped into holoplankton (those living their entire life cycle in the water column), 184 meroplankton (spend only a portion of their early life in the plankton) and adventitious 185 plankton (organisms that occur only circumstantially in the water column; Raymont 1980). 186 Most holoplanktonic forms were identified to species level as well as the gelatinous 187 plankton. Meroplanktonic larvae and benthic or littoral forms were associated to family, 188 order, or class. When more than 200 individuals from each dominant taxon were present, 189

samples were subsampled (1/10). When these taxa occurred in the sample with less than 200 individuals, counting was completed on the entire sample. A taxon was considered 'not dominant' when the estimated abundance in the first one-eighth of the counting chamber was < than 25 individuals. Zooplankton abundances were expressed as number of individuals per cubic meter (ind. m⁻³). Taxon richness was considered as the total number of taxa present in each zooplankton sample.

The Chlo-a concentration ($\mu g L^{-1}$) was determined spectrophotometrically according 196 to APHA (1998). Water samples (250 ml) were filtered through Whatman GF/C 197 membranes, which were immediately frozen and stored at -20 °C. Pigment extraction was 198 done in 90 % acetone for 24 h, placing the tubes in a fridge and in darkness. 199 Phaeopigments concentration was determined using the equations of Lorenzen (1967). For 200 spectrophotometrically POC determination (mgC m⁻³), water samples (500 ml) were filtered 201 202 through previously muffled 1.2 µm Whatman GF/C filters, and the filters with the retained material were frozen and stored at -20 °C until determination (Strickland and Parsons, 203 1968). SPM (mg L⁻¹) was determined gravimetrically filtering 250 ml of water on pre-204 205 combusted and weighed GF/F filters. Thereafter, the filters were dried at 60 °C to constant weight for the estimation of SPM concentrations. Further details related to the analysis of 206 the physico-chemical data can be found in Menéndez et al. (2016). 207

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209 2.4 Data analysis

210 2.4.1 Univariate analysis

Univariate analyses were performed using water temperature, salinity, Chlo-*a*, phaeopigments, SPM, POC, total zooplankton abundance and species richness as

response variables, and seasons (austral spring 2009, autumn, winter, summer, spring 213 2010) and tidal heights (HT, LT) as explanatory ones (including their interaction), by means 214 of a Two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post-hoc comparisons tests. For 215 each single variable, the distribution was visually assessed by means of Q-Q plots and the 216 homogeneity of variances was evaluated using Levene's test. In order to suffice the 217 normality and homogeneity of variances assumption, natural logarithmic transformation was 218 applied for SPM, POC, phaeopigments and total zooplankton abundance. In order to 219 assess the seasonal patterns, we defined season as a main factor by treating monthly or bi-220 monthly samples within a season as replicates. The effect of tidal height was not significant 221 for any variable (two-way ANOVA single term, *p*-values ranged between 0.29 and 0.98, 222 two-way ANOVA interaction term with season, *p*-values ranged between 0.41 and 0.99); 223 hence it was discarded from the models and a one-way ANOVA was performed comparing 224 the seasons using the tidal heights as replicates. 225

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227 2.4.2 Multivariate analysis

Multivariate analyses were performed in order to explore the zooplankton community 228 structure and consisted of Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS), Cluster Analysis 229 and Similarity Percentages (SIMPER). Samples corresponding to each date (monthly or 230 fortnightly frequency) and tidal height (LT and HT) were mapped nonlinearly onto the two-231 dimensional ordination space by means of a nMDS. Before applying nMDS, a 232 standardization of each sample by its total abundance and a fourth root transformation were 233 applied to abundance data in order to reduce its dispersion (Legendre and Gallagher, 234 2001). The ordination of samples in the nMDS was based on Bray-Curtis distance, and the 235 nMDS was supported by a cluster analysis with the same transformation, standardization 236

and distance using a hierarchical agglomerative algorithm with complete linkage. The 237 performance of the ordination was evaluated by a monotonic regression Stress function and 238 a square correlation between fitted values and ordination distances. The 30% most-239 frequent taxa were incorporated in the ordination plot. In order to identify the main 240 environmental variables affecting the community structure, an indirect approach was 241 applied as an exploratory tool, where taxa data were not constrained by environmental data 242 in the nMDS (Ramette, 2007). Environmental variables were adjusted to the nMDS 243 ordination using vector fitting and those variables that showed a significant correlation were 244 incorporated in the ordination plot. This analysis was also complemented by a Similarity 245 Percentage (SIMPER) test determining the main contribution of the species to the formation 246 of the groups. This analysis breaks down the contribution of each species to the observed 247 248 similarity between samples. Also, the effect of season on zooplankton community structure was analyzed by means of a Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance 249 (PERMANOVA, 999 iterations). All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2017) 250 using packages vegan (Oksanen, 2018) and gqplot2 (Wickham, 2009). 251

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253 3. RESULTS

254 3.1 Surf zone environmental conditions

Water temperature in MH surf waters ranged from 12.4 \pm 1.64 (\pm SD, winter 2010) to 22.9 \pm 1.16 °C (summer 2009) and varied significantly between seasons ($F_{(4,22)}$ = 7.92, *p*<0.001) (Table 1). There were no significant differences in salinity or pH between seasons ($F_{(4,27)}$ = 1.4, *p*= 0.258; $F_{(4,27)}$ = 0.9, *p*= 0.426), averaging 33.9 \pm 0.9 (range= 33 - 36.7) and 8.02 \pm 0.04 (range= 7.68 - 8.36), respectively (Table 1). SPM concentrations varied from 28.13 \pm 1.26 (spring 2009) to 108.5 \pm 1.35 mg L⁻¹ (spring 2010) and revealed a marked seasonal variation ($F_{(4,27)}$ = 3.2, *p*<0.05) (Table 1, Figure 2). The amounts of POC were high

262 and quite fluctuating (mean ± SD= 1469.8 ± 1363.8) but they did not show significant differences among seasons (F $_{(4,21)}$ = 0.8, p= 0.527). Mean Chlo-a was 4.28 ± 2.48 µg L⁻¹ 263 (range = $0.05 - 9.16 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$). Phaeopigments were quite variable, ranging from 1.23 ± 1.23 264 to 2.57 \pm 1.23 µg L⁻¹ (Figure 2). None of these variables showed significant differences 265 between seasons ($F_{(4,21)}$ = 2.7, p= 0.059; $F_{(4,21)}$ = 2.1, p= 0.115 for Chlo-a and 266 phaeopigments, respectively) (Table 1). The effect of tidal height was not significant for any 267 variable (two-way ANOVA single term, *p*-values ranged between 0.29 and 0.98, two-way 268 ANOVA interaction term with season, p-values ranged between 0.41 and 0.99). 269

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Table 1. Mean values (\pm SD) per season of the environmental variables measured in surf zone waters of MH sandy beach. *p* value according to ANOVA results is also shown. Levels with the same letter do not differ significantly (*p* < 0.05) according to Tukey tests performed on variables where ANOVA resulted significant. SPM: suspended particulate matter. POC: particulate organic carbon.

Variable	Spring 2009	Summer 2009	Autumn 2010	Winter 2010	Spring 2010	<i>p</i> -value ANOVA
Temperature (°C)	16.77a ± 1.04	22.89b ± 1.16	16.63a ± 1.64	12.4a ± 1.64	17.28a ± 1.34	< 0.001
Salinity	33.36 ± 0.56	34.85 ± 0.63	35.5 ± 0.89	34.73 ± 0.89	34.45 ± 0.72	> 0.25
рН	7.95 ± 0.06	7.98 ± 0.06	8.1 ± 0.09	8.1 ± 0.09	8.1 ± 0.7	> 0.4
SPM (mg L ⁻¹)	28.13a ± 1.26	48.53ab ± 1.3	50.35ab ± 1.45	36.6ab ± 1.45	108.5b ± 1.35	< 0.05
Chlo-a (µg L ⁻¹)	2.77 ± 0.89	3.22 ± 0.89	4.68 ± 1.1	6.99 ± 1.1	4.77 ± 0.89	< 0.1
Phaeopigments (µg L ⁻¹)	1.23 ± 1.23	1.28 ± 1.23	1.72 ± 1.29	1.87 ± 1.29	2.57 ± 1.23	> 0.1
POC (mgC m ⁻³)	126.1 ± 4.9	794.9 ± 4.9	41.2 ± 7.1	816.8 ± 7.1	2168.9 ± 4.9	> 0.5

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Figure 2. Temporal variations of suspended particulate matter (SPM), particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll-*a* (Chlo-*a*) and phaeopigments concentrations during high (HT) and low tide (LT) in the surf zone of Monte Hermoso sandy beach.

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3.2 Surf zooplankton composition and abundance: seasonal patterns

The zooplankton community was represented by a total of 49 identifiable taxa, 286 including species, genera and in some cases higher taxa (Table 2). The overall specific 287 richness was clearly underestimated considering that some organisms were only identified 288 to genus or higher level (mainly meroplankton and adventitious taxa). The holoplankton 289 fraction represented 30.61% of the total taxa observed whereas the remaining percentage 290 corresponded to meroplankton (42.85%) and adventitious fraction (26.53%) (Table 2). 291 292 Copepoda (7) and Cnidaria (7) were the most important groups in terms of number of taxa. Within holoplankton (15 taxa), Mysidacea, Chaetognatha, Apendicualaria, and Decapoda 293

were also observed. The meroplankton fraction (21 taxa) included some medusae, decapod zoeae, gastropod veligers, benthic polychaete nectochaets and fish eggs and larvae, among others. Adventitious plankton (13 taxa) was mainly represented by several crustacean taxa (Isopoda, Amphipoda, Cumacea, and Ostracoda) and foraminiferans (Table 2). Taxon richness showed significant differences among seasons $F_{(4,26)}$ = 3.37, p<0.05), being the spring 2009 significantly higher than spring 2010 (Tukey test p<0.05, Figure 3). However, there were no significant differences in the number of taxa between differents tidal heights ($F_{(1,26)}$ = 3.68, *p*= 0.066).

Table 2. Mean abundance (ind. m⁻³) per season of eachtaxon registered during the sampling period. Horizontallines separate holoplankton (top), meroplankton (middle)and the adventitious fraction (bottom).

Group	Taxon	Spring-2009	Summer	Autumn	Winter	Spring-2010
Copepoda	Acartia tonsa	2.88	157.67	5715.44	497.87	526.04
Copepoda	Paracalanus parvus	24.70	13.70	17.44	280.45	624.06
Copepoda	Ctenocalanus vanus	1.39	2.11	2.61	0	0
Copepoda	Calanoides carinatus	14.21	0	0.31	0.03	18.69
Copepoda	Labidocera fluviatilis	1.44	0.72	0	1.49	1.80
Copepoda	Euterpina acutifrons	0.10	0.01	0	2.46	0.24
Copepoda	Oithona nana	0.02	0	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Liriope tetraphylla	0.05	0	0	4.36	0
Mysidacea	Neomysis americana	0.02	0.02	0	0.91	0.04
Mysidacea	Arthromysis magellanica	0.10	0.01	0.41	0	36.44
Decapoda	Peisos petrunkevitchi	0	0	0	0	3.85
Chaetognatha	Parasagitta friderici	0.09	0.91	2.65	0.98	391.83
Chordata	Apendicularia	22.64	0.15	0.56	8.11	0
Decapoda	Alpheus puapeba larvae	0	0.15	0	0	0
Decapoda	Artemesia longinaris larvae	_ 8.06	0	0	2.11	0
Cnidaria	Gossea brachvmera	0	0.08	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Turritopsis nutricula	0	0.08	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Eucheilota ventricularis	0.16	0.22	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Clvtia spp.	0.07	1.02	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Obelia spp.	0.35	5 54	0	0	0
Cnidaria	Leptomedusae non id	0.00	0.01	14.06	0	0
Decapoda	Pinnixa spp. larvae	0.06	0.11	0	0	0
Decapoda	Corvstoides chilensis larvae	0.03	0.11	0	0	0
Decanoda	Pachycheles spp. larvae	0.00	0.22	0	0	0
Decanoda	Gransidae larvae	0.17	1.05	0	0	0.49
Chordata	Ascidiacea larvae	0	0.15	0	0	0
Mollusca	Biyalyia larvae	0.03	6.32	0.71	0	5 32
Mollusca	Gastropoda larvae	0.06	0.02	0.71	0	0.02
Annelida	Polynoidae larvae	0.00	0.03	0	0	0
Annelida	Spionidae larvae	0.02	0.07	0.05	0.09	0.08
Annelida	Polychaeta larvae	0.02	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00
Echinodermata		0.00	0.00	0.05	0.41	0.02
Echinodormata	Echipoidea, larvae	0.05	0.01	0.00	0	0
Coidaria		0.05	1 36	4 74	0.24	0.16
Chordoto		10.14	0.16	4.74	0.24	1.22
Chordata	Teleostei larvao	0.04	0.10	0.33	0.03	0.72
loopodo	Sorolidoo	0.94	0.56	0.21	0 10	0.72
loopodo	Chaptilidae	0.07	0.50	0	0.19	0.01
loopodo	Anainidaa	0.02	0.08	0	0	1 22
loopoda	Anciniuae	0.02	0.08	0	0	1.23
Amphipodo		0.04	0.01	0.22	0.20	1.02
Amphipoda		0.30	0.00	0.33	0.20	1.02
Amphipoda	Liijeoorgidae	0.04	0	0 40	0	0
Amphipoda		0.04	0	0.19	0	0
Amphipoda		0.03	0.13	1.02	0 70	0
Amphipoda	Amphipoda non id.	0.10	0.11	0.84	0.72	0.32
Ampnipoda	Caprellidae	0.01	0.01	0	0	0
Cumacea	Cumacea	0.09	0.04	0.18	0.03	0
Foraminitera		0.56	0.04	0.11	0	0
Ostracoda	Ustracoda	0.01	0	0	0	0

318 Total zooplankton abundance exhibited strong seasonal variation, being the result of differential contributions of several taxa (Figure 3 and 4, Table 2). Total abundances varied 319 between 2.42 and 11076.9 ind. m^{-3} , with an average of 1201.9 ± 2739.6 ind. m^{-3} (Figure 3). 320 Season was a significant source of variation ($F_{(4,27)}$ = 5.22, *p*<0.05), whereas differences in 321 total zooplankton abundance between HT and LT were not significant ($F_{(1,22)} = 0.28$, p = 0.6). 322 Total zooplankton showed a major peak during early autumn 2010 and others of less 323 magnitude in winter and spring 2009 and 2010. In the remaining dates, abundances ranged 324 between 2.42 and 798.38 ind. m^{-3} (Figure 3). 325



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Figure 3. Number of taxa (a) and zooplankton total abundance (smoothed line made with loess function) (b) during the study period in the surf zone of Monte Hermoso sandy beach. LT: low tide. HT: high tide.

Holoplankton (21.79 and 99.94% of total zooplankton abundance) was the best 332 represented fraction and Copepoda the most abundant group. The dominant copepod 333 species were in the Calanoid class, mainly the estuarine Acartia tonsa and the neritic 334 Paracalanus parvus (up to 99.2 and 48.3% of the total abundance, respectively). The 335 former was present throughout the study period and constituted the bulk of zooplankton 336 observed during autumn 2010, especially in March (99.2%) (Figure 4, Table 2). A. tonsa 337 also dominated in summer and winter 2010, with abundances up 1273.81 ind. m⁻³. P. 338 parvus was registered in almost all sampling dates, and maximum abundances were 339 registered in winter and spring 2010 (up to 635.47 and 1420.9 ind. m⁻³, respectively). In 340 spring 2010, particularly in October 2010-II, it was the dominant copepod species (1409.6 ± 341 15.9 ind. m⁻³), although high abundances of *P. friderici* were also detected (~2300 ind. m⁻³). 342 Lower densities of Calanoides carinatus were registered in spring 2009 and 2010 (up to 70 343 ind. m⁻³), coinciding with *P. parvus* maxima (Figure 4, Table 2). Meroplankton constituted 344 0.05-66.66% of total zooplankton abundance and was abundant principally in spring 2009 345 and summer 2010. Medusae were common in surf waters, especially in warm seasons, 346 being Obelia spp. and a non-identified Leptomedusae the most abundant (up to 33.6 and 347 52 ind. m⁻³, respectively). Teleostei eggs (0.09-110.22 ind. m⁻³) and Bivalvia larvae (0.05-348 22.86 ind. m⁻³) were also important in spring 2009 and summer 2010, respectively. The 349 adventitious plankton comprised up to 34.5% of the total zooplankton abundance and most 350 351 of the taxa were found sporadically.

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Figure 4. Temporal variation of the main copepods' species: *Acartia tonsa*, *Paracalanus parvus* and *Calanoides carinatus* during high and low tide (HT, LT) in the surf zone of Monte Hermoso sandy beach. Note different scales in the abundance axis.

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362 3.3. Relationship between surf zooplankton and environmental conditions

The nMDS enabled the ordination of the samples in a two-dimensional space in which four different groups were identified (stress= 0.20, Shepard diagram linear fit R^2 = 0.77) (Figure 5). These groups mainly represented seasonal changes in the zooplankton community structure. In addition, Cluster Analysis supported the formation of these groups (Pearson Correlation with Cophenetic Matrix, r= 0.71, *p*<0.001), which were clustered at a

dissimilarity level of 58%. Group 1 included austral spring 2009 samples. Group 2 368 represented austral late-spring 2009/summer samples whereas group 3 was formed by 369 late-summer/autumn samples. Finally, group 4 represented austral winter/spring 2010 370 samples. In the nMDS plot, nine of the fifteen 30%-most frequent taxa showed a significant 371 fit on the ordination space (taxa with correlation significance higher than 0.3 were removed 372 from the analysis). According to this analysis, group 1 was also associated with high 373 abundances of Teleostei eggs ($r^2 = 0.6$, p < 0.01) and C. carinatus ($r^2 = 0.67$, p < 0.01). Larvae 374 of A. longinaris ($r^2 = 0.39$, p<0.01), apendicularians ($r^2 = 0.16$, p= 0.057) and C. vanus ($r^2 = 0.16$, p= 0.057) 375 0.32, p<0.01) were also associated to this group. Group 2 was represented by the copepod 376 L. fluviatilis ($r^2 = 0.21$, p<0.05), the amphipod Oedicerotidae ($r^2 = 0.5$, p<0.01) and larvae of 377 Grapsidae ($r^2 = 0.51$, p<0.01), Bivalvia ($r^2 = 0.31$, p< 0.01) and Ceriantharia ($r^2 = 0.17$, p= 378 0.06). A. tonsa (r^2 = 0.66, p<0.01) was strongly associated to group 3 in which it dominated 379 and showed a marked peak. Finally, *P. friderici* was weakly associated to group 4 (r^2 = 0.09, 380 p= 0.25). PERMANOVA analysis also supported that the structure of zooplankton 381 community in MH surf waters varied significantly among seasons ($F_{(4,27)}$ = 4.31, R^2 = 382 0.39, *p*<0.01). 383

Considering the results of the SIMPER analysis, the estuarine copepod A. tonsa was 384 typical in all groups but dominated widely in group 3 (Table 3, Figure 5). This species also 385 dominated in groups 2 and 4 although with lower abundances (Table 3). P. parvus was 386 typical in groups 1, 2 and 4, but its abundance was greater in group 4. Considering that A. 387 tonsa and P. parvus were generally found in all seasons/groups, the differences among 388 groups seemed to be mainly the result of variations in their relative abundance. However, 389 there were clear differences between groups for the rest of the taxa driven by a different 390 zooplankton composition. The most important discriminating species were C. carinatus 391 (contribution= 8.47%) for groups 1-2 (Average Dissimilarity= 63.44); C. carinatus (9.42%), 392

A. *tonsa* (9.30%) and Teleostei eggs (8.98%) for groups 1-3 (75.17); *P. parvus* (7.28%) for groups 2-3 (65.37); Teleostei eggs (8.49%) for groups 1-4 (60.75); Grapsidae larvae (5.49%) and Teleostei eggs (4.97%) for groups 2-4 (60.06) and *P. parvus* (17.44%) for groups 3-4 (58.38).



Figure 5. Cluster (a) and nMDS (b) plots showing the samples groups observed in the surf zone waters of Monte Hermoso sandy beach. Cluster groups obtained at a dissimilarity level of 58% were superimposed on the nMDS plot. The different groups are separated by polygons in different grey scale. G: group. HT: high tide. LT: low tide. SPM: suspended particulate matter. Chlo-*a*: chlorophyll-*a*. (L): larvae.

The vector fitting analysis of environmental variables showed that water temperature ($r^2 = 0.42$, p < 0.01), SPM ($r^2 = 0.27$, p < 0.05) and Chlo-a ($r^2 = 0.25$, p < 0.05) were significantly correlated to the ordination configuration (Figure 5). Thus, temperature highlighted seasonal differences in the community structure between samples, with the highest values during late-spring 2009/summer (group 2) and the lowest ones in winter/spring 2010 (group 4). SPM and Chlo-a were strongly correlated and presented higher values during late autumn/winter samples (group 4) than during late spring-2009/summer (group 2).

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Table 3. SIMPER procedure (cut-off 50%) for zooplankton abundances per group determined by the Cluster/nMDS analyses, showing taxon percentage contribution to the average similarity within groups. In bold letters, the main similarity contribution percentages.

Таха	Group 1 (55.58)	Group 2 (51.59)	Group 3 (51.20)	Group 4 (58.22)
Acartia tonsa	10.29	20.94	28.47	70.76
Paracalanus parvus	16.49	13.2	20.09	5.57
Calanoides carinatus	17.38	-	-	-
Ctenocalanus vanus	10.12	-	11.73	-
<i>Obelia</i> spp.	-	-	13.39	-
<i>Clytia</i> spp.	-	-	6	-
Teleostei (E)	17.52	5.63	3.95	
Grapsidae (L)	-	12.56	-	-
Oedicerotidae	4.29	12.02	-	2.23
Artemesia longinaris (L)	7.18	-	-	
Bivalvia (L)	-	4.88	1.94	9.35

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418 4. DISCUSSION

4.1 Surf zooplankton composition and abundance: seasonal patterns

Analysis of zooplankton community in MH surf zone waters indicated a strong 420 seasonal variation as a result of the differential contribution of several taxa. Despite of the 421 422 perceived severe hydrodynamic conditions, surf waters hosted a very rich zooplanktonic 423 community, mainly composed by organisms typical of both estuarine and neritic temperate waters. A seasonal sucession of dominat taxa was evident throughout the study period, 424 425 especially due to pulses of abundance variation of holoplanktonic taxa and to a lesser extent of meroplanktonic organisms. As expected, the most abundant and diverse 426 holoplanktonic taxa were the calanoid copepods and therefore, total zooplankton 427 abundances reflected quite well the seasonal variation of the copepod populations. This 428 group comprised 21-99% of total zooplankton, a usual contribution for marine coastal areas 429 430 all over the world (e.g. David et al., 2005; Leandro et al., 2007; Marques et al., 2007). Particularly in surf zone waters, these crustaceans also contribute with most of the 431 zooplankton biomass and diversity (Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et al., 2013; Oliveira Santos 432 et al., 2016; Stull et al., 2016). In the case of meroplankton, medusae, benthic 433 invertebrates' larvae and Teleostei eggs were the most important contributors, especially in 434

warmer seasons. This is not surprising considering that gelatinous plankton are more 435 abundant during the austral spring and summer conditions (Schiariti et al., 2018) and that 436 the BBE and neighboring inner shelf region has a high hydromedusae diversity, greater 437 438 than other larger zones along the temperate SW Atlantic Ocean (Dutto et al., 2017). On the other hand, the breeding patterns of benthic organisms may have contributed to the 439 observed seasonality, which has already been reported in other coastal and estuarine 440 waters (e.g. Marques et al., 2009; da Costa et al., 2011). Fish eggs were particularly 441 abundant in the austral spring 2009 which can be related to a combination of responses 442 between fish communities and physical factors, such as dispersion by local currents. 443 Finally, the adventitious plankton abundances never exceeded 0.6 ind. m⁻³ indicating that 444 despite the turbulence generated by the waves breaking, benthic organisms remain near 445 the bottom layer at least during the daylight hours. Only the amphipod Oedicerotidae 446 evidenced a seasonal pattern, being more abundant in the austral late spring-summer 447 months. 448

From a quantitative point of view, the most abundant taxa were A. tonsa and P. 449 450 parvus. The former had an important peak in late summer/autumn, and this could be related in part to the large quantities of detritus occurring in this season. This eurytopic copepod 451 may reach very high abundances in waters containing high concentration of particulate 452 organic matter (Margues et al., 2007), displaying an important degree of tolerance for 453 environmental change (e.g. Margues et al., 2007). A. tonsa has a cosmopolitan distribution 454 and is a widespread species in estuaries of Europe and America (e.g. Mouny and Dauvin, 455 2002; Hoffmeyer, 2004; David et al., 2005; Marques et al., 2007). In the nearby estuary, A. 456 tonsa is found throughout the year with maximum abundances during the austral summer 457 458 and minimum ones during winter, when temperature decreases, and the environment becomes unfavorable for the species. Between June and October, this species coexists 459

with the invasive copepod *Eurytemora americana* in a competitive relationship (Hoffmeyer, 2004). In MH surf waters, however, *A. tonsa* coexist with *P. parvus*. This latter species was present most of the year in surf waters and was very important in June 2010 and October 2010-II. This small-sized copepod is a neritic species widely distributed in many temperate and tropical regions (*e.g.* Bowman, 1971; Liang and Uye, 1996), particularly in surface waters between 0 and 100 m. It is also well represented in the copepod assemblages of the inner shelf of Argentine Sea between 34° and 41°S (Cepeda *et al.*, 2018).

Studies conducted in other sandy beaches mentioned the presence of A. tonsa 467 (Avila et al., 2009; Stull et al., 2016) and P. parvus (Avila et al., 2009) in surf waters, 468 although only the former as numerically important. Additionally, some other Paracalanidae 469 species like Paracalanus quasimodo and Paracalanus aculeatus are common and can 470 dominate surf waters of Brazilian beaches (Avila et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et 471 al., 2011, 2013). The bentho-pelagic E. acutifrons has been also reported in surf waters of 472 Ajuruteua beach in Northern Brazil, but as dominant taxon (Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et 473 al., 2011, 2013). This was related to the high concentrations of SPM and to the 474 475 resuspension of the organisms due to the energetic conditions of the surf waters (Pinheiro et al., 2013). C. vanus has also been reported as abundant in Tramandaí Beach in 476 Southern Brazil (Avila et al., 2009). In the SW Atlantic, C. carinatus is a marine cold-water 477 species mainly related to cold and nutrient-rich upwelled waters (Lopes et al., 1999) and to 478 local upwelling events (Ramírez and Sabatini, 2000). 479

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481 4.2 Relationship between surf zooplankton and environmental conditions

482 Coastal systems in temperate zones regularly exhibit spatio-temporal gradients, both 483 in environmental variables and zooplankton assemblages, because of their tight physical-

484 biological coupling (Margues et al., 2006). In this work, water temperature in combination with SPM and Chlo-a were closely correlated with zooplankton community structure. The 485 well-defined temporal gradient is a common feature of other temperate coastal systems, 486 487 where most of the environmental variability is attributed to a strong regional seasonality, and temperature is the main variable determining monthly zooplankton species composition 488 and abundance (e.g. David et al., 2005; Leandro et al., 2007; Marques et al., 2009; 489 Modéran et al., 2010). Temperature has already been mentioned as the most important 490 environmental factor determining species' seasonal distribution (Margues et al., 2009). 491 However, there are very few studies that consider the spatio-temporal zooplankton 492 dynamics and its association with environmental variables in surf zones worldwide. Aboul 493 494 Ezz et al. (2014) also related the zooplankton variability in Matrouh Beaches (Mediterranean Sea, Egypt) to seasonal changes in water temperature, especially for 495 Copepoda group. Additionally, these authors stated that some species like Oithona nana 496 were spatially controlled by local salinity variations. In surf waters of Brazilian beaches, 497 498 zooplankton abundances correlated with precipitations levels, wich affected salinity through variations in the fluvial discharge (Avila et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2011; Pinheiro et al., 2011, 499 2013). However, variations in temperature tend to have little effect on them (Costa et al., 500 2011). Changes in salinity were not significant during the present study, hence, they had 501 little effect on zooplankton community. 502

503 Chlo-*a* concentrations in surf waters were higher than those registered in the 504 adjacent continental shelf (Delgado *et al.*, in press). These authors reported values 505 between 0.5 and 2.85 μ g L⁻¹ (mean= 1.8 μ g L⁻¹) for stations located in the inner shelf 506 offshore MH beach. Therefore, food supply accessible to zooplanktonic organisms is 507 apparently higher in surf than in nearby ocean waters, explaining in part the registered 508 zooplankton abundances. However, Chlo-*a* was very low compared with other beach

509 systems in which surf-diatom accumulation occur and concentrations can reach up to 1700 ug L⁻¹ (e.g. Rörig and Garcia, 2003; Odebrecht et al., 2010). In MH surf waters, the low 510 phytoplankton biomass as Chlo-a in combination with high amounts of particulate matter, 511 512 could be more appropriate to explain the high zooplankton abundances observed. The strong local hydrodynamic -turbulence generated by the waves when they brake would be 513 responsible for the high concentrations of SPM and turbidity of the water column. So, the 514 surf zone can be thought as a physically dynamic environment that may drive closely 515 coupled trophic interactions among surf zone habitants. Accordingly, Stull et al. (2016) 516 suggested that the turbulence increases the encounter rates between small-consumers and 517 small-preys, motivating a strong coupling between phytoplankton production and 518 zooplankton and as a consequence, between zooplankton and their predators. 519

Additionally, POC values were high in MH surf waters. It has been suggested that 520 521 most of C source present in surf zones is in the form of detritus (55-85%) and non-live material (13-43%), and not as live fraction (phytoplankton) (Talbot and Bate, 1988). In other 522 coastal zones like estuaries, many researchers have noted the paradox between high 523 524 copepod biomass with a large quantity of suspended matter and low phytoplankton production (David et al., 2005). This suggests the possible use of detritus as a food source 525 for copepods (e.g. Roman, 1984; Irigoien and Castel, 1995; Richoux and Froneman 2008). 526 Roman (1984) showed that the ingestion rate of *A. tonsa* on detritus (alone and mixed with 527 algae) increased over the range of concentrations tested. Further, Roman et al. (2001) 528 suggested that the ability of some copepod species to ingest detritus allows them to 529 prosper in areas of maximum turbidity. In the Kariega Estuary, South Africa, Richoux and 530 Froneman (2008) revealed that zooplankton used both phytoplankton and detritus as food. 531 Particularly in the BBE, Diodato and Hoffmeyer (2008) stated that when phytoplankton and 532 microzooplankton are scarce in the estuary, suspended matter and detritus become the 533

534 main food of plankton, especially for *A. tonsa* and benthic filter-feeding consumers. Results 535 of the present study indicate that in surf waters of this sandy beach, adjacent to the BBE, 536 suspended matter and detritus could also be an alternative food source for zooplanktonic 537 organisms, instead of phytoplankton.

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539 4.3 Comparison between surf- and inner continental shelf zooplankton communities

In surf waters of beaches, a question arises: is the zooplankton community similar to 540 that observed in nearby coastal waters (< 50 m depth)? or is it a different one, completely 541 adapted to the particular conditions (high turbulence and turbidity)?. For the southern 542 coastal area of Buenos Aires province (38-41° S), Marrari et al. (2004) described the 543 zooplankton community as dominated by the copepods L. fluviatilis, C. vanus, Paracalanus 544 spp., E. acutifrons, O. nana, C. cf. carinatus, and the cladoceran Evadne nordmanni (Figure 545 6, provided as supplementary material). Most of these taxa are small, omnivorous and fast-546 reproducing organisms, better adapted to warmer, variable and less productive coastal 547 areas in comparison with middle shelf waters. Meroplanktonic larvae (decapod, bivalve) 548 and medusae are also found in coastal waters, consistent with their dependence on benthic 549 phases (Marrari et al., 2004). Viñas et al. (2013) included O. nana, O. helgolandica and P. 550 parvus as dominant copepods in the coastal region between 38° and 40° S (Figure 6). 551 Copepods smaller than one millimeter are mentioned as numerically dominant; however, 552 the nets employed in the present study underestimated this fraction. E. nordmanni and 553 Podon polyphemoides and the appendicularian Oikopleura dioica were also registered as 554 dominant in the coastal zone < to 50 m depth (Viñas et al., 2013) (Figure 6). The 555 dominance of A. tonsa can be related to the proximity of the BBE, however, it is clear that 556 its higher abundances are restricted to these turbulent and turbid waters because it has not 557

been practically mentioned for nearby coastal waters < to 50 m. Conversely, this copepod 558 dominates in the Rio de la Plata estuary but also in the Argentine inner shelf as far as 51°S 559 (Marrari et al., 2004; Viñas et al., 2013; Derisio et al., 2014). A gradual decrease in their 560 relative abundance can be observed across shelf coinciding with a reduction of estuarine 561 influence (Cepeda et al., 2018). More experiments and samplings are evidently necessary 562 to understand why A. tonsa distribution is restricted to surf waters in the southwestern coast 563 of Buenos Aires Province. Even though most of the taxa registered in MH surf zone are 564 also mentioned for the inner shelf waters, the surf community is dominated by the estuarine 565 copepod A. tonsa whose local distribution is practically restricted to this zone. Therefore, 566 our results also show that in surf waters, estuarine and neritic species coexist, evidencing 567 the connection between these ecosystems. 568

In conclusion, the present study provides evidence that MH sandy beach surf zone 569 570 hosts a very rich zooplanktonic community which shows a strong seasonality and is numerically dominated by crustaceans, especially two calanoid copepods: A. tonsa and P. 571 parvus. Other planktonic forms such apendicularians, mysids, chaetognaths and shrimps 572 are sporadically important in these waters. Meroplankton abundance is low in relation to 573 holoplankton and is mainly represented by some medusae species but also by benthic 574 invertebrate larvae, and fish eggs. Despite the turbulent conditions in surf waters, the 575 adventitious component is very scarce. Surf waters are inhabited by a typical zooplanktonic 576 community, with some species similar to those registered in coastal waters, and others like 577 A. tonsa practically restricted to this particular zone. The present results also show that in 578 surf waters, estuarine and neritic species coexists, evidencing the connection between both 579 ecosystems. Water temperature in combination with SPM and Chlo-a, explain the observed 580 zooplankton seasonal pattern. The apparent low phytoplankton production detected in surf 581 waters would be compensated by large quantities of detritus and SPM, which could be an 582

alternative food source for copepods that inhabit these waters. These results can be
 considered for further studies and/or technical programs conducted in a similar high-energy,
 turbulent and turbid beach ecosystem.

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Figure 6 (supplementary material). Typical profile of a sandy 590 beach ecosystem and the adjacent inner shelf waters. 591 Averagae abundance (ind. m⁻³) of the main zooplanktonic 592 species that characterize MH surf zone (our data) and waters 593 of the southern coastal area of Buenos Aires Province (38-41° 594 S), Argentina (based on data by Marrari et al., 2003 and Viñas 595 et al., 2013). In bold are represented the most abundant 596 species. 597



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