

## Linking multiple facets of biodiversity and ecosystem functions in a coastal reef habitat

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#### 51 1. INTRODUCTION

Ecosystems worldwide are experiencing increasing rates of biodiversity loss mainly caused 52 by land and sea use changes, direct resource exploitation and climate change (IPBES 2019). 53 This biodiversity crisis triggered in the 1990s a new line of work investigating the links between 54 55 biodiversity and ecosystem functioning and the mechanisms underpinning these relationships, known today as BEF research (Hooper and Vitousek, 1997; Tilman, 1997). Focusing first on 56 terrestrial autotrophic ecosystems, many experimental studies found that an increase in plant 57 species richness led to an increase in ecosystem functions, such as primary production and 58 nutrient cycling (Cardinale et al., 2011; Hector et al., 1999; Naeem et al., 1996). Nonetheless, 59 60 species richness is not the unique driver of ecosystem functioning and considering the diversity of functions performed by species (*i.e.* functional diversity) is also key when studying BEF 61 relationships (Hooper et al., 2005). For example, functional identity of species and functional 62 63 diversity among grassland species, rather than species diversity per se, together promote primary production and decomposition (Mouillot et al., 2011). More generally, ecosystem 64 65 functioning can be promoted by a higher diversity of species and their functional traits through mechanisms like resource partitioning and niche complementarity, as stated by the diversity 66 hypothesis (Tilman, 1997). Among species assemblages, dominant species and their traits can 67 68 also promote an ecosystem's functioning through a selection effect linked to competitive differences (Cadotte, 2017), as stated by the mass ratio hypothesis (Grime, 1998). 69

In aquatic ecosystems, sediments and microorganisms are key in regulating biogeochemical functions like organic matter remineralization and nutrient cycling (Jones et al., 1985). Larger benthic fauna able to rework sediments (bioturbation) and/or to transfer solutes (bioirrigation) also influence strongly these functions (Kristensen, 1988; Stief, 2013). High densities of sediment-reworking species (*e.g.* fiddler crabs *Uca* spp. in Kristensen (2008)) modify the sediment resource through various biological activities like feeding, burrowing or

ventilation and can be considered as allogenic ecosystem engineers (Jones et al., 1994). 76 77 Conversely, autogenic ecosystem engineers like mangrove trees or salt marsh plants "change the environment via their own physical structures", often creating new habitats (Jones et al., 78 79 1997, 1994). Many different organisms engineer marine habitats, from mollusks (e.g. Crassostrea virginica) and polychaetes (e.g. Phragmatopoma caudata) to cnidarians (e.g. 80 scleractinian corals) and plants (e.g. Zostera marina) (Goldberg, 2013). These engineers often 81 82 have a positive effect on local species richness through the reduction of abiotic and biotic pressures like thermal stress and predation (Romero et al., 2015; Stachowicz, 2001) and could 83 also promote, through their density, the functioning of the engineered ecosystem, a potential 84 85 role called the engineer effect.

Classically, BEF studies in aquatic ecosystems focused on soft sediments, considering 86 biogeochemical fluxes as the response variable while controlling for macrofauna species 87 88 richness and/or functional group richness. Such studies generally reported positive BEF relationships, while stressing the role of the species' functional identity and density (Covich et 89 al., 2004; Gamfeldt et al., 2015). In such controlled experiments, interspecific interactions like 90 resource use complementarity are limited by the manipulation of low diversity levels that 91 92 represent only a fraction of the local species pool (Brose and Hillebrand, 2016; Thrush and 93 Lohrer, 2012). Conversely, observational in situ studies can consider natural multi-trophic communities along environmental gradients (Godbold and Solan, 2009) helping for example, 94 to tease apart the effects of abiotic and biotic factors on ecosystem processes (Brose and 95 Hillebrand, 2016). More generally, new hypothesis and "a more integrated empirical approach 96 to BEF research" can stem from observational studies (Thrush and Lohrer, 2012). 97

We aimed at bringing new insights on BEF relationships drawn from observations of a
temperate reef ecosystem built by a primary consumer, the honeycomb-worm *Sabellaria alveolata*. Despite their ubiquity and the many ecosystem services they provide (IPBES, 2019;

Romero et al., 2015), bivalve and polychaete reefs are rarely investigated in the context of BEF 101 102 research. Studies measuring functions like respiration or calcification, mainly focus on the engineer species, overlooking the role the associated organisms could have in regulating these 103 functions (Kellogg et al., 2013; Lejart et al., 2012; Newell et al., 2002; Smyth et al., 2016). 104 105 Natural diversity gradients often occur in ecosystems dominated by an engineer species (e.g. mussels, oysters, tubiculous worms), giving us the opportunity to investigate how this particular 106 species and the associated fauna influence functions like biogeochemical fluxes (Bouma et al., 107 2009; Jones et al., 2018; Norling and Kautsky, 2007). 108

Sabellaria alveolata is an intertidal ecosystem engineer distributed along the European 109 110 Atlantic coast from Scotland to Morocco (Muir et al., 2016). Once settled on the seabed, this polychaete builds a tube using mostly bioclastic particles (Le Cam et al., 2011). When 111 environmental conditions are favorable, S. alveolata can form bioconstructions on rocky shores 112 or on soft sediments (Dubois et al., 2002; Gruet, 1972; Holt et al., 1998), where a diverse and 113 abundant fauna establishes (Dias and Paula, 2001; Jones et al., 2018; Porta and Nicoletti, 2009). 114 These habitats undergo natural cycles of growth (progradation) and decline (retrogradation) 115 (Curd et al. 2019) forced by abiotic factors like particle availability (Le Cam et al., 2011) and 116 hydrodynamic forces (Gruet, 1986) and by biotic factors like recruitment strength (Avata et al., 117 118 2009; Dubois et al., 2007a) and interspecific competition (Dubois et al., 2007b). These cycles are mostly characterized by modifications of the reef's physical structure (Curd et al., 2019) 119 and by changes in the associated fauna in terms of richness, abundance and composition 120 121 (Dubois et al., 2002). Anthropogenic disturbances like trampling and coastal modifications can also modify the reef's structure and the associated fauna (Desroy et al., 2011; Dubois et al., 122 2006; Jones et al., 2018; Plicanti et al., 2016). 123

In this study, we investigated the biogeochemical functioning of a reef habitat engineered
by *S. alveolata* and evaluated the relative support of the engineer effect hypothesis, the diversity

hypothesis, and the mass-ratio hypothesis on driving key benthic processes taking place in the 126 sediments glued into bioconstructions by the tube-building activity of S. alveolata (i.e. 127 engineered sediments). First, we measured and compared the sediment-water fluxes (i.e. 128 oxygen, ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite) in the engineered sediments and in the surrounding soft 129 sediments. Then, using a multiple linear regression approach (model selection and effect size 130 calculation), we investigated the relative importance of the engineer itself (engineer effect 131 hypothesis) and of the macrofauna associated to the engineered sediments, in terms of 132 taxonomic or functional diversity (diversity hypothesis) and in terms of biological trait 133 dominance (mass-ratio hypothesis) on the different biogeochemical fluxes. 134

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- 136 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### 137 *2.1. Study area*

The bay of Mont-Saint-Michel is a macrotidal bay located in the English Channel between 138 Brittany and Normandy, characterized by an intertidal zone covering over 250 km<sup>2</sup> and a mean 139 spring tide range of 14.5 m (Bonnot-Courtois et al., 2004). In its central part, the Sainte-Anne 140 reef (48°38'700N and 1°40'100W) is the largest bioconstruction in Europe, built by the 141 gregarious and tubiculous polychaete S. alveolata (Gruet, 1972; Holt et al., 1998). This part of 142 143 the bay is characterized by a high proportion of bioclastic sediments with increasing medium grain size from the intertidal to the subtidal zone (Bonnot-Courtois et al., 2004). The Sainte-144 Anne reef is located in the lower intertidal zone (between the -2 and -4 m isobaths), parallel to 145 146 the coastline, perpendicular to the dominant tidal currents and ca. 3 km from the shoreline (Dubois et al., 2006; Noernberg et al., 2010). Because S. alveolata bioconstructions occur in 147 systems where this species finds soft sediment material to build its tube and hard substrata to 148 settle on (Curd et al. 2019), the Sainte-Anne reef is composed of a mosaic of structures built by 149

the engineer species (hereafter called engineered sediment, 32 ha in 2014, pers. obs.)surrounded by soft sedimentary features (Jones et al., 2018).

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#### 2.2. Field sampling and experimental set-up

We sampled four dominant sediment typologies according to Curd et al. (2019): (1) 154 engineered sediment in prograding phase, identified by growing and expanding tubes, without 155 156 epibiontes (hereafter called Undisturbed Engineered Sediment or UES), (2) engineered sediment in retrograding phase, identified by tubes lacking apertures, often covered by biofilm 157 and epibiontes (hereafter called Disturbed Engineered Sediment or DES), (3) soft sediment 158 159 composed of coarse sand (CS) with bioclastic elements and (4) soft sediment composed of fine and muddy sand (MS). We sampled these four typologies 3 times over a year, according to a 160 temperature gradient: in winter (February, water temperature =  $8^{\circ}$ C), in spring (April, water 161 temperature =  $12^{\circ}$ C) and in summer (September, water temperature =  $17^{\circ}$ C). During each 162 sampling period, we randomly extracted four cores – at low tide – across a surface of *ca*. 100 163 m<sup>2</sup> of each sediment typology using either a toothed metal corer (15 cm diameter) for the 164 engineered sediment cores or 35-cm long Perspex tubes (15 cm diameter) for the soft sediment 165 cores. We immediately transferred the engineered sediment cores into 35-cm long Perspex 166 167 tubes (15 cm diameter), sealed all the tubes and transported them to the laboratory where we placed them inside a dark refrigerated room. Prior to the coring, we collected 40 liters of 168 seawater next to the reef - during high tide - using inflatable bags to avoid bubbles that we 169 170 stored in a dark room at the *in situ* water temperature.

In the laboratory, we filled the Perspex tubes with the collected water, sealed them with caps equipped with small magnetic stirrers, connected them *via* a tube to the inflatable water reserve tank and incubated them respecting the *in situ* water temperature. We started the incubations *ca.* 2 hours after the sampling and incubated the 16 cores sampled during each campaign between 3 and 15 hours, until a loss of 30% of the initial dissolved oxygen concentration measured in each core. During the incubations, we sampled 6 to 8 times both the water overlying the sediment and the water from the reserve tank (control water) using a 60 ml plastic syringe (see Denis et al. (2001) for further details on the incubation set up). Finally, we measured the oxygen, ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite concentrations in all the water samples, and we used the difference between concentration changes in the overlying water of each core and control water to calculate the sediment-water fluxes.

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#### 2.3. Flux measurements and calculations

184 To determine oxygen concentration, we gently transferred the required volume from the 60 185 ml plastic syringe into a 10 ml glass flask using a tubing and allowing overflow from the flask to avoid air bubbles. We then measured oxygen concentration using an oxygen Clark-type 186 187 microsensor (Revsbech, 1989) characterized by a 90 % response time of <8s, a stirring sensitivity of <1.5 % and a current drift of <1 %  $h^{-1}$  (Unisense A/S, Aarhus, Denmark, 100 $\mu$ m 188 tip diameter). Linear two-point calibration of each microelectrode was systematically 189 performed before and after each series of measurements. Zero oxygen current was measured in 190 the anoxic zone of an additional sediment core with muddy sediments while a 100% oxygen 191 192 level was calibrated using air-bubbled water. To determine the other concentrations, we filtered the volume remaining in the syringe through GF/F Whatman glass fiber filters before 193 transferring them into a 20 ml polyethylene flask for ammonium analysis and a 10ml 194 polyethylene tube for nitrate and nitrite analysis. We immediately carried out the ammonium 195 analysis following the indophenol-blue method (Solórzano, 1969). We froze the remaining 196 samples and measured later on the nitrate and nitrite concentrations using a Seal autoanalyzer, 197 following the protocol of Tréguer & Le Corre (1975). We determined the fluxes by regressing 198 the change in overlying water concentration versus time and considered fluxes as null when 199

non-significant regressions (Pearson correlation, p > 0.05) based on changes over time were 200 less than the analytical variability. For all fluxes, we systematically applied a correction for 201 water replacement. We measured a significant oxygen consumption during all the incubations 202 (p < 0.05). We considered the ammonium  $(NH_4^+)$ , nitrate  $(NO_3^-)$  and nitrite  $(NO_2^-)$  fluxes (from 203 the sediment to the overlying water) from the following cores as null; two spring CS cores for 204 the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes, all the summer MS cores for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> fluxes and two spring MS cores, one 205 summer MS core and one summer CS core for the NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> fluxes. Finally, we expressed the nitrate 206 and nitrite fluxes of each core as a sum we called nitrate + nitrite flux (NO<sub>2+3</sub>) and considered 207 the oxygen flux as going from the overlying water to the sediment, hereafter called the sediment 208 209 oxygen demand (SOD).

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#### 2.4. Macrofauna taxonomic and functional diversity

At the end of each incubation, we fixed the sediment cores using a 5 % formaldehyde 212 solution, before sieving them through a 1-mm square mesh. We sorted the macrofauna (>1 mm) 213 and identified it to the lowest taxonomic level, often species level (except for Nemerteans, 214 Nematodes and Tubificoides, see Table S1). For each core, we measured the abundance and the 215 ash-free dry weight (AFDW – 4 hours at 550°C) of each taxonomic group including the 216 217 engineer species S. alveolata and then standardized the different measurements taken for each core (fluxes, macrofauna abundance and biomass) to unit surface. First, we characterized the 218 macrofauna according to each species taxonomic identity, before calculating Hill's indices (*i.e.* 219 220 the number equivalents of three diversity indices), always including S. alveolata (Hill, 1973): the species richness (SR), the exponential of Shannon-Wiener (log<sub>e</sub>) calculated using either the 221 abundance (N1<sub>ab</sub>) or the biomass (N1<sub>biom</sub>) and the inverse of Simpson's dominance calculated 222 using either the abundance (N2<sub>ab</sub>) or the biomass (N2<sub>biom</sub>). Hill's indices are recommended for 223

- the study of benthic communities (Gray, 2000) and have the "doubling" property, making their
- 225 interpretation more straightforward than the raw Shannon-Wiener and Simpson dominance
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Table 1. Macrofauna biological traits and associated modalities used to calculate the functional diversity indices. For each trait, we indicated the macrofauna processes linked to organic matter remineralization and nutrient cycling, along with the macrofauna processes linked to the ecosystem functions via microorganism processes.

Trait and associated	Direct	Via microorganism	References
modalities	macrofauna	processes	
Maximum size (literature, mm): <10 [10-50] [50-100] [100-200] >200	respiration, excretion of DIN	egestion of POM via remineralization, transport of solutes and $O_2$ via nitrification, denitrification	Hildrew et al. (2007); Kristensen (1988); Shumway (1979); Vanni (2002)
Daily movement capacity: No movement Low (<1 m) Medium (1-10 m) High (>10 m)	respiration, excretion of DIN	transport of solutes and $O_2$ via nitrification, denitrification, remineralization	Kristensen (1988); Queirós et al. (2013); Shumway (1979)
Sediment reworking: Epifauna Surficial modifiers Upward and downward conveyors Biodiffusors Regenerators		transport of solutes and $O_2$ via nitrification, denitrification, remineralization	Janson et al. (2012); Queirós et al. (2013); Solan et al. (2004); Thrush et al. (2006)
Feeding mode: Suspension feeder Surface deposit feeder Sub-surface deposit feeder Predator-scavenger Grazer	respiration, excretion of DIN, ingestion of POM	egestion of POM via remineralization	Janson et al. (2012); Kristensen (1988); Thrush et al. (2006)
Bathymetric preference: Intertidal Subtidal	c nitrogen POM: pa	informs indirectly on the engineered sediment's thermal properties which can mediate microorganism processes ticulate organic matter	Gutiérrez and Jones (2006)

indices (Hill, 1973). The indices N1 and N2 both increase when the sample diversity increases 232 but N1 is sensitive to the abundance or biomass variations of rare or uncommon species while 233 N2 is sensitive to the variations of the most common species. Then, we characterized the 234 macrofauna according to a set of biological traits (five categorical traits each divided into 235 modalities) known to directly or indirectly affect individual processes ("effect traits" sensus 236 Lavorel & Garnier (2002)), such as aerobic respiration, which themselves affect benthic 237 ecosystem functions such as nitrogen cycling and organic matter remineralization (Table 1). 238 These ecosystem functions are estimated by measuring oxygen and solute fluxes (*i.e.*  $NH_4^+$ , 239  $NO_3^{-}$ ,  $NO_2^{-}$ ) between the sediment and the overlying water. We used the two main components 240 241 of the bioturbation potential (Queirós et al., 2013), mobility and sediment reworking, rather than the bioturbation potential per se because both components are influenced by habitat 242 structure (Godbold et al., 2011), a characteristic differing between UES and DES zones of the 243 reef (Curd et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2018). Furthermore, transferring bioturbation potential 244 across space and time is only possible if the species body size is constant (Queirós et al., 2013), 245 which was not the case since we sampled across three different periods. 246

Some species present different modalities for certain traits like Carcinus maenas, which can 247 behave as a grazer and as a predator-scavenger (2 modalities in the feeding mode trait). To take 248 249 into account this intraspecific variability, we fuzzy coded the categorical traits by assigning a value between 0 (no affinity) and 3 (strict affinity) to each modality of a given trait depending 250 on the species affinity for the modality, with 1 and 2 indicating intermediate affinities (Chevenet 251 252 et al., 1994). The sum of the values attributed to all the modalities of a given trait was always equal to three except for the tidal position, which could be equal to four if the species had an 253 254 equal affinity for the intertidal and subtidal modalities. We recovered most of the information on polychaete feeding mode and daily movement capacity from Fauchald & Jumars (1979) and 255 Jumars et al. (2015). The rest was recovered from peer-reviewed journals 256





Figure 1. Framework used to study the relative support of the diversity hypothesis (Div), the mass ratio hypothesis (MR) and the engineer effect hypothesis (EE) on ecosystem functions (here biogeochemical fluxes) in the context of a community structured by an ecosystem engineer (Eng.). Each index in blue is used to test a specific hypothesis (HYP) in red and all the indices along with the water temperature, were first considered as explanatory variables in the multiple linear regression approach detailed in part 2.5. Adapted from Villéger et al. (2008).

264 (Guerra-García et al., 2014; Navarro-Barranco et al., 2013) and biological trait databases
265 (Marine species identification portal, BIOTIC).

Using the biological traits matrix defined for the 43 species identified in the UES and DES 266 cores (n = 24), we calculated several functional indices following the framework detailed in 267 Figure 1 and using the R packages presented in Table 2. We used the Gower distance to 268 calculate the functional distance between each pair of species and then performed a principal 269 coordinate analysis (PCoA) on the distance matrix (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010; Villéger et 270 al., 2008) to represent each species in a multidimensional functional space, each dimension 271 (PCoA axis, 42 axes in total) being a combination of traits. Finally, we calculated for each core, 272 273 several functional diversity and identity indices using different data types (Table 2) and weighted each index (except functional richness) by species relative abundance (ab in subscript) 274 or relative biomass (biom in subscript) (Fig. 1). Sabellaria alveolata was always included in 275 the data sets used to calculate the indices. Functional richness was standardized by the 'global' 276 functional richness (including all species recorded in the UES and DES cores) to constrain it 277 between 0 and 1 (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010). 278

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#### 280 *2.5. Statistical analyses*

281 First, we tested the effect of sediment typology (four levels: CS, MS, UES and DES), sampling period (three levels: spring, summer and winter) and their interaction on the different 282 fluxes (SOD, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>2+3</sub>) using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a two-way crossed 283 284 balanced design. If the interaction term was significant for a flux, we performed Tukey HSD post-hoc tests to disentangle which sediment typology x sampling period cores presented 285 significantly higher or lower fluxes than others. After running the ANOVAs, we checked each 286 model's residuals for normality using a histogram and for homoscedasticity by plotting them 287 against the predicted values (Zuur et al., 2010). 288

**Table 2.** Definition and associated information (data type, key references, R functions and weighting procedure) on the five functional indices

290 (diversity and identity). The first four PCoA axes represent 60% of the total inertia. See Figure 4 for a graphical illustration of each index.

Functional indices	Name	Definition	Data type	Unweighted or weighted	Key references	R function
Functional identity	FIde	Weighted average position on the selected functional space axis (PCoA axis)	PCoA axis 1, 2 or 3	Weighted by abundance or biomass	Mouillot et al. (2013)	multidimFD
Functional richness	FRic	Multidimensional functional space filled by all species in a community	PCoA axes 1 to 4	Unweighted	Villéger et al. (2008); Laliberté and Legendre (2010)	dbFD
Functional dispersion	FDis	Weighted average distance to the weighted average mean trait values of the community	Uncorrected functional distance matrix	Weighted by abundance or biomass	Laliberté and Legendre (2010)	dbFD
Functional divergence	FDiv	Weighted average deviation of the Euclidian distance between the position of all the species in the functional space and the unweighted center of gravity of the vertices of the convex hull	PCoA axes 1 to 4	Weighted by abundance or biomass	Villéger et al. (2008)	dbFD
Functional evenness	FEve	Regularity of abundance or biomass distributions in the functional space along the shortest minimum spanning tree linking all the species	PCoA axes 1 to 42	Weighted by abundance or biomass	Villéger et al. (2008); Laliberté and Legendre (2010)	dbFD

sediment core a multifunctionality metric using the mean of the four standardized fluxes (mean = 0 and SD = 1), to give them the same weight (Mouillot et al., 2011).

Then, to estimate the importance of macrofauna vs meiofauna + microorganisms in organic 293 matter processing, we calculated the macrofauna-normalized SOD (mmol O<sub>2</sub>. day<sup>-1</sup>.g AFDW<sup>-</sup> 294 <sup>1</sup>) for each core by dividing the daily oxygen consumption (mmol  $O_2$ . day<sup>-1</sup>) by the total 295 macrofauna biomass (g AFDW). Values inferior to 1 indicate processes are predominantly 296 driven by macrofauna whereas values superior to 1 indicate processes are predominantly driven 297 by meiofauna and microorganisms (Stenton-Dozey et al., 2001 in Clough et al., 2005). A 298 multifunctionality metric was also calculated for each engineered sediment core as the mean of 299 300 the four fluxes after standardizing each of them (mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1) to give them the same weight (Mouillot et al., 2011). 301

Finally, we implemented a multiple linear regression approach (ordinary least-square 302 303 regressions) to determine the relative importance of (1) water temperature, (2) the engineer S. alveolata (engineer effect hypothesis), (3) macrofauna diversity in terms of species or 304 biological traits (diversity hypothesis) and (4) the functional traits of the dominant species 305 (mass-ratio hypothesis) on the four ecosystem functions measured in the engineered sediments. 306 Each index presented in Figure 1 is used to test one hypothesis, except FDis, FDiv and FEve, 307 308 which are used to test the diversity and mass-ratio hypotheses (Mokany et al., 2008), as their values are driven by macrofauna traits and macrofauna abundance or biomass. We considered 309 the 24 incubated engineered sediment cores as statistically independent replicates because the 310 cores were physically isolated from each other during the flux measurements (independent 311 incubations) and the processes we measured take place at spatial scales inferior to the in situ 312 313 distance separating two cores (Hewitt et al., 2005). Indeed, the cores sampled in the UES and DES sediment typologies were extracted from different engineered sediment patches across a 314 surface of ca. 100 m<sup>2</sup> and most of the engineered sediment benthic macrofauna being sessile or 315

presenting a low mobility, their movements are constrained to a given engineered sedimentpatch (Table 1, Fig. 4 and 5).

First, we reduced the number of explanatory variables, previously standardized (Schielzeth, 318 2010), to consider in the multiple linear regressions by removing variables that were highly 319 correlated (|r| > 0.8, Spearman correlations) (Godbold and Solan, 2009). We removed N2<sub>ab</sub> and 320  $N2_{biom}$  as they were highly correlated with  $N1_{ab}$  (r = 0.98) and  $N1_{biom}$  (r = 0.98), respectively, 321 FIde2<sub>ab</sub> and FIde2<sub>biom</sub> as they were highly correlated with FIde1<sub>ab</sub> (r = -0.97) and FIde1<sub>biom</sub> (r =322 -0.87), respectively and FDiv<sub>ab</sub> and FDiv<sub>biom</sub> as they were highly correlated with FDis<sub>ab</sub> (r = -323 0.85) and FDis<sub>biom</sub> (r = -0.90), respectively. After this step, we had one environmental variable 324 325 (temperature), two variables associated to the engineer effect hypothesis (S. alveolata abundance and biomass), four variables associated to the diversity hypothesis (SR, N1<sub>ab</sub>, N1<sub>biom</sub> 326 and FRic), four variables associated to the mass-ratio hypothesis (FIde1<sub>ab</sub>, FIde1<sub>biom</sub>, FIde3<sub>ab</sub> 327 328 and FIde3<sub>biom</sub>) and four variables associated to the diversity and mass ratio hypotheses (FDis<sub>ab</sub>, FDis<sub>biom</sub>, FEve<sub>ab</sub> and FEve<sub>biom</sub>). 329

Secondly, we built first and second-degree polynomial regressions between each 330 explanatory variable and each ecosystem function, as preliminary inspections of the biplots 331 indicated the presence of quadratic relations (Thrush et al., 2017). Prior to this second step, we 332 333 squared the 15 remaining explanatory variables to build raw second-degree polynomial regressions and the second-degree terms were standardized to improve the interpretability of 334 the multiple linear regression coefficients (Schielzeth, 2010). Regarding temperature, we only 335 considered first-degree linear regressions, as water temperature inside small ranges (here 9°C) 336 will have positive effects on biogeochemical fluxes such as SOD, according to the Q10 of 2 337 general relation (Herbert, 1999; Hildrew et al., 2007; Thamdrup et al., 1998). 338

Thirdly, the variable associated to each hypothesis that had a significant effect on a given ecosystem function (p < 0.05) and explained the highest amount of ecosystem function

variability (adjusted R<sup>2</sup>) was included in the four initial multiple linear models. The following 341 explanatory variables were considered in each initial multiple linear model: for SOD, 342 temperature, S. alveolata biomass (first-degree), FIde1<sub>ab</sub> (second-degree) and FDis<sub>ab</sub> (second-343 degree); for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, temperature, S. alveolata biomass (first-degree), SR (first-degree), FIde1<sub>ab</sub> 344 (first-degree) and FDis<sub>ab</sub> (second-degree); for NO<sub>2+3</sub>, temperature, S. alveolata abundance 345 (first-degree), N1<sub>ab</sub> (first-degree) and FEve<sub>ab</sub> (second-degree); for the multifunctionality metric, 346 temperature, S. alveolata biomass (first-degree), SR (first-degree), FIde1biom (first-degree) and 347 FDis<sub>ab</sub> (second-degree). 348

Finally, to determine the minimal adequate models (final multiple linear models), we 349 350 selected the subset of predictors that minimized the Akaike information criterion (AIC) using the 'ols step best subset' function from the 'olsrr' package. If two models had AIC differences 351 of less than 2, we chose the one with the lowest Mallow's Cp to select the most parsimonious 352 353 model (Godbold and Solan, 2009). Before running the model selection procedure, we removed the explanatory variables that presented high levels of collinearity based on a threshold of the 354 variance inflation factor of 10. For SOD and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, we removed FIde1<sub>ab</sub>, which was highly 355 correlated with  $FDis_{ab}(r = 0.99)$  and defined reduced multiple linear models. After running each 356 model (initial, reduced, and final multiple linear regressions), we checked the residuals for 357 358 normality using a histogram and for homoscedasticity by plotting them against the predicted values (Zuur et al., 2010). To estimate the independent effect of each selected predictor on a 359 given ecosystem function, we calculated the standardized partial regression coefficients and 360 represented this independent effect using partial linear regression plots (Schielzeth, 2010). We 361 considered a significance level of 0.05 for all the tests. 362

363

#### **364 3. RESULTS**

3.1.

365

Effect of sediment typology and sampling period on the different fluxes

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Figure 2. Sediment oxygen demand (SOD), ammonium flux ( $NH_4^+$ ) and the sum of nitrate and nitrite fluxes ( $NO_{2+3}$ ) measured for the four sediment typologies (mean ± SD, n = 4), coarse sand (CS), muddy sand (MS), undisturbed engineered sediments (UES) and disturbed engineered sediments (DES) in spring (white), summer (grey) and winter (black). The results of the post-hoc tests performed after the two-way crossed ANOVA (sediment typology x sampling period) are presented as letters above each barplot, considering a p-value of 0.05.

Visually, the SOD,  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes appeared higher in the undisturbed (UES) and 371 372 disturbed (DES) engineered sediments compared to the coarse (CS) and muddy (MS) sediments across the three sampling periods. The engineered sediment fluxes appeared maximal in spring 373 (Fig. 2 and Table S2). The mean SOD ranged from a minimum of 105 µmol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup> in winter 374 for the CS cores to a maximum of 10 309 µmol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup> in spring for the DES cores. Sediment 375 typology (F(3,36) = 68.83, p < 0.001), sampling period (F(2,36) = 81.95, p < 0.001) and their 376 interaction (F(6,36) = 20.96, p < 0.001) had statistically significant effects on the SOD. The CS 377 cores and the winter MS cores had the lowest SOD while the spring UES and DES cores and 378 the summer UES cores had, respectively the first and second highest SOD. The spring and 379 380 summer MS cores, the winter UES and DES cores and the summer DES cores had intermediate SOD (spring and summer MS and winter UES and DES  $\leq$  summer DES  $\leq$  summer UES, Fig. 381 2). 382

383 The mean  $NH_4^+$  fluxes ranged from slightly negative (between -7.9 and -0.8  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>) for all the CS cores and for the MS cores in spring to above 200 µmol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup> for all the UES 384 cores and for the spring and summer DES cores with the maximum values measured in the 385 spring UES cores (850.40  $\pm$  121.79  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>). Sediment typology (F(3,36) = 51.14, p < 386 0.001), sampling period (F(2,36) = 17.72, p < 0.001) and their interaction (F(6,36) = 7.26, p < 0.001) 387 0.001) had statistically significant effects on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes. All the CS, MS, the winter UES 388 and the spring and winter DES cores had significantly lower NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes than the spring and 389 summer UES cores and the spring DES cores (Fig. 2). 390

All the NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes were on average positive except in the spring MS cores (-43.7  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-</sup> <sup>2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>). The summer MS cores had mean NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes near zero (0.2  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>) while the rest of the soft sediment cores had mean fluxes between 26.0 and 114.2  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>. All the engineered sediment cores had mean fluxes above 170.6  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup> with the maximum values measured in the summer UES cores (1 006.9 ± 463.8  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.h<sup>-1</sup>). Sediment typology (F(3,36)

396 = 35.89, *p* < 0.001), sampling period (F(2,36) = 6.41, *p* = 0.004) and their interaction (F(6,36) 397 = 9.17, *p* < 0.001) had statistically significant effects on the NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes. The spring and 398 summer MS cores presented the lowest NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes while the summer UES and the spring 399 DES cores presented, respectively the first and second highest NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes. The rest of the 400 cores presented intermediate NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes (winter CS and MS ≤ winter UES and DES and 401 spring DES ≤ spring UES, Fig. 2).

402 Calculation of the macrofauna-normalized SOD for each core indicated that meiofauna and 403 microorganisms predominantly drove organic matter processing in the CS and MS 404 (macrofauna-normalized SOD >> 1). Differently, macrofauna was the principal driver of 405 organic matter processing in the UES and DES (Fig. 3).





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**Figure 3.** Macrofauna-normalized sediment oxygen demand (SOD) in mmol  $O_2$ . day<sup>-1</sup>.g AFDW<sup>-1</sup> (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 4) calculated for the four sediment typologies, coarse sand (CS), muddy sand (MS), undisturbed engineered sediments (UES) and disturbed engineered sediments (DES) in spring (white), summer (grey) and winter (black). The horizontal line represents a macrofauna-normalized SOD value of one. To improve readability, we removed one winter CS core with a macrofauna-normalized SOD above 30 (140.5 mmol  $O_2$ . day<sup>-1</sup>.g AFDW<sup>-1</sup>).

#### 415 *3.2. Functional diversity and identity indices*

Each functional index weighted by biomass was significantly and positively correlated with its abundance-weighted version, except FEve. Functional richness, FDis, FDiv, FIde1 and FIde2 weighted by biomass and abundance presented values intricately linked to the engineered sediment types (UES *vs* DES). The other functional indices appeared to be completely independent from the engineered sediment type (FEve) or weakly linked to it (FIde3).

As an illustration (Fig. 4), we calculated the different functional indices using the mean 421 macrofauna biomass across all the DES (n = 12) and all the UES cores (n = 12). The mean DES 422 core had a higher FRic (0.98) than the mean UES core (0.86) indicating there were more 423 424 functionally dissimilar species in DES than in UES. Functional dispersion followed the same pattern with a higher value in the mean DES core (0.14) than in the mean UES core (0.04). If a 425 species dominates an assemblage (e.g. S. alveolata in UES, Table S1), it will attract the 426 427 weighted-mean position of the assemblage and the FDis will be small. Differently, if two species have high abundances or biomasses and are distant in the functional space (i.e. 428 429 functionally dissimilar), like S. alveolata and the crustacean Porcellana platycheles in the DES cores (Fig. 5 and Table S1), both will attract the weighted-mean position of the assemblage and 430 431 the FDis will be higher. Functional divergence was higher in the mean UES (0.98) than in the 432 mean DES core (0.84) because S. alveolata, which presents trait modalities very different from the "average species" represented by the unweighted center of gravity of the convex hull 433 vertices (Fig. 5), dominates the UES cores while it dominates less the DES cores (Table S1). 434

The mean UES core was characterized by negative FIde1 (-0.24) and positive FIde2 (0.19) while the mean DES core was characterized by higher and negative FIde1 (-0.20) and by lower and positive FIde2 (0.13). The first PCoA axis is mainly associated to a daily movement capacity gradient with negative values corresponding to species presenting none to low movement capacities (*e.g. Sabellaria alveolata*) and higher values corresponding to



Figure 4. Two-dimensional illustration of the five functional indices (functional dispersion = FDis, functional identity = FIde, functional richness
= FRic, functional divergence = FDiv, functional evenness = FEve) based on the species identified in the 12 undisturbed (top line) and 12 disturbed
(bottom line) engineered sediment cores. The black crosses indicate species absent from an engineered sediment type but present in the global pool
of species. Except for FRic, the dots are proportional to each species' mean biomass. In the FDis panels, the black squares and dashed lines represent

the weighted-mean position of the species in the multidimensional space and the weighted-mean positions of the species on the first and second axis (FIde1 and FIde2), respectively. In the FRic panels, the colored convex polygons represent the projection of the multidimensional convex hull in 2D, the filled symbols represent the species used as vertices in the multidimensional space and the bold bars on the axes represent the minimum and maximum values on each axis. In the FDiv panels, the black diamonds represent the center of gravity of the vertices. In the FEve panels, the blue lines represent the minimum spanning tree linking all species in the multidimensional space.





Figure 5. Position, on the first two axes of the functional space, of all the species present at the global engineered sediment level and identified by their full or abbreviated names (see Table S1). *Sabellaria alveolata* is the engineer species while *Porcellana platycheles* is the second dominant species in the disturbed engineered sediment cores. *Magallana gigas* and *Mytilus* cf. *galloprovincialis* are two other engineer species present as epibionts on the engineered sediments.

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increasingly mobile species (*e.g.* errant polychaetes such as *Eulalia viridis*, EVIR) (Fig. 5). The
second PCoA axis is mainly associated to the sediment reworking trait with positive values
generally corresponding to epifauna (*e.g. Magallana gigas*) and biodiffusors (*e.g.* Nemerteans,
NEME), values close to 0 corresponding to upward and downward conveyors (*e.g. Mediomastus fragilis*, MFRA and *Pygospio elegans*, PELE) and negative values corresponding
to surficial modifiers (*e.g. Lekanesphaera* sp., LEKsp) (Fig. 5). Consequently, functional
identity values on the first two PCoA axes can bring direct indications on which modalities are

key in driving the different ecosystem functions. The other biological traits (size, feeding modeand bathymetric preference) were not associated with a specific PCoA axis.

467

# 468 3.3. Relative importance of macrofauna and temperature on the engineered sediment 469 biogeochemical functioning

The minimal adequate models contained three or four predictors and explained *ca*. 70% of 470 the ecosystem function variability (Table 3). All the models contained water temperature, a 471 predictor associated to the engineer effect hypothesis (S. alveolata biomass or abundance) and 472 a predictor associated to both the diversity and mass-ratio hypotheses (FDis<sub>ab</sub> or FEve<sub>ab</sub>). 473 474 Furthermore, FDis<sub>ab</sub> and FIde1<sub>ab</sub> appeared correlated at 0.99 (Spearman correlation) indicating that when FDis<sub>ab</sub> increases, the abundance of species with medium to high movement capacities 475 also increases (Figure S3). One UES core sampled in summer was closer to the summer DES 476 477 cores than to the other summer UES cores because of a higher FDisab and a lower engineer abundance. Nonetheless, the fluxes of this unexpectedly different core in terms of macrofauna 478 479 characteristics were in line with the partial linear regressions (Fig. 6), which seems to indicate our minimal adequate models are not the result of an UES/DES dichotomy. 480

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#### a. Engineer effect hypothesis

482 Based on the standardized slopes also called standardized partial regression coefficients or effect sizes ( $\beta$ ), the engineer had a positive effect on the four functions (Fig. 6). Engineer 483 biomass (mean = 125, SD = 94) was the predictor with the strongest effect on the SOD (mean 484 = 4640, SD = 3750) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (mean = 462, SD = 330) fluxes, holding all the other predictors 485 of each model statistically constant. An increase by one population SD of S. alveolata biomass 486 increases the SOD and  $NH_4^+$  fluxes by 0.63 and 0.59 population SD, respectively (Table 3). 487 Considering the multifunctionality metric model, engineer biomass had an effect of comparable 488 magnitude to FDis<sub>ab</sub> (Table 3). Finally, engineer abundance (mean = 4765, SD = 13 936) was 489

490 **Table 3.** Minimal adequate models (ordinary least-square regressions) explaining the 491 standardized ecosystem functions (sediment oxygen demand (SOD), ammonium flux ( $NH_4^+$ ), 492 sum of nitrate and nitrite fluxes ( $NO_{2+3}$ ) and the multifunctionality metric). We expressed the 493 slope estimates as effect sizes ( $\beta$ ) to compare their relative effects on each function.

	df	RSE	F statistic	β	Р
SOD adjusted	$R^2 = 0.73$	6			
Model	3		21.3		< 0.001
Error	20	0.52			
Biomass				0.63	< 0.001
FDis <sub>ab</sub> <sup>2</sup>				-0.31	0.025
Temperature				0.23	0.048
NH4 <sup>+</sup> adjusted	$R^2 = 0.69$	)			
Model	3		18.4		< 0.001
Error	20	0.55			
Biomass				0.59	< 0.001
Temperature				0.45	0.001
FDis <sub>ab</sub>				-0.35	0.011
NO <sub>2+3</sub> adjuste	d $R^2 = 0.7$	0			
Model	3		19.0		< 0.001
Error	20	0.55			
Abundance				0.62	< 0.001
Temperature				0.30	0.031
FEve <sub>ab</sub>				-0.25	0.076
Multifunction	ality met	ric adjusted F	$R^2 = 0.73$		
Model	4		17.0		< 0.001
Error	19	0.51			
Temperature				0.52	< 0.001
Biomass				0.37	0.021
FDis <sub>ab</sub>				-0.38	0.008
FDis <sub>ab</sub> <sup>2</sup>				-0.32	0.035

df: degree of freedom, RSE: Residual standard error, Abundance: *S. alveolata* abundance,
Biomass: *S. alveolata* biomass, FEve: functional evenness, FDis: functional dispersion. The
subscripts ab indicates that the index was weighted using species abundance.

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498 the predictor with the strongest effect on the  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes (mean = 450, SD = 334), holding all

499 the other predictors of the model statistically constant (Table 3).

500

#### b. Diversity and mass-ratio hypotheses

501 Two functional indices weighted by abundance were retained in the minimal adequate models, FDis (mean = 0.18, SD = 0.11) and FEve (mean = 0.61, SD = 0.11), and both predictors 502 always presented negative standardized slopes (Fig. 6). The functional dispersion displayed a 503 simple linear effect on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes, a simple quadratic effect (concave form) on the SOD 504 and a more complex quadratic effect on the multifunctionality metric (*i.e.* concave form with 505 506 low values of FDis<sub>ab</sub> eliciting higher values of the multifunctionality metric than high values of FDis<sub>ab</sub>). It was the predictor with the weakest effect on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes and with the second 507 strongest effect on the SOD. The functional evenness displayed a simple linear effect on the 508 NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes and was the predictor with the weakest effect, holding all the other predictors of 509 the model statistically constant (Table 3). 510

#### 511 c. <u>Water temperature</u>

Based on the standardized partial regression coefficients, the water temperature (mean = 12.33, SD = 3.76) had a positive effect on the four ecosystem functions, all other predictors of each model being held statistically constant (Table 3). It was the predictor with the strongest effect on the multifunctionality metric, with the second strongest effect on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes and with the smallest effect on the SOD (Fig. 6). Increasing the water temperature by one population SD increases the different functions by 0.23 (SOD) to 0.52 (multifunctionality, SD = 0.83) population SD (Table 3).





Figure 6. Partial linear regression plots (left) and standardized partial regression coefficients
(effect sizes, right) of the predictors retained in the minimal adequate models explaining the

standardized ecosystem functions (sediment oxygen demand (SOD), ammonium flux ( $NH_4^+$ ), sum of nitrate and nitrite fluxes ( $NO_{2+3}$ ) and the multifunctionality metric). Abundance (abund.) and biomass (biom.) refer to the engineer *S. alveolata* abundance and biomass, respectively. FDis<sub>ab</sub> and FEve<sub>ab</sub> refer to the functional dispersion and functional evenness, respectively, both weighted by species abundance.

528

#### 529 4. DISCUSSION

The study of the link between taxonomic diversity, functional diversity and ecosystem 530 functions is complex but crucial if we are to understand in a more holistic way ecosystem 531 functioning and the impact of disturbances on this functioning (Brose and Hillebrand, 2016; 532 Gamfeldt et al., 2015). Using Sabellaria alveolata reefs as a study case, we started to fill the 533 gap relative to the role played by biodiversity in the functions performed by tubiculous 534 structural engineers (Berke, 2010), building upon studies on the biogeochemical functioning of 535 bivalve reefs (see Stief (2013) and references therein). This study is a necessary first step 536 towards conceiving more controlled in situ experiments by removing potentially key species 537 such as highly mobile biodiffusors (e.g. Eulalia viridis) or manipulating the physical 538 disturbance of the reef by clearing out small S. alveolata tube patches. 539

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#### 541 *4.1.* Biogenic structures promote biogeochemical fluxes in coastal waters

Microorganisms and meiofauna were probably the main drivers of the oxygen and solute fluxes measured in the soft sediments surrounding the engineered sediments along with physico-chemical mechanisms such as diffusion and advection. Indeed, solutes transfer mechanisms inside the first 10 cm of these soft sediments are probably dominated by advection in the highly permeable CS sediments and by diffusion in the less permeable MS sediments (Huettel et al., 2003). Macroinvertebrates were also relatively scarce with average abundances between 226 ind.m<sup>-2</sup> (winter) and 4145 ind.m<sup>-2</sup> (spring) in the MS, 636 ind.m<sup>-2</sup> (winter) and

1556 ind.m<sup>-2</sup> (spring) in the CS. Consequently, macrofauna was probably not a driving force in 549 550 these sediments, either in terms of solute transfer via bioturbation or in terms of oxygen uptake as indicated by a macrofauna-normalized SOD above 1 (Clough et al., 2005). Conversely, 551 macrofauna was across the three periods the main driver of the engineered sediment oxygen 552 uptake, as indicated by a macrofauna-normalized SOD close or below 1 (Clough et al., 2005). 553 Since, we did not measure microbial respiration or biomass during our study, we focused on 554 555 the engineered sediments for which we had information on what appeared to be the driving force of its biogeochemical functioning, the macrofauna. 556

Across the three periods, we measured higher SOD,  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes in the 557 558 engineered sediments compared to the CS and MS, a difference we attribute at least partly to the 8 (summer) to 1000 (winter) times higher macrofauna biomass in the UES and DES 559 compared to the CS and MS. Indeed, community biomass and oxygen consumption are often 560 561 strongly correlated (Braeckman et al., 2010; Clough et al., 2005; Norkko et al., 2013) through the positive link between individual body mass and respiration rate (Gillooly et al., 2001; 562 Hildrew et al., 2007). Macrofauna can also account for 10 to 70% of community NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes 563 from the sediment through ammonium excretion (Kristensen, 1988; Vanni, 2002). Despite 564 representing between 45 and 97% of the macrofauna abundance in the engineered sediments, 565 566 Sabellaria alveolata creates, through the structures it builds and its biological activity, an environment favorable to other macroinvertebrates (Dubois et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2018) and 567 probably also to a community of meiofauna and microorganisms (Ataide et al., 2014; 568 Kristensen and Kostka, 2005; Passarelli et al., 2014). Indeed, meiofauna and especially 569 nematodes are often more diverse and abundant inside biogenic structures such as Sabellaria 570 wilsoni reefs compared to neighboring bare sediments (Ataide et al., 2014). Furthermore, the 571 colonization of macrofauna tubes by prokaryotic communities is known to be stimulated by the 572 host's organic secretions that represent a food source for these organisms, probably affecting 573

global biogeochemical processes (Kristensen and Kostka, 2005; Passarelli et al., 2014). For 574 575 example, burrows built by polychaetes like *Hediste diversicolor*, that penetrate the anaerobic subsurface sediment, promote microbial abundance and activity, increasing O<sub>2</sub> consumption 576 and nutrient release from the sediment (Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2004; Reise, 1981). 577 Consequently, meiofauna and even more so microorganisms surely play an important part in 578 579 the engineered sediments biogeochemical fluxes, mainly through aerobic respiration, dissolved 580 inorganic nitrogen excretion, particulate organic nitrogen remineralization, ammonium assimilation, nitrification and denitrification (Herbert, 1999; Kristensen, 1988; Vanni, 2002). 581

Overall, oxygen consumption, ammonium and oxidized nitrogen release were enhanced in 582 583 the sediments engineered by S. alveolata compared to bare substratum, as reported for bivalve reefs (Kellogg et al., 2013; Norling and Kautsky, 2007). The mechanisms promoting 584 biogeochemical fluxes in S. alveolata reefs and other polychaete reefs are probably the same as 585 586 in bivalve reefs and involve the dense macrofauna and the associated microorganisms (Passarelli et al., 2014; Stief, 2013). First, the engineered structures (bivalve shells or 587 polychaete tubes) extend the surface available for colonization by nitrifying and denitrifying 588 microorganisms, which benefit from the metabolic waste products excreted by the engineer 589 species (ammonium and carbon dioxide). Second, microorganisms can use the large amounts 590 of biodeposits, including large quantities of extracellular polymeric substances such as mucus, 591 produced by bivalves and polychaetes (*i.e.* egestion of particulate organic matter), as a source 592 of labile organic matter (Gutiérrez et al., 2003; Heisterkamp et al., 2013). 593

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#### 595 4.2. Biogeochemical fluxes in engineered habitats: a comparison

596 We compared our results with fluxes measured in a polychaete reef built by the invasive 597 serpulid polychaete *Ficopomatus enigmaticus* (Keene, 1980), in a restored subtidal *Crassostrea* 598 *virginica* reef (Kellogg et al., 2013) and in a mudflat structured by *Upogedia pugettensis*, a

bioirrigating shrimp (D'Andrea and DeWitt, 2009) (Table 4). The two polychaete reefs had 599 close community respiration rates (between the spring DES values and the early March values) 600 and maximal NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes (between the summer UES values and the November values) while 601 maximal NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes were two folds higher in our study (spring DES) compared with the 602 November values. For close water temperatures (12°C in this study and 14.5°C in Kellogg et 603 al. (2013)), the respiration rates measured in the S. alveolata and C. virginica reefs were close. 604 605 The maximal  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes measured for the *S. alveolata* reef were comparable to the ones measured respectively in April and June at the restored oyster reef. Finally, maximal daily 606 community respiration rates and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes in this study were like the ones reported for the 607 608 high U. pugettensis density plots (Table 4). Differently, maximal NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes measured in the engineered sediments were two folds greater than the ones recorded in high U. pugettensis 609 density plots. 610

611 This comparison highlights a few interesting points on biogeochemical fluxes and ecosystem engineers. First, the extend and the shape of the polychaete reefs seems to affect 612 NH4<sup>+</sup> fluxes probably via the amount of organic matter trapped inside and between the 613 engineered structures. Indeed, S. alveolata reefs are composed of coalescent hummock 614 structures that completely recover the initial substrate (Jones et al., 2018) whereas F. 615 616 enigmaticus reefs are discontinuous structures between which water can pass and flush out the accumulated organic matter (Bruschetti et al., 2011). Second, structural engineers like S. 617 alveolata and oysters that build coalescent structures, enhance in similar amounts sediment 618 oxygen demand, ammonium, and nitrates + nitrites fluxes. Finally, habitats built by reef-619 forming species such as bivalve and tubiculous structural engineers could have a higher 620 potential as organic nitrogen recyclers than burrowing and bioturbating infauna like U. 621 pugettensis in engineered soft sediments (Berke, 2010). 622

- **Table 4.** Sediment oxygen demand (SOD), ammonium  $(NH_4^+)$  and nitrate + nitrite fluxes  $(NO_{2+3})$  measured in engineered habitats built by polychaetes, bivalves and crustaceans and reported in this study and three others. D'Andrea & DeWitt (2009) measured fluxes in a mudflat
- 625 colonized by low, medium, and high densities of *Upogedia pugettensis*.

Engineered habitat	Study location and	Type of flux	SOD	NH4 <sup>+</sup>	NO <sub>2+3</sub>	
	reference	reported				
Sabellaria alveolataEnglish Channel(polychaete) reefcoast (bay of Mon Saint-Michel, France), this stud		Min – max across spring (12°C), summer (17°C) and winter (8°C)	0.03 (winter DES) - 0.33 (spring DES) g O <sub>2</sub> .m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	0.06 (winter DES) – 0.85 (spring UES) mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	0.17 (winter DES) – 1.01 (summer UES) mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	
		Min – max in spring and summer (daily values)	Spring: 8.03 (193) - 10.31 (247) Summer: 3.08 (74) - 4.24 (102) mmol O <sub>2</sub> .m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	Spring: 0.65 (15.6) – 0.85 (20.4) Summer: 0.25 (6) – 0.70 (16.8) mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	Spring: 0.38 (9.12) – 0.53 (12.72) Summer: 0.32 (7.68) – 1.01 (24.24) mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	
Ficopomatus	Mediterranean Sea	exact temperature	0.24 (early March)	0.40 (November)	1.05 (November)	
enigmaticus	(Tunisia), Keene	unknown	- 1.17 (late March)	mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>	
(polychaete) reef	1980		g O <sub>2</sub> .m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup>			
Restored <i>Crassostrea</i> <i>virginica</i> (bivalve) reef	Maryland coast (USA), Kellogg et al. 2013	Comparable values	12.87 mmol O <sub>2</sub> .m <sup>-</sup> <sup>2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> (November, 14.5°C)	0.8 mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> (April, 15.1°C)	0.46 mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> 1.3 mmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> (June, 25.7°C)	
Mudflat colonized by	Oregon coast (USA),	Summer (17.1°C)	97.4 (low density)	7.11 (low density) –	1.16 (medium	
bioirrigating shrimp	D'Andrea & DeWitt		– 225.7 (high	16.37 (high density)	density) - 11.38 (high	
<i>Upogedia pugettensis</i> (crustacean)	2009		density) mmol m <sup>-</sup> <sup>2</sup> .d <sup>-1</sup>	mmol m <sup>-2</sup> .d <sup>-1</sup>	density) mmol m <sup>-2</sup> .d <sup>-1</sup>	

# 627 4.3. Sabellaria alveolata and water temperature are the main drivers of the engineered 628 sediment biogeochemical functioning

What we termed the engineer effect (i.e. the engineer S. alveolata promotes, through its 629 density, the biogeochemical functioning of the engineered sediments) mainly results from the 630 combined biological activity of the engineer species S. alveolata per se, as well as the 631 meiofauna and microorganisms associated to each individual and its tube, a community likely 632 633 specific to complex structures like polychaete tubes (Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2004; Reise, 1981; Tout et al., 2014) with a temperature-dependent activity (Herbert, 1999; Thamdrup et al., 634 1998). This study based on observational data helped us to determine some of the main drivers 635 636 of the biogeochemical functioning of a S. alveolata reef; the engineer, the water temperature and the associated macrofauna through their biological traits, strongly supporting the engineer 637 effect hypothesis and giving some support to the diversity hypothesis but only at relatively low 638 639 levels of functional diversity. The use of terms like "effect" or "driver" are somehow abusive since real causality between predictors and response variables can only be determined through 640 controlled experiments. Nonetheless, we believe this study is a first step towards better 641 understanding the functioning of these complex habitats, helping us to better conserve and 642 manage them. 643

644 In sediments engineered by S. alveolata, the number one driver of community respiration, was S. alveolata biomass. Water temperature was not the main driver of SOD like we expected 645 according to the Q10 of 2 relation (Hildrew et al., 2007) and subtidal studies on soft sediments 646 647 and oyster reefs (Janson et al., 2012; Kellogg et al., 2013). Nonetheless, temperature still had a small positive effect on the SOD. We measured the highest SOD values in spring (12°C) and 648 649 not in summer (17°C), a difference we mainly attribute to the 2-3 times higher engineer biomass in spring compared to summer, but also to the ripe and heavy individuals ready to spawn in 650 spring (Dubois et al., 2007a). Biomass can have a strong influence on respiration rates at the 651

individual and community level, a biomass effect we observed here which clearly surpassed the 652 653 effect of temperature on the SOD (Braeckman et al., 2010; Clough et al., 2005; Hildrew et al., 2007; Norkko et al., 2013). Structural ecosystem engineers such as S. alveolata can also act as 654 agents of biogeochemical heterogeneity through the structural changes they cause, affecting 655 heat transfer processes and temperature dependent microbial activity (Gutiérrez et al., 2003). 656 657 Temperature loggers placed inside the reefs revealed that the engineered sediments present 658 lower heat transfers than the surrounding coarse sediments (Jones, pers. obs.), indicating water temperature variations could be buffered inside these sediments, probably reducing 659 660 temperature-dependent aerobic respiration (Thamdrup et al., 1998; Woodin et al., 2010).

661 Sabellaria alveolata biomass was also the number one driver of the NH4<sup>+</sup> fluxes, a result probably caused by two processes positively correlated to the engineer biomass and stronger in 662 spring than in summer: excretion and egestion. First, the engineer biomass has a positive effect 663 664 on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes probably because of higher excretion rates of S. alveolata in spring when its mean biomass is the highest, a seasonality also recorded for the gastropod Crepidula fornicata 665 (Martin et al., 2006). Sabellaria alveolata probably also egests more feces and pseudofeces 666 (Dubois et al., 2006) in spring during the phytoplankton bloom and the main reproductive 667 season, as recorded for Modiolus modiolus (Navarro and Thompson, 1997). These biodeposits 668 669 are rapidly remineralized by associated bacteria, producing NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Stief, 2013) and linking the engineer biomass and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes. Temperature was the second most important driver of the 670 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes, an effect probably linked to the temperature-dependent metabolic rates of the meio 671 672 and macrofauna (excretion and egestion) and associated bacteria (nitrogen remineralization) (Gillooly et al., 2001; Magni et al., 2000). 673

The first and second most important drivers of  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes were *S. alveolata* abundance and water temperature, respectively, probably through the promotion of nitrification by the engineer and its tube and the temperature-dependent activity of nitrifying bacteria. The

transformation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> into NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and then NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> requires ammonium, oxygen, and the presence 677 678 of aerobic nitrifying microorganisms, more active at higher water temperatures (Herbert, 1999). First, a diverse community of microorganisms including nitrifying bacteria are probably 679 directly associated to the surface of S. alveolata as shown for other polychaetes, amphipods and 680 bivalve soft tissues (Welsh and Castadelli, 2004). Secondly, S. alveolata density is also an 681 indirect measure of tube density, tubes that are home to nitrifying bacteria (D'Andrea and 682 683 DeWitt, 2009) and act as vectors allowing oxygen to penetrate deeper into the engineered sediment, ultimately promoting nitrification. Finally, the vertical movements of S. alveolata in 684 its tube increases the oxygen fluxes from the overlying water to the deeper engineered sediment 685 686 layers further promoting nitrification, as reported in the burrows of many soft sediment 687 organisms (Woodin et al., 2010).

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## 690 *sediments biogeochemical functioning*

4.4.

#### Using a multiple linear regression approach, we never detected a significant effect of indices 691 only used to test the diversity hypothesis (SR, N1 and FRic) or the mass-ratio hypothesis (FIde1 692 and FIde3), on a flux. If there is an effect of a higher associated macrofauna diversity or 693 694 biological trait dominance on the fluxes, it is mostly accounted for by S. alveolata abundance or biomass (engineer effect hypothesis) and by functional dispersion (FDis) or functional 695 evenness (FEve) (diversity and mass ratio hypotheses). Indeed, a decrease in the abundance of 696 S. alveolata is linked to an opposite increase in the abundance and richness of associated 697 macrofauna (Dubois et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2018). Furthermore, 75% of the species richness 698 variability can be explained by S. alveolata biomass (negative effect) and FDis<sub>ab</sub> (positive 699 700 effect). Finally, FDis<sub>ab</sub> and FIde1<sub>ab</sub> have a 0.99 correlation indicating FDis<sub>ab</sub> increases with an

Biological traits of associated macrofauna is a secondary driver of the engineered

abundance increase of higher mobility species (movement capacity trait) and this index can alsobe used to test the mass-ratio hypothesis.

Functional dispersion, only weighted by abundance, was the second most important driver 703 of the SOD and multifunctionality metric, displaying in both cases a concave form (second 704 degree polynomial form with a negative effect size), a form also detected in sandy sediments 705 706 when relating benthic species richness and ammonium fluxes (Thrush et al., 2017). Maximal 707 values of the two functions were detected for FDisab values of ca. 0.19 for SOD and ca. 0.16 for the multifunctionality metric, corresponding to the middle of the disturbance continuum 708 present in the engineered sediments (slightly disturbed reefs). Bumped-shaped relationships 709 710 seem to be relatively common in cross community studies possibly because the explanatory variables are more variable and have a wider range of values in these studies than in a single 711 community type helping to detect these functional forms (Mittelbach et al., 2001; Thrush and 712 713 Lohrer, 2012). We deliberately sampled two different engineered sediment typologies characterized by different communities dominated by the engineer species but with a large 714 715 diversity gradient, favoring the detection of this concave functional form.

Mechanisms linked to the diversity hypothesis such as resource partitioning and niche 716 complementarity (Tilman, 1997) or non-additive interactions among species through trait 717 718 redundancy (insurance hypothesis, Yachi and Loreau (1999)) probably explain the positive effect low functional diversity has on the SOD and the global biogeochemical functioning 719 (Brose and Hillebrand, 2016). The presence of species with modalities like S. alveolata, 720 especially regarding their mobility (e.g. Magallana gigas, Mytilus cf. galloprovincialis), limit 721 the functional loss due to the increasing disturbance and the resulting decrease of the engineer 722 species abundance (Dubois et al., 2006, 2002). Other species with no to low movement 723 capacities and with modalities complementary to S. alveolata (e.g. Venerupis corrugata) 724

regarding other traits (*e.g.* sediment reworking) enhance the global biogeochemical functioning
of the engineered sediments (Bruno et al., 2003; Stachowicz, 2001).

In a second phase, interferences between species' modalities (*i.e.* interference competition) 727 seem to limit biogeochemical processes like organic matter remineralization, leading to the 728 negative effect of high functional diversity on biogeochemical fluxes (Brose and Hillebrand, 729 2016). Indeed, structural engineers such as S. alveolata likely build habitats where the local 730 731 environmental conditions are optimal for them and where they are likely the best performing species of the assemblage for most ecosystem functions, including biogeochemical fluxes 732 (Gamfeldt et al., 2015). Consequently, a functional dispersion above 0.16-0.19 could translate 733 734 into a stronger spatial and/or trophic competition between the associated macrofauna and S. alveolata (Dubois et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2018), potentially leading to lower metabolic rates 735 of the engineer species (e.g. respiration) and to lower global fluxes. Functionally dissimilar 736 737 species could also disrupt the local conditions created by the engineer, for example through the destruction of S. alveolata tubes (e.g. Carcinus maenas excavate S. alveolata tubes), decreasing 738 739 nutrient cycling.

Furthermore, functional dispersion weighted by abundance had a strictly negative effect on 740 the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes. Considering the strong correlation between FDis<sub>ab</sub> and FIde<sub>ab</sub>, this result 741 742 supports the mass-ratio hypothesis and is probably linked to the same mechanisms as the ones explaining the negative effect of higher functional diversity levels on the SOD and 743 multifunctionality. Even at low functional diversity levels, we did not detect a positive effect 744 of increasing diversity on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes. The loss of *S. alveolata* type species in terms of 745 mobility and the addition of species with different modality combinations seems to rapidly 746 impair NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>fluxes, probably through the loss of sessile bivalves and polychaetes, organisms 747 that strongly influence these fluxes through excretion and biodeposit production (Stief, 2013). 748

Finally, functional evenness (abundance weighted only), an index informing on the 749 750 regularity of the abundance distribution in the functional space, had a weak negative effect on the NO<sub>2+3</sub> fluxes. A high value of FEve indicates a homogenous distribution of the species and 751 752 of their abundance in the functional space with similar distance between species (Villéger et al., 2008). Consequently,  $NO_{2+3}$  fluxes seem to be promoted by the presence of several clumps 753 of species with similar trait combinations, indicating that a certain level of biological trait 754 755 redundancy associated to a certain level of species richness (ca. 10 species), is necessary for an optimal nitrogen cycling in the reef. 756

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#### 758 4.5. Global biogeochemical functioning of the engineered sediments

Overall, the biogeochemical functioning of the sediments engineered by S. alveolata was 759 much more intense than that of the soft sediments surrounding the engineered sediments, a 760 761 difference likely linked to the abundant and diversified macrofauna, meiofauna and microorganisms promoted by the reef structures and the engineer itself. Focusing on the 762 763 engineered sediments, we found that water temperature is the main driver of their global biogeochemical functioning, followed by S. alveolata biomass and the macrofauna functional 764 dispersion weighted by abundance. Consequently, tubiculous structural engineers such as S. 765 766 alveolata have biomass-dependent effects on biogeochemical fluxes as do burrowing and bioturbating infauna (Braeckman et al., 2010; D'Andrea and DeWitt, 2009; Norkko et al., 2013; 767 Thrush et al., 2017), suggesting this could be a general property of many marine ecosystem 768 engineers. Furthermore, the concave effect FDis<sub>ab</sub> has on the multifunctionality metric brings 769 support to the diversity hypothesis at low levels of functional dispersion (0.01-0.16), when 770 sessile species with complementarity modalities for other traits dominate the engineered 771 sediments. When functional dispersion is higher (0.16-0.36), the biogeochemical functioning 772 of the engineered sediments is promoted by higher abundances of species with no to low 773

movement capacities (higher  $FIde1_{ab}$ ), bringing support to the mass-ratio hypothesis, as found in autotrophic terrestrial systems (Díaz et al., 2007; Garnier et al., 2004; Mokany et al., 2008) and across field studies on soil fauna (Gagic et al., 2015). The concave effect of FDis<sub>ab</sub> on the multifunctionality metric also indicates an intermediate macrofauna trait diversity could maximize the global biogeochemical functioning of a *S. alveolata* reef through trait redundancy and niche complementarity.

780 Maintaining a high abundance and biomass of the engineer species appears paramount if we wish to further maintain ecosystem processes performed by this habitat such as organic matter 781 remineralization and nitrogen cycling; indeed, our results evidence that a good physical status 782 783 of the reef structure (prograding areas with high tube density) leads to a good ecological functioning of the reef. Local disturbances (reef degradation) can increase species number 784 (Dubois et al., 2020) and possibly enhance functional diversity, which does not appear, at first, 785 786 as detrimental in terms of biogeochemical fluxes. However, anthropogenic disturbances such as trampling should be limited as much as possible, as they could alter S. alveolata biomass in 787 788 the long term (Desroy et al., 2011; Plicanti et al., 2016). Complementary studies should aim at 789 manipulating disturbance levels and/or species composition, measuring other functions such as primary and secondary production or consumption and studying other S. alveolata reefs to test 790 791 if engineer biomass and functional dispersion weighted by abundance could be used as indicators of S. alveolata reef functioning. 792

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#### 794 CONCLUSION

In a conservation goal, identifying indices that inform us on the global functioning of ecosystems and its evolution is paramount. In the case of *S. alveolata* reefs, our study indicates the two most important parameters to measure are the biomass and abundance of the engineer species. In a second step, estimating the abundance of the associated species (and not their

biomass) and focusing on their respective movement capacities, a trait associated to a species' 799 800 sediment reworking abilities (Oueirós et al., 2013) and known to affect many biogeochemical fluxes (Braeckman et al., 2010; Ieno et al., 2006; Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2005; Michaud et 801 al., 2005), can help to evaluate more precisely the reef's biogeochemical functioning. Biomass 802 is often considered as more functionally relevant than abundance especially when the process 803 is size-based (Gagic et al., 2015; Mouillot et al., 2011) and large macrofauna have been shown 804 to play a prominent role in soft sediment biogeochemical fluxes (Norkko et al., 2013; Thrush 805 et al., 2006). Nonetheless, soft sediments engineered into hard substrata by S. alveolata act as 806 an environmental filter and only relatively small organisms can establish between the engineer 807 808 tubes and affect biogeochemical fluxes (Jones et al., 2018). Consequently, in this highly sizeconstrained habitat, abundance appears to be more important than biomass in explaining 809 biogeochemical fluxes. 810

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### **1** Supplementary material

- 2 **Table S1.** Mean (n = 12) abundance and biomass (ash-free dry weight in mg) of all the species
- 3 identified in the undisturbed and disturbed engineered sediments. The mean was calculated over
- 4 the three seasons and the four cores sampled for each engineered sediment type.

Spacing name	Abbreviated	Und	isturbed	Disturbed engineered		
species name	name	engineer	ed sediment	sec	liment	
		Density (ind .m <sup>-2</sup> )	Biomass (AFDW mg.m <sup>-2</sup> )	Density (ind .m <sup>-2</sup> )	Biomass (AFDW mg.m <sup>-2</sup> )	
Achelia sp.	ACHsp	38	4	599	61	
Axelsonia littoralis	ALIT	0	0	47	0	
Amphipholis squamata	ASQU	9	5	156	32	
Corophium arenarium	CARE	0	0	5	0	
Carcinus maenas	CMAE	71	858	61	631	
Corophium sp.	CORsp	33	5	207	34	
Cereus pedunculatus	CPED	439	67	104	846	
Cirriformia tentaculata	ormia CTEN 5 ulata		1	28	8	
Eulalia ornata	EORN	170	65	0	0	
Eumida sanguinea	ESAN	24	17	24	38	
Eulalia viridis	EVIR	71	168	52	517	
Gnathia maxilaris	GMAX	0	0	5	20	
Golfingia vulgaris	GVUL	85	813	156	1 369	
Lekanesphaera sp.	LEKsp	179	313	269	541	
Lumbrinereis sp.	LUMsp	0	0	5	1	
Magallana gigas	MGIG	0	0	9	4 347	
Mytilus cf. galloprovincialis	McfGAL	47	89	132	251	
Mediomastus fragilis	MFRA	24	1	85	15	
Molgula sp.	MOLsp	14	80	5	32	
Melita palmata	MPAL	28	5	137	47	
Mysta picta	MPIC	0	0	10	2	
Nematoda spp.	NEMA	726	185	1 151	103	
Nemertean	NEME	231	1 637	278	1 311	
<i>Nephtys</i> sp.	NEPsp	0	0	5	2	
Nephasoma minutum	NMIN	250	71	189	47	

<b>Odontosyllis</b>	OCTE	0	0	110	26	
ctenostoma	OCTE	0	0	110	20	
Odontosyllis sp.	ODOsp	42	9	42	5	
Polydora ciliata	PCIL	9	9	0	0	
Perinereis		17	207	1.4.1	200	
cultrifera	FCUL	4/	207	141	209	
Pygospio elegans	PELE	0	0	28	12	
Photys sp.	PHOsp	24	0	0	0	
Pholoe inornata	PINO	0	0	9	6	
Phyllodoce	PLAM	0	0	38	269	
laminosa		-				
Polycirrus sp.	POLYCsp	5	1	38	8	
<i>Polydora</i> sp.	POLYDsp	5	1	0	0	
Porcellana	ρρι Δ	236	3 916	2 415	35 303	
platycheles	112/	250	5 710	2 713	55 505	
Ruditapes	ррні	0	0	0	325	
philippinarum	KI III	·	0	•	525	
Sabellaria	SALV	25 734	151 178	7.036	00 177	
alveolata	SHE V	23 734	191 170	7 050	<i>JJ</i> 1//	
Sphaerosyllis	SBUI	0	0	9	1	
bulbosa	BBOL	0	0	)	1	
Styela clava	SCLA	0	0	19	130	
Syllis gracilis	SGRA	5	4	14	4	
Spirobranchus	SLAM	5	11	52	76	
lamarcki	SLAW	5	11	52	70	
Venerupis	VCOP	14	20	52	3 004	
<i>corrugata</i>		14	50	52	3 004	
Total macrofauna	Total macrofauna including S.			12 140	140 751	
alveolata		20 332	137/40	13 140	140 / 31	
Total macrofauna	excluding S.	2 708	9 569	6 104	40.574	
alveolata		2190	0 300	0 104	47 3/4	
S. alveolata domina	S. alveolata dominance (%)			53.55	66.67	

6 **Table S2.** Mean ( $\pm$  SD, n = 4) sediment oxygen demand (SOD), ammonium fluxes (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and the sum of nitrate and nitrite fluxes (NO<sub>2+3</sub>) 7 measured during the spring, summer and winter campaigns for the four different sediment types, coarse sediments (CS), muddy sediments (MS), 8 undisturbed engineered sediments (UES) and disturbed engineered sediments (DES).

	Spring					Summer				Winter			
	CS	MS	UES	DES	CS	MS	UES	DES	CS	MS	UES	DES	
SOD	414.7 ±	1445.4 ±	8032.65 ±	10308.9 ±	181.1 ±	$693.8 \pm$	4294.6±	3083.8±	$105.2 \pm$	178.5 ±	$1276.0 \pm$	843.8±	
(µmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> )	60.2	238.5	2426.51	1939.1	45.6	144.0	1259.2	718.8	33.3	62.9	166.9	429.3	
NH4 <sup>+</sup>	-0.8 ±	-2.4 ±	850.40 ±	653.9 ±	-4.4 ±	42.4 ±	698.2 ±	249.7 ±	-7.9 ±	32.8 ±	252.7 ±	65.2 ±	
(µmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> )	1.0	0.6	121.79	269.0	1.2	67.2	359.2	49.1	1.3	8.8	62.1	31.0	
NO <sub>2+3</sub>	26.0 ±	-43.7 ±	381.87 ±	534.2 ±	35.6 ±	0.2 ±	1006.9 ±	322.8 ±	$114.2 \pm$	42.8 ±	284.9 ±	170.6 ±	
(µmol.m <sup>-2</sup> .h <sup>-1</sup> )	13.4	20.3	108.61	166.2	8.8	0.7	463.8	89.0	51.3	17.3	14.2	64.3	

**Figure S3.** Relation between the functional dispersion weighted by macrofauna abundance (FDis<sub>ab</sub>) and the functional identity 1 weighted by macrofauna abundance (FIde1<sub>ab</sub>) considering the 24 engineered sediment cores. An increase of the FIde1<sub>ab</sub> index is associated to an increase in the relative abundance of species with medium to high movement capacities.

