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Margot Arnould-Pétré, Charlène Guillaumot, Bruno Danis, Jean-Pierre Féral, Thomas Saucède. Individual-based model of population dynamics in a sea urchin of the Kerguelen Plateau (Southern Ocean), Abatus cordatus, under changing environmental conditions. Ecological Modelling, 2021, 440, pp.109352. 10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2020.109352. hal-03018516v1

HAL Id: hal-03018516 https://hal.science/hal-03018516v1

Submitted on 15 Dec 2022 (v1), last revised 15 Apr 2024 (v2)

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Individual-based model of population dynamics in a sea urchin of the Kerguelen Plateau (Southern Ocean), *Abatus cordatus*, under changing environmental conditions

Authors: Arnould-Pétré Margot ^{a,*}, Guillaumot Charlène ^{a,b}, Danis Bruno ^b, Féral Jean-Pierre ^c, Saucède Thomas ^a

^a UMR 6282 Biogéosciences, Univ. Bourgogne Franche-Comté, CNRS, EPHE, 6 bd Gabriel F-21000 Dijon, France
 ^b Laboratoire de Biologie Marine, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Avenue F.D.Roosevelt, 50. CP 160/15. 1050 Bruxelles, Belgium

^c Aix Marseille Université/CNRS/IRD/UAPV, IMBE-Institut Méditerranéen de Biologie et d'Ecologie marine et continentale, UMR 7263, Station Marine d'Endoume, Chemin de la Batterie des Lions, 13007 Marseille, France

* Corresponding author. Email address: m.arnould-petre@nhm.ac.uk (M. Arnould-Pétré)

1	Individual-based model of population dynamics in a sea urchin
2	of the Kerguelen Plateau (Southern Ocean), Abatus cordatus,
3	under changing environmental conditions
4	
5	Keywords: ecological modelling; Kerguelen; climate change; model sensitivity; endemic echinoderm; Dynamic
6	Energy Budget; Individual-based model
7	
8	Highlights:
9	- A DEB-IBM model was built for the sea urchin Abatus cordatus using literature data
10	- Monthly environmental conditions are available at the reference station
11	- The model was implemented in contrasting food and temperature conditions
12	- The sea urchin population structure and dynamics were evaluated in time
13	- A sensitivity analysis was performed to test for model robustness
14	
15	Abstract
16	The Kerguelen Islands are part of the French Southern Territories, located at the limit of the Indian and Southern
17	oceans. They are highly impacted by climate change, and coastal marine areas are particularly at risk. Assessing the
18	responses of species and populations to environmental change is challenging in such areas for which ecological
19	modelling can constitute a helpful approach. In the present work, a DEB-IBM model (Dynamic Energy Budget -
20	Individual-Based Model) was generated to simulate and predict population dynamics in an endemic and common
21	benthic species of shallow marine habitats of the Kerguelen Islands, the sea urchin Abatus cordatus. The model relies
22	on a dynamic energy budget model (DEB) developed at the individual level. Upscaled to an individual-based
23	population model (IBM), it then enables to model population dynamics through time as a result of individual
24	physiological responses to environmental variations. The model was successfully built for a reference site to simulate
25	the response of populations to variations in food resources and temperature. Then, it was implemented to model
26	population dynamics at other sites and for the different IPCC climate change scenarios RCP 2.6 and 8.5.

27 Under present-day conditions, models predict a more determinant effect of food resources on population densities, 28 and on juvenile densities in particular, relative to temperature. In contrast, simulations predict a sharp decline in 29 population densities under conditions of IPCC scenarios RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5 with a determinant effect of water 30 warming leading to the extinction of most vulnerable populations after a 30-year simulation time due to high 31 mortality levels associated with peaks of high temperatures. Such a dynamic model is here applied for the first time 32 to a Southern Ocean benthic and brooding species and offers interesting prospects for Antarctic and sub-Antarctic 33 biodiversity research. It could constitute a useful tool to support conservation studies in these remote regions where 34 access and bio-monitoring represent challenging issues.

35

36 1. Introduction

37

38 The Kerguelen Islands are part of the French Southern Territories (Terres australes françaises - Taf), located at 39 the limit of the Indian and Southern oceans, in the sub-Antarctic area. The region is highly impacted by climate 40 change, and coastal marine ecosystems and habitats are particularly at risk given that species have long adapted to 41 cold and stable conditions (Waller et al. 2017, Gutt et al. 2018, Convey & Peck 2019). Coastal marine species of the 42 Kerguelen Islands are threatened by temperature and seasonality shifts, which are expected to intensify in a near 43 future (Turner et al. 2014, IPCC 5th report). Future predictions of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 44 (IPCC 5th report) are provided as possible Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) scenarios of climate change 45 and can be used to infer the potential response of ecosystems to future environmental conditions. However, the 46 insufficient spatial and time resolutions of such models constitute serious limitations to assessing the effects of future 47 environmental changes on sub-Antarctic species (Murphy & Hofmann 2012, Constable et al. 2014).

The echinoid *Abatus cordatus (Verrill 1876)* is endemic to the Kerguelen oceanic plateau and common in coastal benthic habitats of the Kerguelen Islands. It is reported in the northern Kerguelen plateau, and around Heard and Kerguelen islands but most records are from shallow, coastal areas of the Kerguelen Islands where dense populations are commonly observed (Agassiz 1881, De Ridder et al. 1992, Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin 1996, David et al. 2005, Hibberd & Moore 2009, Guillaumot et al. 2016, Guillaumot et al. 2018a,b). This makes the species particularly at risk considering the synergetic effects of the multiple factors (temperature variations, significant shifts in coastal currents, sedimentation rates and phytoplanktonic blooms) affecting coastal marine communities at high latitudes (Waller et al. 2017, Stenni et al. 2017, Gutt et al. 2018). The species' endemicity can be partly related to low dispersal capabilities, which is a consequence of a particular life trait: *A. cordatus* broods its young in incubating pouches located on the aboral side of the test, and has a direct development with no larval stage and no metamorphosis. The low dispersal capacity of *A. cordatus* likely increases its vulnerability to environmental changes (Ledoux et al. 2012).

Benthic fauna of sub-Antarctic regions remains under-studied compared to pelagic species (Améziane et al. 2011, Xavier et al. 2016). Ecological niche models can represent relevant tools to study the consequences of environmental changes on the biology of these benthic organisms and on their population dynamics. Correlative niche models were used to predict the distribution of suitable areas for *A. cordatus* on the Kerguelen plateau (Guillaumot et al. 2018a,b). However, supplementary data and analyses are still needed to depict and understand the species' response to environmental changes.

In the present work, a mechanistic modelling approach using a Dynamic Energy Budget - Individual-Based Model (DEB-IBM) was used to analyse the biological response of *A. cordatus* to various environmental conditions. An individual mechanistic model (DEB) was first built using experimental and literature data (Guillaumot 2019). A DEB model aims to represent the physiological development of an organism, from the embryo to its death based on energetic fluxes and allows considering the metabolic state of the individual at any given moment of its life cycle. It relies on biological principles and first laws of thermodynamics to recreate the metabolic development as a function of two environmental parameters, food resources and temperature (Kooijman 2010).

The DEB model was then upscaled to the population level (IBM), wherein it was implemented as iterative mathematical calculations of each organism's individual development in the population. The IBM relies on the simulation of individuals as autonomous entities forming a complex population within a dynamic system (Railsback and Grimm 2019). The DEB-IBM is used to analyse population dynamics emerging from the development and the physiological traits of individuals as a function of environmental forcing variables (i.e. food resources and temperature). The DEB-IBM can then be used to simulate population dynamics under different environmental scenarios, enabling a better quantification of the vulnerability of populations to changing environmental conditions.

80 Modelling population dynamics using a DEB-IBM model for a sub-Antarctic and brooding invertebrate brings a

81 feature so far unseen in other published DEB models. The main objectives of the study were to develop a DEB-IBM

82 model for A. cordatus (1) to simulate population structure and dynamics at different sites under both current

83 environmental conditions and future IPCC climate scenarios RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5, and (2) to assess the feasibility of 84 such a model for organisms in a region where low data availability and resolution may limit model building and 85 validation. The current resolution and accuracy of future climate scenarios in sub-Antarctic areas do not allow 86 building precise and reliable predictions for the future but they were used here as a proof of concept to test 87 population responses to various, conceivable conditions. Sensitivity analyses were performed to test the robustness, 88 potential and relevance of models (Grimm & Berger 2016) considering data availability. Simulations performed for 89 various temperature conditions and food resource availabilities, if validated, may constitute a promising tool to 90 address conservation issues.

91

92 **2.** Methods

93 2.1. Study area

94 The DEB-IBM population model was generated in the geographic and environmental context of the Kerguelen 95 Islands (Fig. 1) using data of the study site of Anse du Halage, a fieldwork station that has regularly been 96 investigated through several biological studies since the 1980s (Magniez 1980, Schatt & Féral 1991, Mespoulhé 97 1992, Poulin 1995, Poulin & Féral 1998, Ledoux et al. 2012). The Kerguelen Islands show jagged coastlines and 98 numerous islets and fjords that provide a large variety of habitats to the marine benthic fauna. The nature of the 99 seafloor varies from rocky to sandy and muddy shores. The predominance of the giant kelp Macrocystis pyrifera is a 100 main feature of the Kerguelen as this engineer and key species plays a decisive role in the protection and structuring 101 of benthic shallow habitats in many places of the archipelago (Lang 1967, 1971, Arnaud 1974, Féral et al. 2019).

Located in the Morbihan Bay, a 700 km² semi-enclosed shallow embayment (50m depth on average) of the Kerguelen Islands, Anse du Halage is situated at the bottom of a small and shallow (2m depth) cove dominated by fine to medium sands (Magniez 1979, Poulin 1996) (Fig. 1). The tidal range is comprised between 0.4 and 2.1m, so that the area can exceptionally be uncovered at the lowest tides (Schatt and Féral 1991, Mespoulhé 1992). Sea surface temperature varies between 1 and 2°C in winter (September) to 7 to 8°C in summer (March), with sporadic peaks of +11°C in some places for certain years (Schatt and Féral 1991, Féral et al. 2019). Salinity varies between 31.89 and 33.57 (Arnaud 1974).

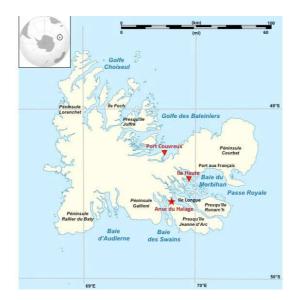
Temperature data used in the model were collected in the framework of the Proteker programme (French Polar
 Institute n°1044) (Féral et al. 2019) and accessed online (IPEV programme n°1044, http://www.proteker.net/-

111 Thermorecorders-.html?lang=en accessed on 08/05/2019). They were recorded from 2012 to 2018 at three sites used 112 in the model (Fig. 1): Ile Longue (for the model at Anse du Halage), Ile Haute, an island in the North-Western corner 113 of the Morbihan Bay, and Port Couvreux, a coastal site outside the Morbihan Bay, in the Gulf of the Baleiniers on 114 the Northern coast of the archipelago (Fig. A.1). 115 The organic matter deposited on the seabed varies with seasonal phytoplankton blooms and remineralization by 116 bacteriae (Delille et al. 1979). The sediment organic content and phytoplanktonic blooms are particularly important 117 at Anse du Halage, with average values of 4.5% of organic carbon content. The sediment organic carbon (OC) 118 content was measured monthly as a percentage of sediment dry weight by Delille & Bouvy (1989).

119

Environmental data time-series are available at a monthly timestep. The model was scaled on a single square metre patch, supposing no connectivity between neighbour locations, as no data on horizontal nor vertical water movements and matter fluxes were available.

123



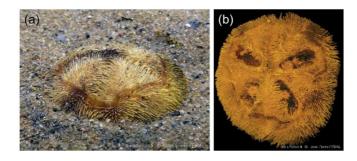
124

- Figure 1. Location of the studied sites in the Kerguelen Islands, calibration site (Anse du Halage, red star) andprojection sites (Ile Haute and Port Couvreux, red triangles).
- 127
- 128 2.2 Study species
- 129 *Abatus cordatus* (Fig. 2) is a shallow deposit-feeder and sediment swallower, living at 5°C average, full or half
- 130 buried into soft sediments (De Ridder and Lawrence 1982). It is distributed all around the Kerguelen Islands, but

131 population densities are highly variable depending on depth, substrate nature and exposure to the open sea. 132 Distributed from the intertidal area to the deep shelf over 500m depth, populations highest densities are found in very 133 shallow (0-2m depth) and sheltered areas with soft bottoms of fine to medium sand (Poulin 1996). In shallow areas, 134 observed density vary from less than 5 individuals/m² (in the Fjord des Portes Noires, Poulin & Féral 1995) to 10 135 ind./m² (at Port-aux-Français, Mespoulhé 1992), 130 ind./m² (Ile Haute, Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin 1996), 168 ind./m² 136 (Port Couvreux, Poulin 1996) and up to 280 ind./m² (Anse du Halage, Magniez 1980, Poulin 1996). Juveniles are 137 commonly found sheltered in between holdfasts of the giant kelp Macrocystis pyrifera bordering with sandy shallow 138 areas.

The species is relatively resistant to low salinities locally induced by freshwater run-off from the main island (Guille & Lasserre 1979). It is tolerant to temperature variations, particularly marked in shallow areas, but temperature tolerance does not exceed +12°C (personal observations). The maximum size ever observed is 4.9 cm in length (Mespoulhé 1992). Lifespan is assumed to be around six years old (Mespoulhé 1992), although it cannot be excluded that some individuals may grow older. Identified predators are gastropods, crustaceans and seagulls (Poulin & Féral 1995, Poulin 1996) from which the specimens are hidden when burrowing into the sediment (Magniez 1979, Poulin & Féral 1995).

146



148 Figure 2. Specimens of *Abatus cordatus*. (a) Aboral view of a specimen half buried in sand, (b) Aboral view of a 149 female showing the brood pouches with juveniles inside. © Féral J.P.

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147

Sexual reproduction in *A. cordatus* occurs every year, with all mature females producing eggs (Magniez 1983) and incubating their young in their four brood pouches located on the aboral side of the test (Fig. 2b). After brooding, juveniles exit the pouches and start their autonomous development on the seabed, in the vicinity of their mother (Magniez 1983, Schatt 1985). Reproduction time can greatly differ between sites: generally extending from March to May (as in Anse du Halage and Ile Haute), reproduction can also occur from June to August (Ile Suhm), from December to February (Port Matha) or from August to November (Port Couvreux) (Poulin 1996). Females usually spawn once a year (Poulin 1996). Brooding and burrowing behaviours imply a relative sedentary lifestyle and can explain a part of the species endemicity, with dense populations scattered all around the archipelago and only a few older individuals that may be found isolated from core populations (Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin & Féral 1995).

160

161 2.3 DEB modelling

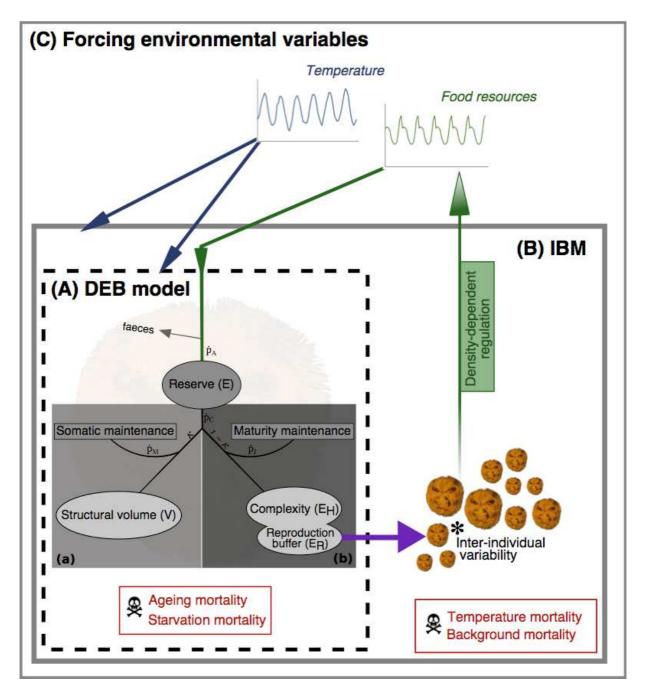
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163 2.3.1. Principles

164 DEB theory defines individuals as dynamic systems and provides a mathematical framework for modelling 165 organisms' life cycle. It describes physiological processes using four primary state variables --reserve, structure, 166 reproduction buffer and maturity— directly linked to mass and energy flows and influenced by two forcing variables, 167 temperature and food availability (Fig. 3, Kooijman 2010, Jusup et al. 2017). Based on feeding, growth and 168 reproduction processes, DEB models predict the metabolic and development states of organisms through time (Sousa 169 et al. 2008, Kooijman 2010). Metabolic processes are linked to shape and size of the organism, represented by the 170 structural volume and the structural area. Structural volume is related to maintenance processes, while structural area 171 is closely linked to food ingestion and assimilation processes and controls the amount of energy arriving into the 172 reserve compartment E (Fig. 3A, van der Meer 2006).

The energy contained in the reserve compartment is allocated to organism maintenance ('somatic' and 'maturity' maintenances, priority processes that condition the organism's survival), to growth (increase of structural volume *V*), and to the increase of complexity (E_H) or reproduction buffer (E_R) (Fig. 3A) according to the kappa-rule (Kooijman 2010). The complexity is represented as the maturity level. The amount of energy accumulated into this compartment triggers metabolic switches such as the transition (i.e. ability to feed, to reproduce) between life stages, defined in DEB theory (namely embryo, juvenile and adult life stages) (Kooijman 2010).

179



180

Figure 3. Schematic representation of the DEB-IBM (Dynamic Energy Budget - Individual-Based Model). Individuals (A) undergo development through the DEB model and reproduce (purple arrow). Altogether and with a slight inter-individual variability in DEB parameters (*), they form the population of the IBM (B) which undergoes population-specific processes (temperature and background mortalities) at the scale of a simple square metre patch at the reference site (C). The IBM population is embedded within this specific environment, whose environmental

- 186 conditions (temperature and food resources) affect individual and population dynamics. Additionally, the population
- 187 influences the resources availability following a density-dependence regulation.
- 188
- 189 2.3.2. Application of DEB model to A. cordatus
- 190

191 Parameter estimation. An individual mechanistic DEB model was developed for A. cordatus (Guillaumot 2019). 192 Estimated DEB parameters are reported in Table 1. The DEB model considers a larval growth accelerated compared 193 to the adult stage (Schatt 1985), so-called 'abj' type model. The model was constructed using data from the literature 194 (Table 2). The goodness of fit of the DEB model to the data was evaluated by calculating the Mean Relative Error 195 (MRE) of each dataset, which is the sum of the absolute differences between observed and expected values, divided 196 by the expected values. MRE values are contained in the interval [0, infinity). The MRE is considered to be a 197 reference method to assess DEB modelling performance (Lika et al. 2011b), for which the closer to 0, the better 198 model predictions match the data.

- 199
- 200 Table 1. Parameters estimated for the DEB model developed for *Abatus cordatus*. Values are given for the reference
- temperature of 20°C. The MRE of the model is 0.121.

Parameter	Symbol	Value	Unit		
Basic DEB parameters					
Volume of specific somatic maintenance ¹ Somatic maintenance rate coefficient ¹ Fraction of energy allocated to somatic maintenance and growth ¹ Volume-specific cost of structure ¹ Energy of maturity at birth ¹ Energy of maturity at metamorphosis ¹ Energy of maturity at puberty ¹ Arrhenius temperature ³	[ṕM] kM κ [EG] [E ^b _H] [E ^j _H] [E ^p _H] TA	13.84 5.10 ⁻³ 0.78 2395 0.5693 8.325 1638 9000	J.d ⁻¹ .cm ⁻³ d ⁻¹ J.cm ⁻³ J.cm ⁻³ J.cm ⁻³ J.cm ⁻³ K		
DEB compound parameters					
Energy conductance ¹ Maturity maintenance rate coefficient ³ Shape coefficient ² Maximum structural length ¹ Acceleration factor ¹	ν̈́ kJ δ L _m sM	0.02722 0.002 0.6718 2.93 2.397	cm.d ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ - cm -		

Reproduction parameters						
Yield of structure on reserve ¹	yVE	0.865	#mol.mol ⁻¹			
Contribution of reserve to weight ¹	w	0.647	-			
Ageing parameters						
Weibull ageing acceleration ¹	ĥа	5.02.10 ⁻⁶	d-2			
Gompertz stress coefficient ³	sG	0.0001				

¹ Estimated using the covariation method (Lika et al. 2011a, 2011b, Marques et al. 2018)

² Calculated from data for initial value and then estimated with the covariation method

³ Fixed, guessed value

206	Table 2. Zero and uni-variate data used for the estimation of the DEB model parameters. All values are
207	given at a measured temperature of 5°C. MRE: Mean Relative Error. Plots related to uni-variate data can
208	be found in Appendix B.

Zero-variate dataAge at metamorphosis1aj142143d0.0072Schatt (1985)Age at puberty2ap10981018d0.0731Mespoulhé (1992)Life spanam21902190d 5.10^8 Mespoulhé (1992)Length at metamorphosisLj0.2760.324cm0.1738Schatt (1985)Length at pubertyLp1.91.824cm0.0399Mespoulhé (1992)Maximal observed length (at 6 yearsL64.23.65cm0.1321Mespoulhé (1992)old)Li89.507cm0.1883guessedUltimate maximal lengthWw0 $1.78.10^3$ $1.59.10^3$ g0.1081Schatt (1985)Wet weight at metamorphosisWwp2.9 3.03 g0.0448Féral and Magniez (1988)Wet weight at pubertyWw62524.18g0.0328Féral and Magniez (1983)Wet weight at 6 years oldGSI0.070.078-0.1194Magniez (1983)	Variable	Symbol	Obs.	Prediction	Unit	MRE	Reference	
Age at puberty2ap10981018d0.0731Mespoulhé (1992)Life spanam21902190d 5.10^{-8} Mespoulhé (1992)Length at metamorphosisLj0.2760.324cm0.1738Schatt (1985)Length at pubertyLp1.91.824cm0.0399Mespoulhé (1992)Maximal observed length (at 6 yearsL64.23.65cm0.1321Mespoulhé (1992)old)Li89.507cm0.1883guessedUltimate maximal lengthWw0 $1.78.10^{-3}$ $1.59.10^{-3}$ g0.1081Schatt (1985)Wet weight at metamorphosisWwp 2.9 3.03 g0.0448Féral and Magniez (1988)Wet weight at pubertyWw62524.18g0.0328Féral and Magniez (1988)Wet weight at 6 years oldGSI0.070.078-0.1194Magniez (1983)	Zero-variate data	Zero-variate data						
	Age at puberty ² Life span Length at metamorphosis Length at puberty Maximal observed length (at 6 years old) Ultimate maximal length Wet weight of the egg Wet weight at metamorphosis Wet weight at puberty Wet weight at 6 years old	ap Lj Lp L6 Li Ww0 Wwj Wwp Wwp	$ \begin{array}{r} 1098 \\ 2190 \\ 0.276 \\ 1.9 \\ 4.2 \\ 8 \\ 1.78.10^{-3} \\ 1.03.10^{-2} \\ 2.9 \\ 25 \\ \end{array} $	$1018 \\ 2190 \\ 0.324 \\ 1.824 \\ 3.65 \\ 9.507 \\ 1.59.10^{-3} \\ 1.70.10^{-2} \\ 3.03 \\ 24.18 \\$	d d cm cm cm cm g g g g	$\begin{array}{c} 0.0731 \\ 5.10^8 \\ 0.1738 \\ 0.0399 \\ 0.1321 \\ 0.1883 \\ 0.1081 \\ 0.6482 \\ 0.0448 \\ 0.0328 \end{array}$	Mespoulhé (1992) Mespoulhé (1992) Schatt (1985) Mespoulhé (1992) Mespoulhé (1992) guessed Schatt (1985) Schatt (1985) Féral and Magniez (1988) Féral and Magniez (1988)	

Variable	Symbol	Obs. /Prediction	Unit	MRE	Reference
Uni-variate data					
Time since birth vs. length Egg diameter vs. egg wet weight Length vs. Wet weight adult Length vs. O2 consumption	tL LW_egg LW LJO	See Appendix B	d // cm cm // g cm // g cm // μL/h	0.2259 0.1262 0.3248 0.2872	Schatt and Féral (1996) Mespoulhé (1992) Féral and Magniez (1988) Féral and Magniez (1988)

¹ moment at which the juveniles leave the brooding pouch of the mother ² moment at which the sea urchin is able to reproduce

³ maximum gonad index for an animal of the maximum size, gonad index as gonad weight/total wet
 weight.

215

216 Maturation and development. Embryos of A. cordatus have a direct development in brood pouches of females 217 (Magniez 1983, Schatt 1985). They start feeding inside pouches after 142 days of incubation (i.e. 5 months) and 218 leave the pouches as fully developed sea urchins after 8.5 months (Schatt 1985). According to DEB theory, 219 individuals are considered embryos until they can feed (Kooijman 2010). Before the fifth month, feeding inside the 220 maternal pouches is not clearly attested, but feeding through epidermal uptake of Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM) 221 is considered as the possible mechanism (Schatt & Féral 1996). At each growth step, energy is supplied to the 222 reserve by the ingested food (Fig. 3A, \dot{p}_A) and then leaves the reserve compartment to be directed to growth, 223 maturation or reproduction compartments through the mobilisation flux (Fig. 3A, \dot{p}_{C}). This is performed following 224 the kappa-rule: a κ fraction is directed towards the structure (growth compartment and somatic maintenance, Fig. 225 3A(a)), and the remaining $1 - \kappa$ fraction towards complexity (maturation, reproduction compartments and maturity 226 maintenance, Fig. 3A(b)).

During the juvenile stage, the individual does not supply energy into reproduction, but accumulates energy in its maturity compartment E_H until reaching the 'puberty' threshold that, according to DEB theory, defines the moment when the organism is mature enough to reproduce (Kooijman 2010). After reaching this threshold, at around 2.5 to 3 years old (Schatt 1985, Mespoulhé 1992), the organism can allocate energy into the reproduction buffer E_R for gamete production (Fig. 3A). The structural volume increases continuously along the individual's life, from birth to death, supplied in energy left from what has not been allocated to priority maintenance costs \dot{p}_M and \dot{p}_J .

233

Starvation mortality. Magniez (1983) observed that the gonadal index continues to decrease slightly for around two months after reproduction. He hypothesized that it was related to the season: as the reproduction period finishes at the start of winter, food resources decrease and energy investment into reproductive organs is momentary diverted towards the maintenance of somatic elements. This was demonstrated in the other sea urchin species *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* (Lawrence et al. 1966) and *Arbacia lixula* (Fenaux et al. 1975) confronted to starvation. In the model, when scaled reserve *e* (reserve relative to reserve capacity, no dimension) falls below the scaled structural length *l* (length relative to maximum length, no dimension), it is assumed that the individual is 241 confronted to starvation: the kappa-rule is then altered as energy is entirely redirected to the somatic maintenance 242 and all other fluxes (growth, reproduction or maturation) are set to 0. When e < 0, the organism does not have 243 enough energy to allocate the amount necessary for survival (somatic maintenance costs) and dies. See section 244 "7.Submodels/Starvation" in Appendix G for further details and implemented equations.

245

Ageing mortality. Death probability by senescence was calculated in the model using the ageing sub-model, a simulation of damages induced by lethal compounds such as free radical or other reactive oxygen species (ROS), following the DEB theory for ageing (Kooijman 2010).

The density of damage inducing compounds in the body increases as the reserve compartment is fuelled with energy that is allocated through the entire organism. It influences the hazard mortality rate \dot{h} , which is a function of the damage accumulated in the body and simulates the vulnerability of the individual to damages, such as the risk of dying from illness increases with age. In the model, the hazard mortality rate \dot{h} is supplemented by a stochastic parameter (Martin et al. 2010) to control the ageing mortality rate. See section "7.Submodels/Ageing" in Appendix G for further details and implemented equations.

255

256 2.4 Individual-based modelling for the population

257 2.4.1 Principles

258 The individual DEB model is used to simulate each individual as an entity of the individual-based population model 259 (IBM). An IBM represents the individual components (individuals of A. cordatus) of an environmental system (Anse 260 du Halage) and their behaviours, enabling to feature each individual as an autonomous entity and looking at results at 261 the scale of the whole population (DeAngelis & Mooij 2005, Grimm & Railsback 2005, Railsback & Grimm 2019). 262 In our model, each individual do not have any direct interaction nor adaptive behaviour towards their environment 263 nor the other members of the population. They follow a continuous development governed by metabolic fluxes (DEB 264 model) that are influenced by environmental conditions (temperature and food resources) along their entire life. Each 265 individual is a component of the modelled population, which is itself affected by population death rate and density-266 dependent processes.

The IBM was built with the software Netlogo version 6.0.4 (Wilensky 1999), using the DEB-IBM model developed by Martin et al. (2010) for the species *Daphnia magna*. The NetLogo code is available at http://modelingcommons.org/browse/one_model/6201. It contains the script to run the model, the input files of monthly food resources and temperatures for the three stations and a detailed description of the model following the ODD protocol from Grimm et al. (2010) and the associated list of variables present in the code. This detailed ODD was also included in Appendix G.

273

274 2.4.2 Application of IBM model to A. cordatus

Model structure. The model includes two types of entities: the individuals and the environment. Individuals are divided into 4 types of sub-agents, depending on their life stage and sex: embryos, juveniles, adult males and adult females. The values of four primary state variables are attributed to each individual (scaled reserve U_E , volumetric structural length *L*, scaled maturity U_H and scaled reproduction buffer U_R). The level of energy contained in the scaled maturity U_H thresholds the life stages. These four variables are 'scaled', meaning here that the energy dimension has been removed by dividing with the surface-area-specific maximum assimilation rate { \dot{p}_{Am} } (in J.L⁻².t⁻¹), based on DEB theory (Kooijman 2010).

Simulations were run with a monthly timestep for calculation, in regard to the slow growth of the species and the available data (an analysis of the effect of the timestep on the core individual model was conducted, cf. Appendix C). At each timestep, food and temperature conditions are first input into the model, state variable values of each individual are calculated in order to assess whether new maturity thresholds are reached or whether energy is sufficient for survival, growth or reproduction. The population state is reassessed at the end of each month. Spatially, population structure and density are simulated on a patch of one square metre at each site and individuals do not leave the patch during their entire life.

289

Initialisation. The initial population density value was set to 120 ind./m² and this figure was split into classes of equal densities of 20 individuals of different age-classes, between 0 and 5 years old, in order to stabilize the initialisation between the different replicates. An initial run is realised to capture the values of the four state variables that characterize the individual of each age class (at October 2012 temperatures and f=1), in order to initiate the model (Appendix H). The first decade of the simulation period was always considered as the initialisation phase and was removed from the analysis, the model showing important outliers (in individual metabolism and population structure) during these first ten years.

298

299 Inter-individuals variability. Each individual is characterized by similar energetic performances estimated by the 300 DEB estimation (Table 1). Five DEB parameters were divided by a scatter-multiplier parameter that was generated 301 in order to create inter-individual variability. These five DEB parameters were selected because they are associated 302 to the four state variables that characterize the individuals and are not null at the time the individual is initiated into 303 the model (following Martin et al. 2010): (1) maturity level at birth $(U_H^b, d.cm^2)$, that is the amount of energy 304 accumulated in the maturity compartment needed to reach the *juvenile* stage; (2) maturity level at *puberty* (U_{μ}^{p}) , 305 d.cm²), the amount of energy accumulated into the maturity compartment to reach the adult stage; (3) energy 306 investment ratio (g, no dimension), the cost of the added volume relative to the maximum potentially available 307 energy for growth and maintenance; (4) the initial energy reserve at birth (U_E , d.cm²); and (5) the initial structural 308 length (L, cm).

The *scatter-multiplier* is the exponential of a random number from a normal distribution of mean 0 and standard deviation *cv* (0.1 by default, can be set by the user in the interface of the model). The value is therefore small enough to not affect tremendously the initial variable and generate trade-off between parameters. It is applied as soon as the individual is created in the system.

313

Reproduction. Sex-ratios (ratio males/females) in the studied populations are slightly contrasting between localities,
from 0.94 (Ile Haute) to 0.99 (Anse du Halage) and 1.04 (Port Couvreux) (Poulin 1996). The average ratio of 0.99
was chosen in the model. By approximation, it was considered that only females undergo physiological changes
during the reproduction process, males being only used as a component of the total population.

318

To this date, few monitoring studies have been performed on *A. cordatus* reproduction. Magniez (1983) is the only one who studied the Gonado Somatic Index (GSI), that is the proportion of ash-free gonads dry weight over the ashfree body dry weight, therefore directly linked to the accumulation of energy into the reproduction buffer. According 322 to Magniez (1983), reproduction can occur if the GSI reaches at least 0.07%. This condition was used in our model

323 to control the ability of the female to reproduce when time comes.

- 324 The gonadosomatic index GSI was only attributed to females and was estimated for each month, with this equation
- 325 (Kooijman 2010, section 4.10, eq. 4.89):

326
$$GSI = \frac{\text{time_of_accumulation} * \dot{k}_M * g}{f^3 * (f + \varkappa * g * y_{VE})} * ((1 - \varkappa) * f^3 - \frac{\dot{k}_J * U_H^p}{Lm^2 * s_M^3}), \text{ where the time of accumulation is the}$$

- number of days spent since the end of the reproduction period, \vec{k}_M is the somatic maintenance rate coefficient (in d⁻¹), *g* the energy investment ratio (no dimension), *f* the scaled functional response (no dimension), κ the fraction of energy directed towards structure, y_{VE} the parameter for the yield of structure on reserve (mol/mol), that is the number of moles of structure that can be produced with one mole of reserve, $1 - \kappa$ the fraction of energy directed towards complexity, \vec{k}_J the maturity maintenance rate coefficient (in d⁻¹), U_H^p the scaled energy in the complexity compartment at puberty (d.cm²), L_m the maximum structural length (cm), and s_M the acceleration factor (no dimension).
- 334

The reproduction period is constant from March to May for the individuals at Anse du Halage, and they only spawn once a year (Magniez 1983, Schatt & Féral 1996, Poulin 1996). After each monthly step, the model checks the GSI value for each female. If the GSI reaches the 0.07% threshold at the onset of the period (March), reproduction is triggered for this considered female.

339 According to the literature, when reproducing, females invest around 52% of their reproductive organs' energy into 340 reproduction (Magniez 1983). This energy is released during the three months when spawning occurs. That is, the 341 GSI of the female will decrease by 52% of its initial value over the 3 months period (so a decrease of one third of 52% 342 per month, with $\partial GSI = (GSI_{start} - 0.52 * GSI_{start}) / 3$, where GSI_{start} is the level of gonadal index at the onset of 343 reproduction). In parallel, the usual ∂U_R (change in energy density in the reproduction buffer outside of the 344 reproduction period, no unit) is set to 0 for the three months, while U_R (energy density in the reproduction buffer) is 345 forced to decrease in a similar fashion to the GSI: $\partial_2 U_R = (U_{R_start} - 0.52 * U_{R_start}) / 3$, with U_{R_start} being the 346 reproduction buffer at the start of the period.

Reproduction induces the introduction of 27 embryos in average in the system (Magniez 1983), added proportionallyalong the three months (9 per month).

349

Background mortality. No specific adult mortality rates are mentioned in the literature, as no cause have been defined precisely. Background population mortality annual rates were estimated based on size frequency distribution provided by Mespoulhé (1992), and using the formula from Ebert (2013) $N(t) = N_0 * e^{-M*t}$ with N(t) the population size at time t, N₀ the initial population size, M the mortality rate and t the time (in months). Two yearly mortality rates were defined: one for juveniles (41%) and one for adults (24%).

A percentage of embryos mortality in the pouches was calculated based on data from Poulin (1996), determining an egg survival of 65%. This mortality is associated to the fact that when the first juveniles start leaving the maternal pouches at the beginning of January, they push aside the protecting spikes of the pouch, and eggs remaining in the brood are no longer protected and die (Magniez 1980).

359

360 Mortality induced by temperatures. As no precise information is available to accurately describe A. cordatus 361 temperature tolerance, three different types of sensitivity were designed to cover different hypothesis (Fig. D.2). 362 Based on experimental results obtained in the Kerguelen Islands (personal observation), mortality gradient due to 363 temperature was applied to the population for temperatures comprised between 8 and 12°C. Over 12°C, all 364 individuals are considered to die in the model, as none survived in the experiment. (1) A 'vulnerable' type was 365 defined with population death rates of 25%, 35% and 45% when the sea urchins are exposed to temperatures 366 respectively reaching 8, 9.5 and 11°C during two consecutive months. (2) The 'resistant' type was defined with a 367 mortality rate 15% lower than the vulnerable one for the same temperature thresholds (e.g. 10% instead of 25% 368 population mortality at +8°C), for similar exposure duration (i.e. two months). (3) The 'intermediate' type is similar 369 to the 'resistant' type but individuals are considered to die after one month of exposure to each temperature instead 370 of two (Fig. D.2).

371

Density-dependent regulation. Population density autoregulates through competition for food resources. This procedure relies on the monitoring of population density in relation to the carrying capacity and allows to stabilize the model. The model calculates the current population density and quantifies the competition effect on food availability depending on how far from the carrying capacity (K) the population density (P) is, and updates food availability in accordance. 378 population size, competition for food (FC, quantified food competition) is present and influences effective food 379 availability (f_{eff}), with $f_{eff} = f_{env} + FC$, following Goedegebuure et al. (2018). f_{eff} and f_{env} are contained between 0 and 380 1. FC is calculated with the following equations: If P < 1.9 * K, then FC = $(1 - f_{env}) \cdot (1 - \frac{P}{2.K-P})$ 381 If $P \ge 1.9 * K$, then FC = $(1 - f_{env}) \cdot (1 - \frac{P}{K/10})$ 382 383 FC is positive if P < K, and f_{eff} tends to its maximal value 1 with a decreasing population size, as FC becomes very 384 low and tends to 1- fenv. When P > K, FC turns negative and makes feff decrease with the minimal value reached at P 385 = 2K.386 Two equations are used because if P = 2K, the first formula gives an error due to a division by 0, and if P > 2K, then 387 the formula gives the untrue result of less competition with a bigger population (hence the use of 1.9 as a pivot 388 value). Competition is only effective if food availability is less than the maximum (hence the use of '1 - f_{env} ' in the 389 equation).

It is considered that at each timestep, a certain amount of food is available in the environment (f_{env}) but according to

390

377

391 2.5. Summary of model parameterization and sensitivity analysis

The model was constructed following the ecological and physiological observations available in the literature for *A*. *cordatus*. These observations are summarised in the following table (Table 3). Once these elements added, the ageing submodel and the carrying capacity parameters, for which no *in situ* observations are defined, were calibrated until obtaining a model stable in time, over several centuries.

396

397 The sensitivity of the model to different parameters was tested. This sensitivity analysis also served as a first form of 398 validation in the absence of wider means of validation. Initial population number, inter-individuals variation 399 coefficient, juvenile and adult background mortalities, number of eggs produced per female during a reproduction 400 event, and egg survival rate were each applied variations of -30%, -20%, -10%, +10%, +20% and +30% (Table 3). 401 The influence of changes in these parameter values was assessed on the average population density (ind/m²), the 402 average juvenile/adult ratio, the average physical length, the average reserve energy and the average structural length 403 variation over the period of 200 years. For each analysis, models were replicated 100 times. A model was considered 404 to 'crash' when the population is not stable and collapses entirely before the end of the simulation period. The 405 proportion of crashes relates to the number of crashes counted for 100 simulations (i.e., for 15 crashes and 100 406 simulations, the proportion is $15/(100+15)\sim13\%$). Due to computing time limitations, the analysis was stopped when

407 reaching a proportion higher than 66% of crashes (indicated by a black cross in Appendix E).

408

The model sensitivity to the GSI threshold assumption was tested with the upper and lower values of the GSI calculated at the onset of reproduction in Magniez (1983). The minimum value did not impact the model at all, but the higher threshold value prevented most of the females from reproducing (results not presented).

412

413 Table 3. List of parameters integrated in the individual and population models. Descriptions and values. The source 414 reference that justifies the choice of the parameterization is provided in the 'reference' column. The last column 415 synthetises which parameters where modified to performed a sensitivity analysis, whose results are presented in 416 Appendix E.

Parameters	Model parameterization	Reference	Sensitivity analysis
Individuals			
Time of development until birth	8 months	254 days (Schatt 1985)	MRE DEB model
Time of development until puberty	Threshold by U_H^b value	2.5 to 3 years old (Schatt 1985, Mespoulhé 1992)	MRE DEB model
Starvation	e < 1	Kooijman (2010)	Not tested
Ageing	Probability depending on accumulated cell damages, constrained by stochasticity	Damage probability: following Martin et al. (2010) and Kooijman (2010) rules for ageing Stochasticity: calibrated at the end of model construction until reaching model stability	Not tested, calibrated parameter
Population			
Initial population density	120 ind./m ²	Rounded from literature (Guille and Lasserre 1979, Magniez 1980, Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin 1996)	-30 to +30% variation tested
Initial population structure	5 age-classes of 20 individuals	Follow average population structure observed by Mespoulhé (1992)	Not tested

Variation coefficient (cv) from the	0.1	Follow IBM parameterization of Martin et	-30 to +30% variation tested
inter-individual variability		al. (2010) study	
Ratio females/males	50/50	Sex-ratio: 0.99 (Poulin 1996)	Not tested
Initial GSI	0.03%	Magniez (1983)	Not tested
GSI threshold for reproduction	0.07%	Magniez (1983)	Tested with the upper (0.116) and lower (0.028) values of the GSI calculated at the onset of reproduction in Magniez (1983)
Reproduction period	3 months once a year	Magniez (1983), Schatt & Féral (1996), Poulin (1996)	Not tested
Energy investment into	52% of the reproductive	Magniez (1983)	Not tested
reproduction	energy at the onset of the period		
Number of eggs	27 eggs per adult female	Magniez (1983), Schatt (1985)	-30 to +30% variation tested
Eggs survival to juvenile stage (birth)	65%	Poulin (1996)	-30 to +30% variation tested
Yearly background mortality rates	41% of juveniles 24% of adults	Equation provided in Ebert et al. (2013), implemented with population data from Mespoulhé (1992)	-30 to +30% variation tested
Mortality induced by temperature tolerance	Three sensitivity scenarios	Designed from experimental results	Not tested
Carrying capacity	200 ind./m ²	Calibrated at the end of model construction until reaching model stability, no information available in the literature	Not tested, calibrated parameter

419 2.6. Forcing environmental variables

2.6.1. Temperature

In the frame of DEB theory, temperature influences metabolic rates following the Arrhenius function which defines the range of temperatures that affect enzyme performance, considering that metabolic rates are controlled by enzymes that are set inactive beyond an optimal temperature tolerance (Kooijman 2010, Thomas & Bacher 2018). The Arrhenius response is characterized by five parameters that describe the species tolerance range: the Arrhenius temperature T_A , the temperature at the upper and lower limits of the species tolerance range T_H and T_L respectively, and the Arrhenius temperature beyond upper and lower limits of the tolerance range T_{AH} and T_{AL} respectively.

In our study, the available information is not sufficient to define the complete relationship between temperature and metabolic performances, and the temperature correction factor (*TC*) is only calculated using one of the five Arrhenius parameter T_A (in K), following the equation $\tau(T) = \tau * \exp(T_A/T_{ref} - T_A/T)$ with τ a given metabolic rate, T_{ref} the reference temperature (293K $\approx 20^{\circ}$ C), T the environmental temperature (in Kelvin) and $\exp((T_A/T_{ref} - T_A/T))$ being the temperature correction factor *TC*. The correction is applied to the metabolic rates \dot{v} , \dot{k}_M , \dot{k}_L , \ddot{h}_a (Table 1).

433

Temperatures recorded since 1993 at Port aux Français, another site in the Gulf of Morbihan, show a clear 6-year cycle of increasing and decreasing temperatures (Appendix A). The [2012-2018] temperature dataset selected as input forcing variable in the model therefore constitutes an interesting proxy of temperature conditions at Anse du Halage which includes a complete overview of the environmental variability at the station. However, it is important to take this choice into consideration during interpretation of results, as it needs to be differentiated from a cycle that would be inherent to the biology of the species.

440

441 2.6.2. Food resources

In DEB theory, the energy is supplied to the reserve of the organism through ingestion proportional to food availability, represented in the model by a functional response f (from 0 to 1). Food assimilation (\dot{p}_A , Fig. 3A) is proportional to the surface of the structure of each individual and contributes to the filling of the reserve compartment E (Fig. 3A). The functional response f was calibrated using the values of organic carbon (OC) content in sediment as a percentage of dry weight of sediment at the station Anse du Halage at the end of each month, available in Delille & Bouvy (1989). The maximum value of 1 for f corresponds here to the maximum value of organic carbon content that was found (6.94%) and a f minimum of 0 corresponds to 0% OC.

449

450 2.7 Model projection

451 2.7.1. Present-day conditions at Anse du Halage

To assess the influence of varying environmental conditions on model outputs, after being constructed for the site Anse du Halage, the model was implemented in two other sites, Ile Haute and Port Couvreux, where *A. cordatus* is reported in high densities (Poulin 1996) (Fig. 1). The implementation to these two other stations was done with contrasting temperatures (from the Proteker programme, as previously explained in 2.1). Food conditions at these two sites are not available and were estimated at the end of the summer to be 50% to 30% of the organic carbon values measured at Anse du Halage according to the comparative study of Delille et al. (1979). These rates were applied to yearlong conditions (Fig. A.2). Models were launched for a period of 200 years.

459

460 2.7.2. Future conditions

461 Two future scenarios predicting environmental conditions for 2100 were used, based on the IPCC scenario RCP 462 2.6 and 8.5 (respectively optimistic and pessimistic scenarios, IPCC 5th report), accessed at 463 https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/ipcc/ocn/ (in August 2019). Coarse IPCC predictions (1°x1° resolution) of 464 chlorophyll a concentration were used to roughly evaluate potential changes of food availability on the east coast of 465 the Kerguelen Island in future conditions. Scenario RCP 2.6 shows an average decrease of 10% of current food 466 resources availability, while scenario RCP 8.5 shows an average decrease of 20% (Fig. D.3). As for temperature, we 467 defined RCP 2.6 with a linear increase of +1.1°C and +1.7°C for RCP 8.5. Models were launched for a period of 30 468 years. 469

- 470
- 471 **3. Results**
- 472
- 473 *3.1 The individual-based model*

474

Variations in energy allocated to the reserve and the maturation buffer are the main controls of individual development. Monthly variations (∂U_E and ∂U_R , ∂X here stands for $\frac{dX}{dt}$) were simulated over one year under presentday environmental conditions (Fig. 4). Energy in the reserve (Fig. 4a) shows variations between -2.5 and 8 on 478 average (no unit), with maximum range values reaching -5.8 and 13.7. This shows a relative constant energy density 479 inside the reserve throughout the year with, however, a noticeable increase from October to December and a sharp 480 decrease from December to January (Fig. 4a). According to DEB theory (Kooijman 2010), the more energy is stored 481 inside the reserve (through food assimilation), the more it can be distributed to other compartments, and the more 482 energy can be assimilated into the reserve anew. Availability of food resources for A. cordatus is the highest in 483 December (f = 1) (Fig A.2), it is assimilated and stored as energy into the reserve. Based on the energy available in 484 the reserve at the end of December, energy is supplied in January to other compartments (such as the reproduction 485 buffer, Fig. 4b and growth, Fig. Fa), while the individual ingests the food available to replenish its reserve anew. As 486 food availability decreases in January (f = 0.748), the reserve loses energy (Fig. 4a) because the individual cannot 487 assimilate as much energy as the amount transferred to other compartments.

488

489 The energy density entering the reproduction buffer (Fig. 4b) of mature females varies between 0 and 4.9 on average 490 in the course of the year, with a maximum of 10.7. The rate of energy input increases at an average pace of +1.1% 491 per month from October to the onset of the reproduction period in March, when it decreases and remains null until 492 the end of the spawning period in June. Then, energy starts accumulating again until the next reproduction period. 493 During the three months of the spawning period, from March to May, no energy is allocated from the reserve to the 494 reproduction buffer and the energy stored in this buffer is progressively delivered to gametes. Only females that are 495 mature in March undergo reproduction and deliver the energy contained in the reproductive buffer to the gametes. 496 Females that become mature during the reproduction period undergo a normal increase of the energy in the 497 reproduction buffer, which explains the small increasing trend observed during the March-May period (Fig. 4b).

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- 499

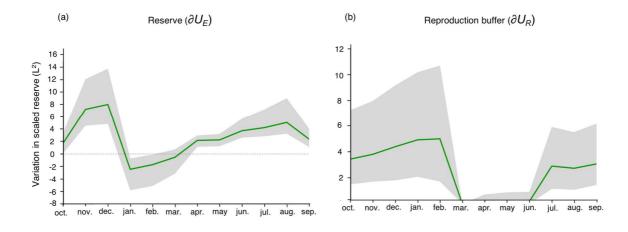




Figure 4. Simulation of the variation of energy allocated to the reserve (a) and the reproduction buffer (b) compartments over one year. Males were not considered in the model when simulating reproduction processes, and thus results presented here only take females into consideration. Average results for all mature females, in 100 model simulations are presented by the green line. The grey area corresponds to the variation range (variation induced by differences between individuals: age, size, energy allocation) between all females among the 120 individuals that initiate the model. The variation in energy allocated is the change in a scaled variable X: ∂X here stands for $\frac{dX}{dt}$ (for an explanation of the term "scaled" here, see section 2.4.2).

508

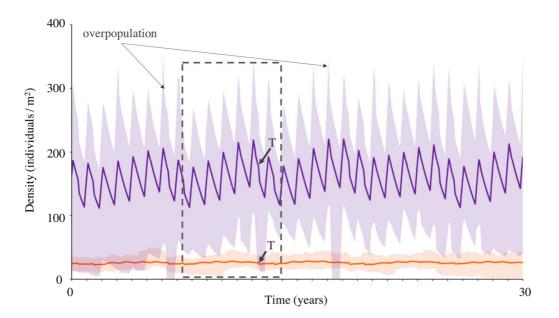
509 3.2 The population model

510 3.2.1. Modelled population dynamics at the calibration site

511 Based on the individual model, population dynamics were simulated over a time period of 30 years, showing a 512 constant population density comprised between 120 and 220 individuals per square metre. Overall, the population 513 structure remains constant through time but with well-marked yearly variations, mainly in juvenile density (Fig. 5). 514 Juveniles indeed represent around 83% of the total population density and show important yearly variations due to (1) 515 important seasonal reproductive outputs causing a surge in population density, (2) strong mortality rates causing 516 gradual decreases in the population, (3) the transfer of the large juvenile cohort to the adult population after around 3 517 years, and (4) the influence of inter-individual competition for food limiting population densities and even causing its 518 decrease. In contrast, the adult population is much more stable relative to the juvenile one, with lower density values 519 (around 40 individuals per square metre). Both juvenile and adult population fluctuations follow a general 6-year 520 pattern displayed over the 30 years of simulations (rectangle, Fig. 5). This pattern is linked to temperature cycles

521 over the same time span and includes two sharp decline in population density over a 6-year cycle ('T' symbol, Fig.
522 5), which corresponds to high temperatures rising above +8°C during two consecutive months and causing mortality
523 rates of 10% of the entire population.

524



525

Figure 5. Modelled population structure and density under present-day environmental conditions: monthly values of juvenile density (purple) and adult density (orange) over 30 years (for 100 simulations). Bold lines: mean density value. Shaded areas: variation range for the 100 simulations. 'T' symbol: sharp decrease in population density due to temperature-induced mortality. Dashed-line rectangle: 6-year cycle in population dynamics (this 6-year pattern is due to the input temperature data and not to a biological cycle inherent to the population).

531

532 3.2.2 Sensitivity analysis

533 Different parameter settings for the model initiation may result in very diverging outputs (Appendix E). It also 534 influences model stability, and population collapse in particular. Overall, the initial number of individuals and the 535 level of the inter-individual variation coefficient are parameters that have little influence on model stability and low 536 proportion of population crashes may result. In addition, model outputs do not differ significantly between 537 simulations. Increase in juvenile and adult mortality levels will also have little influence on model outputs but 538 decreasing mortality levels will induce a population burst followed by a strong competition for food and a 539 consequent population collapse.

540 Among all the parameters set at the model initialisation, egg number and egg survival are the most important 541 determining model stability, as they directly control juvenile density. High juvenile densities (induced by a low 542 background juvenile mortality and a high number of eggs and egg survival) always result in fast population collapses 543 as a result of high competition for food between individuals. As population density increases, the amount of food 544 available for each individual decreases and individuals start starving to death. In contrast, a reduction in the number 545 of juveniles causes a reduction in the average population density due to a strong mortality rate of juveniles. It does 546 not imply model instability and the proportion of modelled population crashes is always lower than 15%. The 547 reduction of population density also strongly influences the average amount of energy available for each individual: 548 the more energy is available, the more individuals can grow in structural length.

549

550 3.2.3. Projections of the population dynamics model to other sites

551 The dynamic population model built at Anse du Halage was implemented (Appendix G) for the two sites of Ile 552 Haute (inside the Morbihan Bay) and Port Couvreux (outside the Morbihan Bay). Both models were simulated twice 553 with initial estimates of 50% and 30% of food availability (f) compared to Anse du Halage ($f_{\rm H}$). Temperature inputs 554 were based on local temperature variations recorded at the two sites. Model outputs predict lower population 555 densities at both sites compared to Anse du Halage and interestingly, similar ratios between juveniles and adults 556 (Table 4). These results are consistent with density values found in the literature, which give between 100 and 136 557 individuals/m² at Ile Haute and 50 to 168 ind./m² at Port Couvreux (Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin 1996). The different 558 observed density values reported in publications for Port Couvreux may be due to contrasting conditions that locally 559 prevail among the three small embayments of that locality (Poulin 1996). This has recently been confirmed by our 560 personal observations in the field (Saucède 2020). Model outputs suggest a strong influence of food availability on 561 population densities controlled by inter-individual competition for food. Accordingly, simulations predict a drop in 562 density values at Port Couvreux when food resources decrease at 30% of f_H, while density values are relatively stable 563 at Ile Haute in comparison (Table 4a). This mainly affects juvenile densities and results in a lower population ratio 564 (Table 4b).

Temperatures recorded at the two sites inside the Morbihan Bay (Anse du Halage and Ile Haute) are close to each other and slightly higher than outside the Bay at Port Couvreux (Fig. A.1). Contrasting results were therefore expected between Port Couvreux and the two other sites. On the contrary, temperatures may not be contrasting enough between sites to affect population structure and density. Confidence intervals overlap between all sites for values of both population density and juveniles-adults ratio (Table 4).

570

571 **Table 4.** Modelled population densities (a) and juveniles over adults ratio (b) at the calibration (Anse du Halage) 572 and projection (Ile Haute and Port Couvreux) sites. Average and standard deviation values are given for 100 model 573 replicates and 200 years of simulation. $f_{\rm H}$: time series of *f* value at Anse du Halage (Delille & Bouvy 1989).

(a)	Anse du Halage	Ile Haute	Port Couvreux
$f_{\rm H}$, T°Halage 182.6 ± 49		-	-
50% of f _H , T°site	-	137.6 ± 40	137.4 ± 41
30% of f _H , T°site	-	123.2 ± 38	91.8 ± 44

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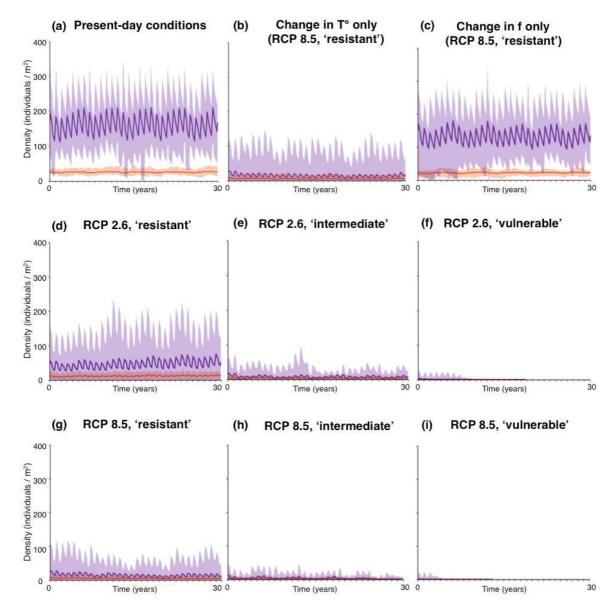
(b)	Anse du Halage	Ile Haute	Port Couvreux
f _H , T°Halage	6.53 ± 3.12	-	-
50% of f _H , T°site	-	6.31 ± 4.40	6.32 ± 4.31
30% of f _H , T°site	-	6.04 ± 4.31	3.87 ± 2.61

575

- 576
- 577 *3.2.4. Population dynamics under future predictions of climate change*

578 Population structure and density were simulated and implemented for scenarios of temperature and food 579 resources changes based on IPCC scenarios RCP 2.6 and 8.5, and for populations of 'resistant', 'intermediate' and 580 'vulnerable' organisms (Fig. 6). Population dynamics are all predicted to be affected by both scenarios (Fig. 6d, 6g) with overall population densities predicted to be four to seven times lower than current population predictions. Population structures are also predicted to be affected by a lower contribution of juveniles to overall population densities. The respective effects of temperature (Fig. 6b) and resource availability (Fig. 6c) were simulated independently. Under temperature change only (Fig. 6b), model predictions are close to model outputs in which both variables are combined (Fig. 6g), with a strong decrease in average population density compared to present-day conditions (Fig. 6a). The effect of changes in resources availability only (Fig. 6c) is less marked, with population densities showing a close pattern to present-day models (Fig. 6a).

Models therefore predict a stronger effect of temperature changes on populations, with population densities of 'vulnerable' organisms predicted as very low (less than one tenth of present-day densities on average). Populations of 'vulnerable' organisms are even predicted to go extinct in only 30 years of simulation (Fig. 6f, 6i). Populations of organisms with 'intermediate' sensitivity (Fig. 6e, 6h) are more resilient and withstand over 30 years of simulation in some cases, but they collapse at the end of the period under IPCC scenario RCP 8.5. Overall densities are very low (around 20 or less individuals per square metre on average).



594

595 Figure 6. Model predictions under IPCC scenarios RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5 of environmental change (for 100 596 simulations). Purple: adult population, orange: juvenile population. Coloured bold lines show mean values for 100 597 simulations. Shaded areas are simulation variation ranges. (a) Population model under present-day conditions, (b) 598 model under IPCC scenario RCP 8.5 of T° change only (+1.7°C compared to present) and for resistant organisms; (c) 599 model under IPCC scenario RCP 8.5 of f change only (-20% compared to present) and for resistant organisms; (d) 600 model under IPCC scenario RCP 2.6 of T° and f changes (-10% of f and +1.1°C compared to present) and for 601 'resistant' organisms; (e) model under IPCC scenario RCP 2.6 of T° and f changes and for 'intermediate' organisms; 602 (f) model under IPCC scenario RCP 2.6 of T° and f changes and for 'vulnerable' organisms; (g) model under IPCC

603 scenario RCP 8.5 of T° and *f* changes and for 'resistant' organisms; (h) model under IPCC scenario RCP 8.5 of T° 604 and *f* changes and for 'intermediate' organisms; (i) model under IPCC scenario RCP 8.5 of T° and *f* changes and for 605 'vulnerable' organisms.

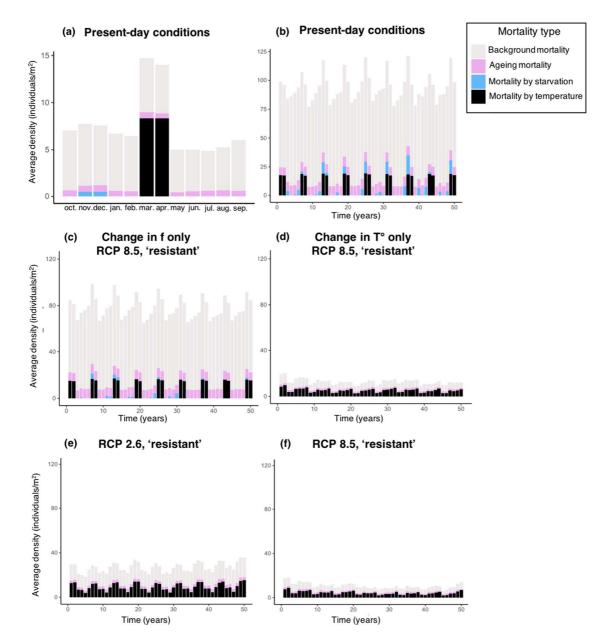
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607 3.3. Population mortality under present-day and future predictions

Under present-day conditions (Fig. 7b), background mortality and ageing are the main causes that affect population mortality each year (respectively between 65 to 90% and 5.8 to 9%). High temperatures and starvation have sporadic effects on mortality. High mortality due to high temperatures only happened in [2016-2017] and [2017-2018] and starvation contributes at the highest to 10% of overall mortality, depending on the year.

612 Over the course of a year (Fig. 7a), background mortality and ageing affect the population every month, while 613 high temperatures (over 8°C) cause the death of half of the population in March and April. Starvation is responsible 614 for the death of a weak proportion of the population in November and December only (austral summer), in link with 615 the competition for food resources of the increasing population during this productive and warm period.

Under both future scenarios (Fig. 7e, 7f), mortality levels are low compared to present-day model (Fig. 7b), which is mostly due to small predicted population densities. Background and ageing mortalities are therefore very low. Starvation is not a cause of mortality anymore, while high temperatures cause mortality of individuals before they may starve to death. When comparing between model predictions under scenario RCP 8.5 for changes in food availability only (Fig. 7c), temperature change only (Fig. 7d), and the combined variables (Fig. 7f), temperature clearly appears as the main cause of mortality, at the same level as background mortality.



622

Figure 7. Mortality simulations (in individuals/m²) per month (7a) and year (7b-f) under present-day (7a-b) and future (7c-f) predictions of the two IPCC scenarios (for 100 model simulations). (a) Model under present-day conditions for 12 months (year #7 [2016-2017] was chosen as an example); (b) Model under present-day conditions for 50 years of simulations; (c) Simulated mortality under scenario RCP 8.5 for resistant organisms and predicted changes in food availability only (f=-20% compared to present); (d) Simulated mortality under scenario RCP 8.5 for resistant organisms and predicted changes in temperature only (+1.7°C compared to present); (e) Simulated mortality under scenario RCP 2.6 for resistant organisms and predicted changes in both food availability and temperature (food

630 reduction of -10%, T° increase of +1.1°C); (f) Simulated mortality under scenario RCP 8.5 for resistant organisms

- 631 and predicted changes in food availability and temperature (food reduction of -20%, T° increase of +1.7°C).
- 632

633 4. Discussion

634 4.1. Potential and limitations of the DEB-IBM approach

635 In the present work, a DEB-IBM model was built for A. cordatus based on our current knowledge of this 636 vulnerable, endemic species of the Kerguelen plateau. On-site monitoring and experiments on species tolerance to 637 changing environmental conditions remains challenging issues in the Kerguelen Islands, and in the Southern Ocean 638 in general. Difficulties are owed to the sensitivity of specimens (Magniez 1983, Schatt 1985, Mespoulhé 1992) and 639 the inherent ecological characteristics. Models can constitute a powerful tool for Antarctic research as they can 640 provide additional support to experimental knowledge and infer the impact of broad-scale climate change on 641 populations. The potential of the present mechanistic modelling approach resides in its capacity to model the 642 physiology of organisms as a response to environmental factors. Using DEB models for the representation of 643 individual components within the IBM enables to upscale a dynamic model to an entire population (Railsback & 644 Grimm 2019) as a function of two changing abiotic factors: temperature and food resources. Applying such a model 645 to a sub-Antarctic, benthic, and brooding species is challenging, and had never been performed so far. The present 646 work shows the feasibility and relevance of the DEB-IBM approach to study Southern Ocean species like A. 647 cordatus.

648 Relevant results were obtained both at the individual and populations levels. First, simulations showed the 649 characteristic annual evolution of energy dynamics in the organism (Fig. 4, Appendix F) and second, population 650 structure and density dynamics were modelled over an extended period of time decoupling juvenile and adult 651 populations (Table 4, Fig. 6, Fig. 7). Projections to other sites also show the potential application of the model to 652 other areas for which environmental data are available. Future models give an insight and add some clues to assess 653 the potential impact of climate change and predict the biotic response of populations. Models however still need 654 some improvements including complementary data on species ecophysiology. The model was also shown to be 655 sensitive to mortality rates and some parameters (egg number and egg survival) settings while some population 656 characteristics (initial population densities and inter-individual variability) have little effects (Appendix E).

657

658 4.2. Limitations to the DEB-individual model

659

The dynamic population model built in this work uses outputs from the DEB model developed for *A. cordatus* (Guillaumot 2019), which allows to represent as faithfully as possible the physiological dynamics of individuals during their entire life cycle. The goodness of fit of the DEB model shows that estimated parameters accurately described observed data. However, collecting additional data at the different stages of the organism's life cycle and under different conditions of temperature and food availability would contribute to improving further model accuracy and parameter predictions. In particular, data on environmental settings and species ecophysiology are still needed to improve the accuracy and relevance of the following parameters.

667

668 *4.2.1. The Arrhenius function and the optimal temperature range*

669 In DEB theory, the Arrhenius function determines the optimal temperature range of the organism's metabolism as 670 a response to enzymatic tolerance (Kooijman 2010, Thomas & Bacher 2018). In the present work, calculation of the 671 Arrhenius function relies on fragmental datasets. The ascending part of the Arrhenius curve that is, the temperature 672 range in which faster metabolic rates are determined by higher temperatures was estimated, but values are still 673 missing for the descending slope (i.e. the temperature range beyond the optimal temperatures in which the metabolic 674 rates slow down with higher temperatures) (Kooijman 2010). The present model assumes that higher temperatures 675 favour more suitable conditions with no limit (Appendix F), which has to be corrected arbitrarily using our personal 676 field and experimental observations on the echinoid ecology (Fig. D.2). Further experiments should help improve the 677 calculation of the Arrhenius function. They would consist in measurements of respiratory rates as a function of 678 temperature variations (e.g. Uthicke et al. 2014) and will enable more accurate simulations of A. cordatus' 679 ecophysiology and the direct effect of temperature on the organism's metabolism, a prerequisite to better model 680 population mortality.

681

682 *4.2.2. Age, size, and growth estimates*

Most parameters used in the DEB model were taken from the literature and experimental studies, except for some of them that were assumed based on physiological traits of counterparts. In particular, organisms' maximum age, growth rate and size are not sufficiently known due to difficulties in setting up long-term experiments in the Kerguelen Islands. The relationship between echinoid growth, size and shape cannot be assessed based on growth lines measurement because there is no linear relationship between echinoid size and age (Ebert 1975) and because resorption may occur during periods of starvation (Brockington et al. 2001, Ingels et al. 2012). The most reliable method would consist in monitoring organisms' growth through time using tagging methods (Ebert 2013). However, such an approach is time-consuming and challenging as even small measurement errors may have a significant effect on results (Ebert 2013) and no experimental data are available so far.

692 Former studies (Mespoulhé 1992) showed that after 4 to 5 years, specimens of A. cordatus only slowly increase 693 in size and echinoids' test tend to become distorted, a common feature in large spatangoid echinoids in which test 694 plates tend to overlap while body size does not increase anymore (Mespoulhé 1992). However, this slow growth rate 695 in aged specimens could also result from other causes affecting optimal food intake for instance. At the calibration 696 site of Anse du Halage, a study of echinoid cohorts suggests that few individuals grow older than six years old 697 (Poulin & Féral 1994). Overall, the absence or nearly absence of growth in old invertebrate organisms makes age 698 estimates delicate to assess. In the present model, based on the combination of the ageing sub-model and other 699 mortality processes, most individuals are calibrated to die within the assumed maximum age (before 6 years old), 700 although some individuals may reach over ten years old due to the chosen stochasticity introduced in the sub-model.

Juveniles inside brood pouches were assumed to grow at a constant and same rate as adults but it has sometimes been assumed that the brooded young may already feed and develop at a faster rate (Schatt 1985, Schatt & Féral 1996). At this stage, the offspring is particularly fragile and needs protection in the brood pouches to survive, which prevents any monitoring of growth rates and feeding behaviours (Magniez 1983, Schatt 1985, Mespoulhé 1992).

705

706 4.3. Ecological relevance of the IBM population model

707

Upscaling the DEB-individual model to the population level in the IBM enables to simulate population structure and dynamics as a response to temperature and food resource availability. In particular, the IBM enables to predict the targetted effect of environmental changes on the population at the different life stages of individuals. Additional environmental data would help enhance IBM reliability and improve our knowledge of populations and environmental conditions in remote areas. Field works are also subject to uncertainties due to the species burrowing habit which renders the assessment of population structure difficult, the brittleness of specimens also limiting counting replicates (Magniez 1980, Mespoulhé 1992). Important variations in population densities were noted across studies (Guille & Lasserre 1979, Mespoulhé 1992, Poulin 1996, personal observations) for a same site, which may suggest either important variations in population density and structure through time, which was however refuted by Poulin & Féral (1994), or important biases in sampling due to the aggregative behaviour of individuals and the patchiness of distribution patterns (Poulin 1996).

720 The sensitivity analysis (Appendix E) showed that the model is not very much dependent on assumptions made 721 on initial population densities because the model density-dependent regulation operates through intra-specific 722 competition for food resources only. There is no agonistic behaviour among conspecific individuals as it was 723 reported in other echinoid species (e.g. Echinometra sp. Shulman 1990) and there is no evidence of competition for 724 space in A. cordatus based on field observation. Intra-specific competition in shallow-water echinoids is a common 725 phenomenon under food-limited conditions (Stevenson et al. 2015). McClanahan & Kurtis (1991) stated that in 726 Echinometra mathaei, when predation pressure and intra-specific competition are low, populations increase without 727 limitation and regulation operates through a decrease in food availability for individuals. The same could hold true 728 for A. cordatus as well.

729 Intra-specific competition for oxygen could also have a regulatory effect (Ferguson et al. 2013) since *A. cordatus* 730 shows a high oxygen consumption rate (Guille & Lasserre 1979, Magniez & Féral 1988). In muddy substrates, 731 specimens are usually observed unburied, positioned onto the sediment (instead of underneath), which was often 732 interpreted as a result of difficulties to breath inside fine sediments.

The sensitivity analysis also showed that the number of eggs produced by females is a controlling parameter of model stability as well. There is a high variability in the number of eggs produced among females (from 9 to 106 eggs per female, personal communication from P. Magniez). Taking into account such a variability would introduce an enhanced stochasticity in the population dynamics model if implemented and linked to each female's reproductive buffer U_R and GSI values (Martin et al. 2010, e.g. for zebrafish in Beaudouin et al. 2015).

Finally, the model was also shown to be sensitive to background mortality (Appendix E). Although monitoring
mortality rates in the field is challenging, such data would greatly enhance the reliability of the IBM.

In general, the sensitivity tests showed that the model works with the current quality and quantity of data available for this species in this habitat. However, on the matter of the temporal resolution, our model needs to be expanded and further consolidated, and we consider this element as a limitation to our work in its current state (Appendix C).

744

745 4.3.1. Modelled food resources

746 The organic content of sediments is one of the main food resources for detritus feeders and sediment swallowers 747 like A. cordatus (Snelgrove & Butman 1994) and Antarctic echinoids (Michel et al. 2016). In the present model, the 748 organic carbon content of sediments was used as a proxy for food availability for A. cordatus. Intra-specific 749 competition for food has a stronger effect on resources availability than seasonal variations in resource availability. 750 This is in line with ecological evidences that populations of A. cordatus survive periods of low food resources that 751 prevail during the austral winter. High seasonality in food resources is a common feature of polar ecosystems and 752 species have long adapted their diet accordingly (De Ridder & Lawrence 1982, Michel et al. 2016). This has been 753 shown in Antarctic benthic invertebrates such as shallow-water brachiopods (Peck et al 2005), cnidarians (Orejas et 754 al. 2001), and echinoids (Brockington et al. 2001, Ingels et al. 2012). For instance, the Antarctic sea urchin 755 Sterechinus neumayeri is believed to be capable of mobilizing energy from gut tissues, gonads and the body wall 756 during the austral winter (Brockington et al. 2001), a strategy that may have been evolved in A. cordatus as well 757 (Magniez 1983). Shrinking and resorption, which are sometimes hypothesized as a survival mechanism in other 758 echinoids facing long periods of starvation, are phenomena which are still understudied (David & Néraudeau 1989, 759 Ebert 2013) and have not been verified in A. cordatus. In the present model, starvation results in the redirection of 760 the energy flow exclusively toward maintenance of structure, at the expense of other compartments. Although 761 Magniez (1983) observed a decrease in gonadal material after the reproduction period, it is very small in females (-762 (0.3%) and slightly bigger in males (-1.6%), and the exact cause has not been studied. It is not known whether this 763 decrease in gonadal material can be directly attributed to a reabsorption for survival purposes or some other 764 mechanism. The use of previously stored energy in the different compartments to sustain the maintenance of 765 structure is assumed to be non-existent in our model. Such starvation processes could be tested in future 766 implementation, provided sufficient data is obtained through experimental setups observing the phenomenon.

767 The two scenarios of future food availability were based on coarse IPCC and NOAA projection models for the 768 region. These simulations and associated outputs are here considered as conceivable scenarios of the influence of 769 food and temperature changes on population dynamics. They are used as a proof of concept and are by no means 770 considered as definite and reliable scenarios of population dynamics in the future. Future accurate predictions should 771 imply the integration of complex mechanisms influencing the production, transport and deposition of organic matter 772 in the ocean, the possibility of species to adapt to changing environmental conditions, and more experimental data 773 are needed to integrate the detailed influence of temperature on physiological processes. First observations suggest a 774 low response toward the applied changes in food availability, in comparison with the influence of temperature. 775 However, it cannot be concluded that the species would not be affected by future conditions in food resources in the 776 area.

777

778 *4.3.2. Temperature resilience*

779 Important differences were obtained between population structures and densities depending on future scenarios 780 and model projections made for contrasting food resources and temperature. Most importantly, the 'resistant' 781 population model of A. cordatus at Anse du Halage is predicted to sustain the expected changes in temperature and 782 food resources under both future scenarios although population density is also predicted to be strongly reduced. In 783 contrast, the 'vulnerable' population model predicts population extinction after a few decades of simulation. This 784 implies that a precise evaluation of the species resilience to temperatures is needed for more robust and decisive 785 models. Moreover, Antarctic echinoids were shown to present varied responses to ocean warming depending on 786 species and life stages, with higher vulnerability to warm temperatures in juveniles than in adults (Ingels et al. 2012). 787 Such a contrast suggests that more data could help fine-tune the present model.

788

789 4.4. Relevance of the DEB-IBM approach for Southern Ocean studies

790

791 DEB-IBM models are being developed for various applications and research fields. They are considered a 792 powerful tool for environmental risk assessment, such as the effect of toxicity (e.g. Beaudouin et al. 2015, David et 793 al 2019, Vlaeminck et al. 2019) and the impact of environmental changes on population dynamics (e.g. Saraiva et al. 794 2014, Malishev et al. 2018, Thomas & Bacher 2018, Goedegebuure et al. 2018). They can also be used to predict the 795 behaviour of microbial systems (Jayathilake et al. 2017) or bring to light underlying mechanisms of life history 796 strategies (e.g. Gatti et al. 2017). The DEB model brings ontogenetic and phenotypic variations to the population 797 model while the IBM brings stochasticity, population dynamics (e.g. competition for food), as well as learning and 798 interaction mechanisms (DeAngelis et al. 1991, Martin et al. 2012) to complement the model. The potential of the 799 DEB-IBM approach resides in the combination of both models to predict population dynamics as a response to 800 changing environmental conditions (i.e. at the individual level in the DEB model and at population level in the IBM) 801 In the present work, the DEB-IBM was used to improve our understanding of the dynamics of A. cordatus' 802 populations. Applications could be further developed to address conservation issues such as the designation of 803 priority areas and the definition of management plan strategies. Vast areas of the French Southern Territories have 804 recently been placed under enhanced protection of a national nature reserve based on experts' knowledge and 805 ecoregionalisation approaches (Koubbi et al. 2010, Fabri-Ruiz et al. 2020). Most areas however could not have 806 benefited from thorough benthic field studies, and ecological models can represent interesting tools to assess the 807 relevance of defined protection areas for target species and ecosystems. Such models can be useful when drafting 808 management plan strategies for determining favored ship traffic routes or areas where human activities can be 809 implemented in coastal areas of the national nature reserve of the French Southern Territories. Dynamic population 810 models allow testing different ecological scenarios in a quite straightforward way to illustrate research designs and 811 proposals. They can provide some clues to investigate the potential effect of environmental changes on key species 812 for which conservation efforts should be directed in a short to long-term strategy (Fulton et al. 2015). Dynamic 813 models can also prove useful for adaptable conservation strategies like the designation of dynamic protected areas as 814 a consequence of changing environments and ecosystems. Finally, dynamic models could be further implemented 815 into studies of ecosystem functioning and the impact of environmental changes on the alteration of sub-Antarctic 816 ecosystems.

817

818

819 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Yoann Thomas and Cédric Bacher for their valuable advice during model construction, and Pierre Magniez for his contribution with data on *A. cordatus* reproduction strategies. The present work is a contribution to the IPEV programme PROTEKER (No. 1044) and the French LTER Zone ATelier

823	Antarctique (ZATA). It is also contribution no. 39 to the vERSO project (www.versoproject.be), funded by the
824	Belgian Science Policy Office (BELSPO, contract n°BR/132/A1/vERSO) and contribution no. 13 to the "Refugia
825	and Ecosystem Tolerance in the Southern Ocean" project (RECTO; BR/154/A1/RECTO) funded by the
826	Belgian Science Policy Office (BELSPO). M A-P was supported by the French Foundation for Research on
827	Biodiversity and its partners (FRB - www.fondationbiodiversite.fr). This work was supported by a "Fonds pour la
828	formation à la Recherche dans l'Industrie et l'Agriculture" (FRIA) and « Bourse fondation de la mer » grants to CG.
829	
830	CRediT author statement: M.A-P: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Original draft; C.G.:
831	Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Original draft; B.D.: Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing; J.P.F.:
832	Writing - Review & Editing; T.S.: Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing.
833	
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