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LETTER

Bivalve tissues as a recorder of multidecadal global anthropogenic and climate-mediated change in coastal areas

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Scientific Significance Statement

Global change affects physicochemical and biological compartments of coastal ecosystems from global to local scales. However, the multiple and interacting effects make it challenging to identify what causes ecosystem responses. By using bivalve species as a recorder of environmental changes, this study provides the evidence for global effects of anthropogenic activities (bivalves reflect the isotopic signal of atmospheric CO_2 , which is directly affected by anthropogenic activities) and of climate change on coastal ecosystems at global scale, with possible cumulative, synergistic or antagonistic regional and/or local effects. This research is contributing to crucial understanding of coastal ecosystems responses to environmental and climate change.

Abstract

Recent rapid changes in climate and environmental conditions have significantly impacted coastal ecosystem functioning. However, the complex interplay between global and local effects makes it challenging to pinpoint the primary drivers. In a multi-ecosystem study, we analyzed pluri-decadal trends of bivalve- δ^{13} C as recorder of global environmental changes. These trends were correlated with large-scale natural and anthropogenic climate proxies to identify whether coastal biota responded to global effects. Our findings revealed decreasing bivalve- δ^{13} C trends in all sea regions, mainly linked with increased temperature and atmospheric-CO₂

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Data Availability Statement: Data and metadata are uploaded in a freely accessible repository (Figshare) under the permanent identifier https://doi. org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24884871.v1.

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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concentrations, the later generating a decrease in atmospheric-CO₂ δ^{13} C values (Suess effect) because of fossil-fuel burning. After removing the Suess effect from bivalve- δ^{13} C trends, ongoing global climate variability continues to affect most ecosystems, possibly intensified by combined, interacting regional or local effects. These results highlight the need to consider large-scale effects to fully understand ecosystem and food web responses to the multiple effects of global change.

Over the past decades, the world ocean has undergone rapid climate and environmental changes with significant consequences on ecosystem functioning and services (Halpern et al. 2008; Bauer et al. 2013; Bartley et al. 2019; Benedetti et al. 2021; Cael et al. 2023). Coastal marine ecosystems form a dynamic land-ocean interface holding substantial ecological and economic value (Barbier et al. 2011). As the ultimate receptacle of dissolved and particulate continental inputs from natural and anthropogenic origin, these ecosystems are highly productive yet particularly sensitive to the multiple and interacting pressures of global change acting at various spatial and temporal scales (Harley et al. 2006). Climate and human-induced changes in precipitations, river discharge, nutrients load or land use, alter organic matter transformation and ultimately nutrient cycling and productivity along the land-ocean continuum (Milliman et al. 2008; Bauer et al. 2013). A key challenge remains to understand how the different components of global change affect coastal ecosystems responses.

Global change refers to planetary-scale changes in the Earth system encompassing interacting physicochemical and biological compartments, and human societies. It comprises the global climate (i.e., natural and anthropogenic components) and other, mostly local, human activities (e.g., land use, pollution) that affect ecosystems. Local changes may interact with global climate-induced changes in antagonistic, cumulative, or synergistic ways, thereby exacerbating ecosystems response (Harley et al. 2006; Cabral et al. 2019). Therefore, disentangling global from regional and or local effects is crucial for the understanding of coastal ecosystem functioning, especially to improve predictive scenarios and adapt management and conservation strategies.

Carbon is the primary currency in addressing global change. Carbon stable isotope (δ^{13} C) is commonly used to understand physical–chemical processes in the ocean: it helps tracing organic matter origin and fate (Bristow et al. 2013) and to reveal global anthropogenic impact such as direct effect of increasing carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from anthropogenic activities (Quay et al. 2007). The CO₂ emitted by fossil fuels burning (e.g., coal, oil, and natural gas) has a lower proportion of ¹³C than the CO₂ naturally present in the atmosphere and dilute the overall concentration of ¹³C at global scale, creating the Suess effect (i.e., decline in global atmospheric δ^{13} C values by 1.8‰ since the industrial revolution in 1850 to present day; Keeling 1979; Gruber et al. 1999; Graven et al. 2017; Dombrosky 2020). Low δ^{13} C-CO₂

dissolved in seawater is biologically incorporated by primary producers during photosynthesis and propagates along the food web (e.g., Schloesser et al. 2009; Liénart et al. 2022), and potentially masks local influence of ¹³C-depleted sources (e.g., continental material from rivers; Liénart et al. 2017, 2022). Increasing anthropogenic CO₂ emissions also indirectly affects marine ecosystems through temperature increase leading, for example, to altered CO₂ solubility in water, phytoplankton phenology or precipitation patterns and river runoffs (Pörtner et al. 2005; Gittings et al. 2018; van Vliet et al. 2013).

Bivalve species, as bioindicators for environmental monitoring, offer an integrated view of the environmental conditions of their habitat through sessile, filter-feeding lifestyles (Briant et al. 2021; Karlson and Faxneld 2021; Chahouri et al. 2023). Measuring δ^{13} C of bivalve tissues allows to trace dietary carbon resources (Magni et al. 2013) and its flows in food webs over space and time (Vander Zanden and Rasmussen 1999; Corman et al. 2018), and to understand ecological consequences of environmental changes in ecosystem functioning (Liénart et al. 2020). Bivalve- δ^{13} C is primarily influenced by local dietary changes and physiological processes but global effects, like the Suess effect, can mask these processes in long-term isotope trends, hindering for precise interpretations of change (Clark et al. 2021). Considering Suess effect in isotope data is critical to unravel pure anthropogenic effects (fossil fuel burning) from other global and regional/local pressures.

Previous studies addressing global change from pluridecadal trends of bivalve- δ^{13} C found a link to climate change (Briant et al. 2018; Corman et al. 2018), with only few statistical evidence for indirect climate effects (Liénart et al. 2020, 2022). However, no study had distinctly estimated and removed global effects, particularly the Suess effect, before further examining other processes. Our study address whether pluri-decadal trends in bivalve- δ^{13} C are due to the Suess effect, and if, when corrected, other global effects persist. In a multiecosystem approach, we measured δ^{13} C in mussels and ovsters across 32 stations in six contrasted sea regions, over fourdecades time series (1981-2021). We correlated multidecadal changes in bivalve- δ^{13} C with time-series of large-scale anthropogenic and climate proxies to identify global effects. By studying bivalve- δ^{13} C time-series as a record of environmental changes, this study examines global effects of anthropogenic activities (i.e., reflect the isotopic signal of increased atmospheric CO₂) and of climate change on coastal temperate ecosystems at broad spatial scale.

Methods

Archived samples

Since the late 1970s, the French National Monitoring Network "ROCCH" ("Réseau d'Observation de la Contamination CHimique," operated by IFREMER) uses bivalves from three different species as bioindicators of chemical contamination: the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*, and the blue mussels *Mytilus edulis* and *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Fig. 1; see Supporting Information S1 for detailed sampling protocol). For the purpose of this study, we analyzed 1136 archived bivalves soft-tissues samples (total soft-tissues) from the ROCCH network, across 32 stations of six sea regions (Fig. 1, English Channel; Western Brittany; Northern Bay of Biscay; Central Bay of Biscay; Arcachon Lagoon; Gulf of Lion) spanning 21–40 years over the period 1981–2021 (one sample per year, collected in mid-February \pm 3 weeks, i.e., during low growth, mostly during non-reproductive period, to minimize the effects of lipids associated with gametogenesis as lipids are ¹³C depleted, Post et al. 2007). The stations were specifically selected to reflect environmental gradients on both large and local scale (Lheureux et al. 2023), for example, tidal regimes (microtidal to megatidal), climates (temperate, oceanic, mediterranean), trophic status (oligotrophic to eutrophic), continental influence (gradients of influence of rivers).

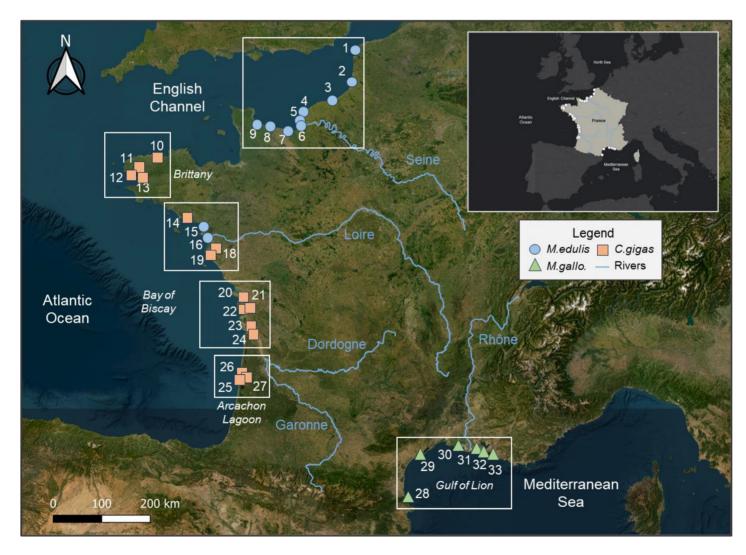


Fig. 1. Geographical location of the 32 stations sampled for bivalves (*M. edulis*: blue circles, *M. galloprovincialis*: green triangles, *C. gigas*: orange squares) in the six sea regions (English Channel; Western Brittany; Northern Bay of Biscay; Central Bay of Biscay; Arcachon Lagoon; Gulf of Lion) over the period 1981–2021. At each station, only one of the three species was sampled: *M. edulis* in the English Channel and at two stations of the Northern Bay of Biscay, *C. gigas* in Western Brittany, Central Bay of Biscay, Arcachon Lagoon and three stations of the Northern Bay of Biscay, and *M. galloprovincialis* in the Gulf of Lion. The main river influencing the regions are represented by blue lines. The full list of station names is available in Supporting Information S1. Note that there is no Station number 17.

Carbon stable isotope analysis

We analyzed aliquots of 400–700 μ g of bivalve tissues of each archived sample for δ^{13} C at the Center for Physical Science and Technology (Vilnius, Lithuania) with a Flash EA 1112 Series Elemental Analyzer (Thermo Finnigan) connected to a DeltaV Advantage Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher). Results are expressed in per mil (‰) deviation from international references (see Supporting Information S1). Analytical precision was <0.15‰. Isotope data are available in the Figshare repository under the DOI 10.6084/m9.figshare.24884871.

Proxies for global environmental change

We compiled publicly available data over the period 1981-2021 for five hydro-climatic teleconnection indices representing climate patterns in the Northern hemisphere (see Supporting Information Fig. S1). Two indices are based on temperatures: the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO; Enfield et al. 2001) represents changes in the north Atlantic Ocean surface temperature after removing the anthropogenic component (effect of increasing greenhouse gases), whereas the Northern Hemisphere temperature (NHT) anomalies are calculated from North Atlantic 1901-2000 temperature average. Three indices are based on atmospheric pressures: the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO; Hurrell 1995; Hurrell and Deser 2009) corresponds to the pressure difference between the Azores High and Icelandic Low; the East Atlantic Pattern (EAP; Barnston and Livezev 1987) values consist in a northsouth dipole of pressure anomalies centered on the north Atlantic from east to west; the Arctic Oscillation (AO) is based on atmospheric pressures and is related to the Arctic climate and its southern incursions (Higgins et al. 2000). We used globally averaged North-Hemisphere atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (CO_{2atm}; Lan et al. 2023) and δ^{13} C of atmospheric CO_2 ($\delta^{13}C$ - CO_{2atm} ; Graven et al. 2017) as global effect proxies resulting from anthropogenic activities. For each proxy and time series, we recalculated yearly averages based on the 12 months preceding bivalve sampling in order to integrate a temporal lag in bivalve- δ^{13} C (except for δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm} and seawater δ^{13} C-CO₂, see below, where the previous calendar year was selected). Data origin and calculation details are available in Supporting Information S1.

The Suess effect

A step-by-step calculation of Suess effect is available in Supporting Information S1. Briefly, we calculated δ^{13} C of CO₂ dissolved in seawater (δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq}) for each region by adding the corresponding regional isotopic fractionation (ϵ) value to global δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm} for each year on the period 1980–2021 (Table S1). The fractionation between gaseous and dissolved CO₂ phases was calculated from the equation of Vogel et al. (1970) as given by Mook (2000), and Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow (2001): $\epsilon_{d/g} = -373/T + 0.19\%$ (T: absolute temperature in Kelvin). Despite differences in temperature within each time series and between regions, differences in

Bivalves as a recorder of global change

calculated ε , hence in δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq} values was much lower than the analytical precision for bivalves- δ^{13} C (see Supporting Information S1). Therefore, we used the average δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq} value of all regions as a proxy to compare with bivalves- δ^{13} C in statistical tests. Finally, we calculated regional slopes of δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq} (i.e., the Suess effect) which was the same for all regions (-0.243‰ decade⁻¹, Table S1), and removed it from bivalve- δ^{13} C cumulatively for each year (starting from year 1981) to obtain Suess-corrected bivalve- δ^{13} C (bivalve- δ^{13} C_{corr}) for each station.

Equilibrium between δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm} and δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq}, and δ^{13} C in phytoplankton and bivalves (i.e., tissue turnover) are possible processes altering δ^{13} C signal propagation to bivalves. Considering that these lags are constant over years, it does not affect the multidecadal δ^{13} C trends we are investigating. Also, we did not consider seasonal variation in atmospheric CO₂, nor in the δ^{13} C of aquatic CO₂ linked to phytoplankton activity as we were looking at long-term trends in annual means. Hence, we considered equilibrium between atmosphere and seawater and calculated the trends of δ^{13} C-CO_{2aq} as if the Suess effect was the only process occurring (i.e., considering physical–chemical processes only, Affek and Yakir 2014).

Statistical analyses

We examined unidirectional temporal trends in bivalve- δ^{13} C times series for each station with Mann-Kendall tests corrected for autocorrelation (R-package "modifiedmk," Patakamuri and O'Brien 2021). We applied linear models to calculate the value of the slope (in % decade⁻¹). Over the same time period, we evaluated relationships (1) in bivalve- δ^{13} C time series between pairs of stations and (2) between bivalve- δ^{13} C time series and global proxies using Spearman two-sided correlation tests (p-values corrected for multiple testing with Benjamini-Hochberg procedure). For reliable comparison between datasets, we tested the trends on a common period of three decades (1990-2021) corresponding to 30 ± 2 years (criterion met for 28 stations), whereas correlations were performed on complete datasets. Statistical analyses were performed with the R software (R Core Team 2022).

Results

Pluri-decadal trends in bivalve- δ^{13} C

During a shared period of 30 ± 2 years (1990–2021), bivalve- δ^{13} C signal exhibited a significant decrease at 93% of the stations (26/28; Fig. 2, Table 1). The average decrease was $-0.58 \pm 0.24\%$ decade⁻¹, ranging from -1.08 to -0.22%decade⁻¹ (i.e. -3.24 to -0.65% over 30 years). The decrease was not significant at only three stations (two in English Channel, one in Northern Bay of Biscay, over 30 years). Within each region, between station pairs, there were 80–100% of significant correlations in bivalve- δ^{13} C in

Bivalves as a recorder of global change

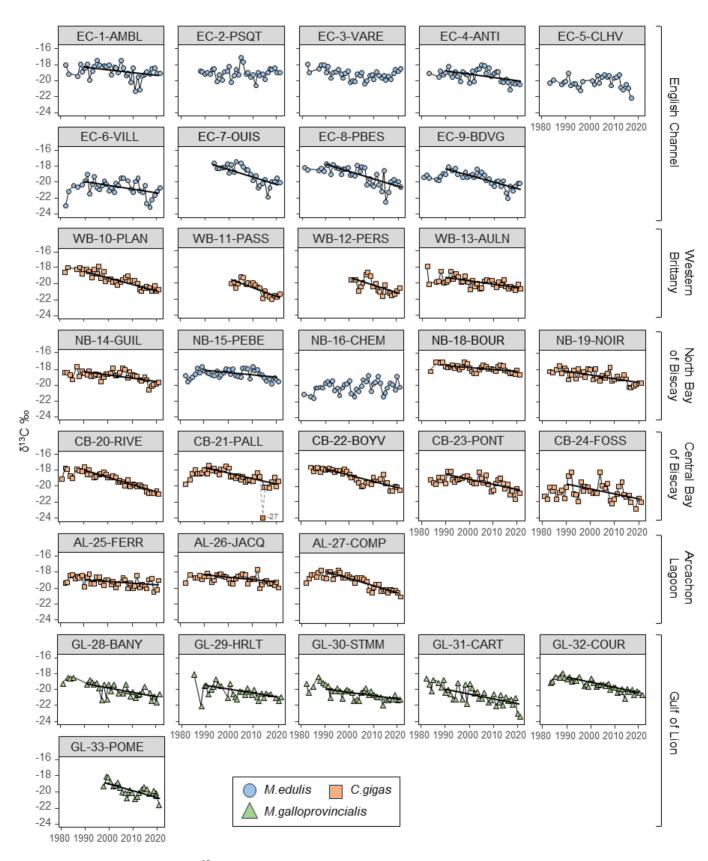


Fig. 2. Pluri-decadal variability in bivalve- δ^{13} C over the period 1981–2021 for the 32 stations of the six sea regions. Black lines correspond to significant trends (calculated on the period 1990–2021; Mann-Kendall tests; *p*-value < 0.05). One outlier (CB-21-PALL in 2014, -27‰) was removed for statistical tests. Colors corresponds to species.

Liénart et al.

Table 1. Raw values (mean \pm SD, over the total dataset; *n* total = number of years of the time series) and decadal slopes of bivalve δ^{13} C (dark gray) and bivalve δ^{13} C corrected for the Suess effect (light gray, $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$) calculated over a common period of 30 \pm 2 years (1990–2021).

		δ ¹³ C	raw values		Ye	ars	Slope (%	o decade ⁻¹)
		n total	Average \pm sd	n	Start	End	δ ¹³ C	$\delta^{13}C_{corr}$
English Channel (EC)	EC-1-AMBL	36	-18.8 ± 0.9	31	1990	2021	-0.37	-0.13
-	EC-2-PSQT	34	-18.9 ± 0.7	32	1990	2021	0.04	0.28
	EC-3-VARE	37	-19.1 ± 0.6	32	1990	2021	-0.04	0.20
	EC-4-ANTI	36	-19.3 ± 0.8	32	1990	2021	- 0.44	-0.19
	EC-5-CLHV	29	-20.1 ± 0.7	25	1990	2017	-0.15	0.09
	EC-6-VILL	36	-20.7 ± 1.0	31	1990	2021	-0.51	-0.27
	EC-7-OUIS	27	-19.0 ± 1.1	27	1994	2021	-1.08	-0.84
	EC-8-PBES	37	-19.1 ± 1.2	32	1990	2021	- 0.93	-0.69
	EC-9-BDVG	37	-19.5 ± 0.9	30	1990	2021	- 0.84	- 0.59
Western Brittany (WB)	WB-10-PLAN	37	-19.5 ± 1.0	32	1990	2021	-0.83	- 0.59
-	WB-11-PASS	21	-20.6 ± 0.8	21	2001	2021	-1.13	- 0.89
	WB-12-PERS	21	-20.3 ± 0.9	21	2001	2021	- 0.93	- 0.69
	WB-13-AULN	38	-19.8 ± 0.7	32	1990	2021	- 0.40	-0.16
Northern Bay of Biscay (NB)	NB-14-GUIL	39	-18.8 ± 0.6	32	1990	2021	- 0.39	-0.15
	NB-15-PEBE	40	-18.6 ± 0.6	32	1990	2021	- 0.27	-0.03
	NB-16-CHEM	39	-20.1 ± 0.7	32	1990	2021	0.04	0.28
	NB-18-BOUR	37	-17.9 ± 0.8	32	1990	2021	- 0.23	0.01
	NB-19-NOIR	38	-18.8 ± 0.7	32	1990	2021	- 0.49	-0.24
Central Bay of Biscay (CB)	CB-20-RIVE	40	-19.1 ± 1.0	32	1990	2021	- 0.94	- 0.69
	CB-21-PALL	38	-18.7 ± 0.7	31	1990	2021	- 0.67	-0.42
	CB-22-BOYV	38	-18.9 ± 0.9	32	1990	2021	- 0.79	-0.54
	CB-23-PONT	38	-19.5 ± 0.8	32	1990	2021	-0.63	-0.38
	CB-24-FOSS	40	-20.7 ± 1.0	31	1990	2021	-0.63	-0.38
Arcachon lagoon (AL)	AL-25-FERR	39	-19.2 ± 0.6	31	1990	2021	- 0.22	0.02
	AL-26-JACQ	38	-18.8 ± 0.5	32	1990	2021	- 0.32	-0.08
	AL-27-COMP	40	-19.1 ± 0.9	32	1990	2021	-0.91	- 0.67
Gulf of lion (GL)	GL-28-BANY	32	-19.9 ± 0.9	28	1991	2021	-0.55	-0.30
	GL-29-HRLT	31	-20.2 ± 0.8	28	1990	2021	- 0.48	-0.24
	GL-30-STMM	38	-20.3 ± 0.8	32	1990	2021	- 0.44	-0.19
	GL-31-CART	37	-20.6 ± 1.1	30	1990	2021	-0.63	-0.39
	GL-32-COUR	37	-19.3 ± 0.8	31	1990	2021	- 0.64	- 0.40
	GL-33-POME	24	-19.8 ± 0.8	24	1998	2021	- 0.85	-0.61

Slope values were calculated from linear models and values are expressed in permille per decade. Significant slopes are in bold (Mann-Kendall tests; p-value <0.05). Time series that do not match time length requirements of 30 ± 2 years are in italics (four Sta. 5, 11, 12, and 33).

Western Brittany, Central Bay of Biscay, Arcachon Lagoon, Gulf of Lion, and 47–70% for Northern Bay of Biscay and English Channel (but all western English Channel stations were correlated, Table 2). When comparing station pairs between regions, there was an increase in correlation from north to south: the English Channel stations were poorly correlated with stations from the other regions (29–42%) while the Gulf of Lion, the Central Bay of Biscay and the Arcachon Lagoon showed more correlations (60–87%) between station pairs.

Correlations between bivalve- δ^{13} C and global proxies

Bivalve- δ^{13} C was positively correlated with $\delta^{\bar{13}}$ C-CO_{2aq} for 78% of the stations (Table 3). Both δ^{13} C decreased concomitantly over time. There was a negative correlation between bivalve- δ^{13} C and CO_{2atm} and NHT for 78% and 75% of the stations respectively. The higher the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and the warmer the air temperatures (positive anomalies) in the Northern hemisphere, the more negative were bivalve- δ^{13} C values. The EAP (pressure) and AMO (temperature) indices were negatively correlated with

				ш	nglish	English Channel (EC)	I (EC)				We	stern Bri	Western Brittany (WB)	/B)	2	Vorthern	Northern Bay of Biscay (NB)	iscay (NE	()
	δ ¹³ C _{corr} δ ¹³ C	EC-1- AMBL	EC-2- PSQT	EC-3- VARE	EC-4-	EC-5- 1 CLHV	EC-6- E	EC-7- EC OUIS PI	EC-8- E	EC-9- V BDVG F	WB-10- PLAN	WB-11- PASS	WB-12- PERS	WB-13- AULN	NB-14- GUIL	NB-15- PEBE	NB-16- CHEM	NB-18- BOUR	NB-19- NOIR
English	EC-1-AMBL																		
Channel (EC)	EC-2-PSQT	0.42															0.47		
	EC-3-VARE																		
	EC-4-ANTI					0.85	0.75 (0.50		0.48		0.69							
	EC-5-CLHV				0.83		0.76												
	EC-6-VILL				0.73	0.74	-	0.49		0.58									
	EC-7-OUIS	0.55			0.65		0.61	0	0.71 0	0.79	0.55	0.56	0.73						
	EC-8-PBES	0.54		0.38	0.52		0.57 (0.81		0.76									
	EC-9-BDVG	0.54			0.61		0.65 (0.85 0	0.84										
Western	WB-10-PLAN				0.44		-	0.65 0	0.55 (0.62		0.74	0.77						
Brittany (WB)	WB-11-PASS				0.78		0.59 (0.62		0.6	0.79				0.83				0.46
	WB-12-PERS				0.61		0.57 (0.74		0.52	0.84	0.71			0.62				0.48
	WB-13-AULN						-	0.48 0	0.46 (0.48	0.61		0.51					0.39	
Northern Bay of	NB-14-GUIL				0.4		-	0.60		0.44	0.52	0.86	0.75			0.52			0.36
Biscay (NB)	NB-15-PEBE				0.39	0.45	0.39				0.39	0.69	0.54		0.51			0.41	0.43
	NB-16-CHEM					0.5										0.4			
	NB-18-BOUR						0.43	0	0.46 (0.37	0.52			0.59	0.35	0.56			0.36
	NB-19-NOIR							0.53 0	0.45 (0.43	0.59	0.55	0.58	0.36	0.53	0.57		0.56	
Central Bay of	CB-20-RIVE				0.42			0.77 0	0.68 (0.69	0.84	0.78	0.63	0.56	0.54	0.37		09.0	0.73
Biscay (CB)	CB-21-PALL						0.43 (0.50 0	0.57 (0.58	0.57			0.39		0.44		0.63	0.54
	CB-22-BOYV							0.40 0	0.54 (0.55	0.75			0.55	0.39	0.39		0.59	0.65
	CB-23-PONT				0.44		0.4 (0.53 0	0.46 (0.60	0.51	0.49		0.44	0.49	0.44		0.61	0.46
	CB-24-FOSS				0.44					0.38									
Arcachon	AL-25-FERR														0.37			0.39	0.37
lagoon (AL)	AL-26-JACQ				0.62	0.45	0.53 (0.49 0	0.44 (0.44	0.52	0.51			0.42			0.42	
	AL-27-COMP	0.51			0.41		-	0.75 0	0.68 (0.71	0.74	0.55		0.42	0.41			0.48	0.54
Gulf of lion (GL)	GL-28-BANY									0.54	0.67			0.44					0.52
	GL-29-HRLT										0.56								
	GL-30-STMM	0.41		0.45			-	0.55 0	0.49 (0.49	0.76			0.51	0.46	0.45		0.64	0.50
	GL-31-CART	0.4					-	0.40		0.46	0.66	0.53			0.51			0.37	0.44
	GL-32-COUR	0.45			0.4		-	0.76 0	0.62 (0.73	0.84	0.73	0.62	0.48	0.53			0.51	0.55
	GL-33-POME	0.47					-	0.51		0.47					0.48		-0.52		

7

Table 2. Correlation matrix between station pairs for bivalves δ^{13} C (bivalve- δ^{13} C, lower half triangle, dark gray) and bivalves δ^{13} C corrected for Suess effect

Liénart et al.

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		Central B	Central Bay of Biscay (CB)	/ (CB)			Arcachon lagoon (AL)	n (AL)			Gulf of lion (GL)	ion (GL)		
	CB-20- RIVE	CB- 21-PALL	CB-22- BOYV	CB-23- PONT	CB-24- FOSS	AL-25- FERR	AL-26- JACQ	AL-27- COMP	GL-28- BANY	GL-29- HRLT	GL-30- STMM	GL-31- CART	GL-32- COUR	GL-33- POME
English														
Channel (EC)	-0.46		-0.50											
							0.52							
			-0.42											
	0.69							0.67			0.40		0.61	
	0.55		0.36					0.60						
	0.48							0.61					0.51	
Western Brittany (WB)	0.71 0.7		0.59					0.6			0.57	0.5	0.7 0.61	
Northern Bay of Riscav														
(NB)			-0.42											-0.66
				0.44							0.36			
	0.55		0.42											
Central Bay		0.44	0.75	0.46				0.58				0.47	0.62	
of Biscay (CB)	0.65		0.52	0.45				0.43						
	0.87	0.73		0.42				0.51	0.51			0.35	0.49	0.43
	0.65	0.59	0.58		0.74			0.51						
Arcachon	0.38	0.37	0.47	0.78 0.49			0.5							
lagoon (AL)	0.43	0.41	0.40	0.57	0.56	0.55		0.44						
	0.73	0.7	0.75	0.65	0.46	0.63	0.65						0.76	
Gulf of	0.59		0.68					0.58		0.62		0.52	0.58	
lion (GL)			0.47					0.42	0.76					
	0.62	0.41	0.57	0.41		0.43	0.42	0.59	0.42	0.44		0.5	0.64	
	0.66		09.0	0.41		0.38		0.64	0.71	0.43	0.61		0.71	
	0.78	0.6	0.72	0.59		0.5	0.53	0.86	0.75	0.59	0.76	0.82		
	0.64	0.49	0.56	0.46				0.63				0.61	0.69	
			in ridad Cno	had decrea	nilev otta a	مستا مصلحا مح	Only cionificant correlations are chourd (two cided Concernent totts the volues family correlation coefficient), a value 20.05							

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Liénart et al.

bivalve- δ^{13} C for 56% and 44% of the stations respectively. Positive phases of both EAP and AMO, which increase sea surface temperature and are linked to milder and wetter precipitation in winter months over most of Northern Europe, were linked to more negative bivalve- δ^{13} C values. There was no significant correlation between bivalve- δ^{13} C and AO and NAO. Regionally, the English Channel and Northern Bay of Biscay showed less correlations (47% and 40%, respectively) with global proxies (out of AO, NAO, and δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm}) than the Gulf of Lion and Arcachon Lagoon (87%) (Table 3).

Remaining pluri-decadal trends in Suess-corrected bivalve- $\delta^{13} C$

After removing the Suess effect from bivalve- δ^{13} C trends, we tested the significance of the remaining trends. Over the common period of 30 ± 2 yr (1990–2021), bivalve- δ^{13} C_{corr} significantly decreased for 50% of the stations, while 46% exhibited no significant change, and one station experienced a significant increase (EC-2-PSQT) (Table 1). The average decrease was $-0.45 \pm 0.27\%$ decade⁻¹ ranging from -0.84 to -0.19% decade⁻¹ (from -2.52 to -0.58% over 30 years). There were only 28–50% significant correlations in bivalve- δ^{13} C_{corr} between station pairs within each region except for Central Bay of Biscay (70%; Table 2). There was almost no correlation remaining between station pairs of different regions (0–33%; Table 2).

Remaining correlations between Suess-corrected bivalve- δ^{13} C and global proxies

Overall, the number of correlations with global proxies decreased after removing the Suess effect. Bivalve- $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$ was still correlated with $\delta^{13}C$ -CO_{2aq} at 53% of the stations, mostly positively (negatively correlated at two stations; Table 3). There were 47–53% correlations left between bivalve- $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$ and NHT and CO_{2atm}, mostly negative, and only 25–34% correlations remained for the other hydro-climatic indices. Still, there was no significant correlation between bivalve- $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$, and AO and NAO. Regionally, more correlations were remaining with global proxies (55–60%, out of AO NAO and $\delta^{13}C$ -CO_{2atm}) for Western Brittany and Gulf of Lion than for the other regions (28–44%).

Discussion

We found an overall global temporal decrease in bivalves δ^{13} C tissues in all sea regions, independently of bivalve species and despite differences in trophic status, tidal regime, continental influence, etc., of the studied ecosystems (Lheureux et al. 2023). This decrease was of same order of magnitude in all regions and with numerous correlations between stations of different sea regions. These results are consistent with the literature regarding marine organisms from different trophic levels (e.g., Druffel and Benavides 1986;

Aharon 1991; Bauch et al. 2000; Schloesser et al. 2009) including bivalve species from other sea areas (Liénart et al. 2022, -0.45% decade⁻¹). The decrease in bivalve- δ^{13} C correlates in all regions with the global decrease in δ^{13} C of dissolved CO₂ linked to the Suess effect (Keeling 1979). Among global processes directly altering bivalve- δ^{13} C, the Suess effect can be measured, and therefore removed from pluri-decadal trends. After its correction, 46% of previous bivalve- δ^{13} C slopes were not significant anymore and there were almost no correlations left between regions, showing that part of global direct anthropogenic effect on bivalve- δ^{13} C was removed. Yet, significant decrease in bivalve- $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$ was still observed for 50% of the stations, and up to 60% of correlations with other global proxies remained in some regions (Gulf of Lion), indicating that other global processes affecting bivalve- δ^{13} C values are still ongoing.

In addition to the Suess effect, increasing temperatures and CO_2 concentrations affect bivalve- $\delta^{13}C$ via trophic pathway (Corman et al. 2018). Indeed, even after the Suess-effect correction, a large proportion of stations still exhibited negative correlation between bivalve-613Ccorr, atmospheric CO2 concentration and NHT (both proxies for anthropogenic activities), and with AMO and EAP (proxies for natural climate, which trends indicate increased surface temperatures in Northern Atlantic; Comas-Bru and McDermott 2014; Zampieri et al. 2017). Changes in phytoplankton physiology and community assemblages can also both explain the decrease in bivalve- δ^{13} C over time. Carbon isotope fractionation (i.e., enrichment of one isotope relative to another during [bio]chemical or physical processes) between phytoplankton and dissolved CO₂ is modulated by the balance between carbon demand (i.e., productivity/growth rate) and CO₂ availability (Fry 1996): as the increase in water temperature increases carbon demand (productivity) and decreases dissolved CO₂ concentration (CO₂ availability), phytoplankton isotopic fractionation decreases, leading to an overall increase in phytoplankton- δ^{13} C; in contrast, as atmospheric and seawater CO₂ concentration increase due to fossil fuel burning, phytoplankton isotopic fractionation increases, leading to a decrease in phytoplankton- δ^{13} C. Additionally, temperature increase may change phytoplankton community toward smaller cell-sized species (e.g., David et al. 2012; Hernández-Fariñas et al. 2014), which display lower δ^{13} C values (e.g., Tuerena et al. 2019). All these processes are likely to occur concomitantly and reflect into bivalve tissues as any changes in phytoplankton- δ^{13} C directly alter bivalve- δ^{13} C by trophic propagation (Lefebvre et al. 2009).

Global change also affects bivalve- δ^{13} C through bivalve physiology. Bivalve isotope fractionation directly relates to metabolic rates, (e.g., assimilation and growth, Lefebvre and Dubois 2016) which are temperature-dependent (Hiebenthal et al. 2013; Matoo et al. 2021). In their study, Marín Leal et al. (2008) showed that lower δ^{13} C during winter were associated with lower metabolic rate. Increasing water temperature over

				Biv	Bivalve- δ^{13} C	õ				Biv	Bivalve-ð ¹³ C _{corr}	corr		
		AO NAO	AMO	EAP	NHT	CO _{2atm}	$\delta^{13}C_{atm}$	$\delta^{13}C_{aq}$	AO NAO AMO) EAP	NHT	CO _{2atm}	$\delta^{13}C_{atm}$	$\delta^{13}C_{aq}$
English Channel (EC)	EC-1-AMBL					-0.39	0.39	0.39						
	EC-2-PSQT										0.39	0.46	-0.45	-0.45
	EC-3-VARE													
	EC-4-ANTI			-0.47	-0.41	-0.43	0.43	0.43						
	EC-5-CLHV													
	EC-6-VILL			-0.55						-0.4				
	EC-7-OUIS			-0.47	-0.68	-0.79	0.79	0.79		-0.46	0.62	-0.74	0.74	0.74
	EC-8-PBES		-0.46	-0.5	-0.68	-0.72	0.72	0.72		-0.4	-0.54	-0.56	0.57	0.57
	EC-9-BDVG		-0.43	-0.57	-0.65	-0.67	0.67	0.67		-0.48	3 -0.39	-0.37	0.37	0.37
Western	WB-10-PLAN		-0.65	-0.58	-0.82	-0.88	0.88	0.88	-0.61	1 -0.56	0.75	-0.81	0.8	0.8
Bretagne (WB)	WB-11-PASS			-0.51	-0.67	-0.8	0.8	0.8		-0.59	0.66	-0.75	0.75	0.75
	WB-12-PERS				-0.54	-0.68	0.68	0.68				-0.53	0.53	0.53
	WB-13-AULN		-0.47		-0.56	-0.56	0.57	0.57						
Northern Bay of	NB-14-GUIL				-0.37	-0.53	0.52	0.52						
Biscay (NB)	NB-15-PEBE													
	NB-16-CHEM								0.49	6	0.53	0.56	-0.56	-0.56
	NB-18-BOUR		-0.37		-0.53	-0.58	0.58	0.58						
	NB-19-NOIR		-0.42	-0.38	-0.65	-0.69	0.69	0.69			-0.43	-0.44	0.44	0.44
Central Bay of	CB-20-RIVE		-0.65	-0.49	-0.81	-0.88	0.88	0.88	-0.57	7 -0.46	6 -0.73	-0.79	0.78	0.78
Biscay (MB)	CB-21-PALL		-0.5	-0.59	-0.64	-0.58	0.58	0.58		-0.44	_			
	CB-22-BOW		-0.73	-0.45	-0.82	-0.88	0.88	0.88	-0.66	6 -0.38	8 -0.73	-0.77	0.77	0.77
	CB-23-PONT			-0.38	-0.45	-0.56	0.55	0.55						
	CB-24-FOSS													
Arcachon lagoon (AL)	AL-25-FERR			-0.38	-0.41	-0.51	0.49	0.49						
	AL-26-JACQ			-0.43	-0.38	-0.49	0.47	0.47						
	AL-27-COMP		-0.53	-0.54	-0.72	-0.79	0.78	0.78	-0.35	5 -0.47	, -0.55	-0.62	0.62	0.62
Gulf of lion (GL)	GL-28-BANY		-0.65	-0.38	-0.69	-0.75	0.75	0.75	-0.54	4	-0.52	-0.59	0.58	0.58
	GL-29-HRLT		-0.45		-0.52	-0.51	0.52	0.52						
	GL-30-STMM		-0.46	-0.41	-0.64	-0.73	0.73	0.73			-0.42	-0.52	0.52	0.52
	GL-31-CART		-0.61		-0.62	-0.74	0.73	0.73	-0.49	6	-0.46	-0.58	0.56	0.56
	GL-32-COUR		-0.69	-0.49	-0.81	-0.89	0.89	0.89	-0.59	9 -0.4	-0.68	-0.76	0.75	0.75
	CI 33 DOME				0 5 2	г с	г С	г С					1 2 0	7 2 0

Liénart et al.

Bivalves as a recorder of global change

Liénart et al.

multidecadal scales should result in increased metabolic activity, hence in bivalves- δ^{13} C as a pure metabolic effect. In addition, lipid content in bivalves (reflected by higher C:N ratio when it increases) should decrease with warmer temperatures in temperate regions (Tan et al. 2023) translating to increased bivalves- δ^{13} C values and decreased C:N (Post et al. 2007). However, this is not the observed trend (decreasing bivalve- δ^{13} C, no overall decreasing trend in C:N ratio; data not shown), which suggests that bivalve physiology is likely not a dominant process for the multidecadal bivalve- δ^{13} C trends of this study. These trends are rather explained by direct (through diet) or indirect (through the effect of abiotic factors on phytoplankton physiology) changes in bivalve- δ^{13} C through food availability and quality (Liénart et al. 2020, 2023).

As these effects are linked to global drivers, they should similarly affect all regions and stations. However, 'only' 50% of the stations still exhibit significant decrease in Suesscorrected bivalves- δ^{13} C (most of the stations of Western Brittany, Central Bay of Biscay and Gulf of Lion) and only 43% of the stations still exhibit a correlation between bivalves- $\delta^{13}C_{corr}$ and global proxies (out of AO NAO and δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm}; most of the stations of Western Brittany and Gulf of Lion). This indicates that beyond global drivers, bivalves- δ^{13} C also responds to regional/local drivers that have cumulative, synergetic (for the stations exhibiting more negative slopes) or antagonistic (for the stations exhibiting less negative slope, nonsignificant or even positive slope) effect with global drivers. It is beyond the scope of this article to discuss these regional/local drivers but the present results clearly enlighten their effect on bivalves- δ^{13} C.

To summarize, the global increase in atmospheric CO₂ has many impacts (e.g., global warming), including on marine ecosystems (e.g., increased seawater temperature, increased primary production). Such changes go beyond physicalchemical processes or changes in the production base and have an impact on species at the base of the food webs, with potential knock-on effects expected on upper trophic levels, including isotopic signal. Our study demonstrates that the changes in the chemical composition of the atmosphere (increase in CO_2 and associated decrease in $\delta^{13}C$ - CO_{2atm}) are recorded in bivalves soft-tissues. This global effect is likely related to 'passive' processes (Suess effect; changes in δ^{13} C-CO_{2atm} directly modify bivalve- δ^{13} C through physical and chemical processes, i.e., without change in biological processes), but is also associated to 'active' processes (i.e., biological, due to change in phytoplankton or bivalve fractionation and physiology). Indeed, even after removing the Suess effect, a link between bivalve- δ^{13} C and global indices remains for half of the stations. Beyond global effect, regional and/or local effects likely occur in cumulative, synergistic or antagonistic ways. Correcting δ^{13} C time series for the Suess effect is a first and necessary step required when comparing biological samples collected one or more decades apart (as previously

advised by Misarti et al. 2009; Dombrosky 2020; Clark et al. 2021). Further studies are required to comprehensively investigate regional/local processes related to changes in bivalve- δ^{13} C once corrected for the Suess effect, which will contribute to a deeper understanding of ecosystem responses to global change.

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