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1 **Biological traits of benthic macrofauna show size-based differences in response to bottom**
2 **trawling intensity**

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8 **Keywords**

9 Biological trait analysis (BTA); Benthic communities; Seabed function; Community-weighted mean; Fisheries;
10 Trawling impacts; Benthic indicators.

11 **Running page head:** Size-based effects of fishing on benthic traits

12 **Abstract**

13 Bottom trawling results in widespread impacts to the structure and composition of benthic communities.
14 Although an ecosystem approach to fisheries management aims to conserve marine biodiversity and
15 ecosystem function, there remains a lack of empirical evidence regarding the effects of trawling on benthic
16 functional properties. Here, we examine the sensitivity of benthic macrofauna communities to trawling using
17 their biological traits, and compare trait responses across size-categories and survey types. 84 benthic soft-
18 sediment samples were collected by Van Veen grab (0.1m²) in the Kattegat in 2016, and complemented with
19 827 Haps cores (0.0143m²) gathered over a long-term monitoring programme between 2006 and 2013. By
20 analysing trait response in three size categories (small: 1-4 mm fraction, large: ≥4 mm fraction, and full
21 community: all individuals combined), we demonstrate a size-dependent effect of trawling on benthic trait
22 composition, where the traits of large-bodied fauna (≥4mm) were more sensitive. Specifically, larger sessile,
23 deep-living, suspension-feeding, tube-dwelling, subsurface deposit feeding, burrow-dwelling, and long-lived
24 (≥10 years) individuals were among the most affected. Our results based on large fauna were largely in
25 agreement with trait responses observed in the multi-year monitoring data. This would suggest that trait
26 data gathered from a targeted one-off sampling event can convey information on both acute (short-term)
27 and chronic (long-term) trawling impacts. Given that most trawling impact assessment do not consider size-
28 based effects, we outline how size-separating the community can be used to improve the detectability of
29 trawling impacts, and provide new insights into the functional impacts of fishing on the seabed.

30

31

1. Introduction

Commercial bottom trawling (hereafter ‘trawling’) accounts for roughly one quarter of landings from wild capture fisheries (FAO, 2016), and has been described as the most widespread anthropogenic disturbance to global seabed environments (Halpern et al. 2008). As a result, understanding the wider impacts of trawling on biodiversity and ecosystem function now represent central facets of an ecosystem approach to fisheries management (FAO, 2003; Pikitch et al. 2004). During trawling activities, nets and other collection devices are dragged over the seabed to capture fish and shellfish species. This results in the penetration and re-suspension of sediments (Eigaard et al. 2017; O’Neill and Ivanović 2016), damage to biogenic habitats (Cook et al. 2013), disturbance to demersal food webs (Hiddink et al. 2011), and direct and indirect mortality of benthic fauna (Kaiser et al. 2006, Hiddink et al. 2017, Sciberras et al. 2018). As benthic organisms play a key role in ecosystem processes such as bioturbation, nutrient cycling, and benthic-pelagic coupling (Snelgrove 1998, Lohrer et al. 2004, Queirós et al. 2013, Griffiths et al. 2017), trawling also has considerable potential to impact the functioning of seabed ecosystems (Dayton et al. 1995, Jennings & Kaiser 1998).

Research of the ecological effects of trawling has to date mainly focused on the response of taxonomic (or species-based) characteristics of the benthos, such as diversity and species composition (Kaiser et al. 2006, Hiddink et al. 2017, Sciberras et al. 2018). While taxonomic approaches are important to understand changes to biodiversity, and describe the evolutionary affiliations of species, they also face several limitations. Estimates of species diversity can be highly sensitive to sampling effort (Fleishman et al. 2006), are limited in their ability to describe ecological function or mechanisms of sensitivity (Bremner et al. 2006), and may often be uncorrelated with key ecosystem processes (J. Reiss et al. 2009). Ecologists are therefore increasingly using biological traits as a way to characterise community composition, to interpret ecological state, and better understand how individuals and species respond to biotic and abiotic variation (McGill et al. 2006, Gallagher et al. 2013). Traits essentially describe the phenotypic (i.e. morphological, physiological, behavioural) characteristics of an organism (Violle et al. 2014), and are therefore common to communities across habitats and geographic boundaries. Generally, traits are divided into two broad categories: effect traits, which determine how species affect ecosystem functions, and response traits, that show how species respond to their environment (Lavorel & Garnier, 2002). In combination, these response and effect traits can be used to interpret functionality, and predict the vulnerability of systems to disturbance (Mouillot et al. 2013, Beauchard et al. 2017). Indeed, rapidly developing methods such as joint species distribution modelling combine information on species occurrences, traits, taxonomic relationships, and environmental covariates (Warton et al. 2015, Abrego et al. 2017, Murillo et al. 2020), to simultaneously explore interactions between taxa and the response of communities to their environment. While such approaches are likely to become

1 standard in the near future, there remains a lack of empirical evidence of how trawling impacts benthic trait
2 composition across different seabed habitats and fisheries (Bolam et al. 2017), and studies which examine
3 the response of specific traits (and associated combinations) to trawling (Hinz et al. 2021).

4 The vulnerability of benthic communities to disturbance is mainly governed by their tolerance to disturbance
5 (rate of mortality), and ability to recover (rate of post-disturbance recolonisation) (Hiscock & Tyler-Walters
6 2006). Some of the key species traits which govern benthic sensitivity to trawling have been determined by
7 investigations of trawling impacts to community trait composition (Bremner et al. 2003, Tillin et al. 2006,
8 Bolam et al. 2014, 2017, Van Denderen et al. 2015). Those highlighted include trait categories (and
9 modalities) such as sediment position (e.g. surface vs. deep), living habit (free-living vs. tube-dwelling),
10 feeding strategy (scavenger vs. suspension-feeder), and egg development (parental brooding vs. broadcast
11 spawning), as well as more general traits such as body-size, longevity, and morphology. Regardless of these
12 findings at the community level, relatively few studies have examined the response of specific traits or
13 modalities to trawling. Notable exceptions to this include a trawling disturbance indicator that describes
14 vulnerability based on groups of trawling sensitive traits (De Juan and Demestre 2012), and using the longevity
15 characteristics of individuals to describe community sensitivity (Rijnsdorp et al. 2018, Hiddink et al. 2019).
16 The relevance of these studies is that single value metrics or indicators are a favoured approach of the main
17 marine policy directives in Europe, such as the European Union Water Framework Directive (WFD) (Anon.
18 2000) and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) (Anon. 2008). Under these Directives, metrics
19 are used to track and measure progress towards environmental targets. This has led to a proliferation of
20 indicators designed to describe seafloor integrity in recent years (e.g. see Rice et al. 2012, Beauchard et al.
21 2017), and frameworks and criteria to objectively select the most suitable targets and indicators (Rice &
22 Rochet 2005, Rossberg et al. 2017). Despite their increasing use, it remains that while a single value metric
23 can easily convey quantitative information on complex objects of environmental management (Jørgensen et
24 al. 2013), the inherent simplicity of this approach can necessitate careful interpretation. For example, a
25 number of recent trawling impact studies have in fact shown that many commonly used benthic indicators
26 are insensitive to trawling (Hiddink et al. 2020, McLaverty et al. 2020a), and may be more responsive to other
27 environmental gradients (Gislason et al. 2017).

28 Such discrepancies in the outcome of trawling impact studies can occur for a variety of reasons (Gray et al.
29 2006). These may be due to the varying sensitivity of seabed habitats (Collie et al. 2000), differences in the
30 penetration depths of trawling gears between fisheries (Hiddink et al. 2017), and the similar effects of natural
31 stressors on the benthos (van Denderen et al. 2015). In addition, trawling will often exert an uneven rate of
32 mortality across benthic species (Sciberras et al. 2018). For example, large-bodied shallow burrowing infauna

1 are more prone to damage than smaller body-sized fauna (Queirós et al. 2006), which may be pushed away
2 by the pressure wave that is generated in front of a moving trawl. In addition, , larger macrofauna are typically
3 slower to grow and sexually mature, have lower mortality and population growth rates (Charnov 1993,
4 Savage et al. 2004), and are therefore relatively vulnerable to trawling induced mortality (Duplisea et al.
5 2002). When communities are dominated by relatively insensitive small-bodied fauna, such as in coastal
6 fishing grounds (Duplisea et al. 2002), losses of trawling sensitive species may therefore be undetectable at
7 the community level, particularly in the presence of strong environmental drivers (Atkinson et al. 2011, Kaiser
8 et al. 1998, McLaverty et al. 2020b). A potential solution to this is to apply a simple body-size threshold in
9 the community. This is done by separating fauna into small and large size fractions (via sieving) during
10 sampling. By separating out the numerically dominant and relatively insensitive small fauna, and focussing
11 on the response of the large-bodied fauna separately, this method has been shown to significantly improve
12 the detectability of trawling impacts, and also reduce variation attributable to other environmental drivers
13 (see McLaverty et al. 2020a). Compared to approaches based on longevity (e.g. Rijnsdorp et al. 2018), which
14 can be difficult to measure and is often uncertain/lacking for many species, size-based methods such as this
15 can be easily applied regardless of community type, composition, and location. Scope therefore exists to
16 combine this method, and the relative advantages of biological trait analysis, to enhance our ability to detect
17 trawling impacts and our understanding of the functional impacts of these activities.

18 The main aims of this study were to (i) identify which benthic species traits are most sensitive to trawling, (ii)
19 compare sensitivity across body-size categories, and (iii) discuss the implications of our findings in terms of
20 benthic ecosystem function and sustainable fisheries management. To do this, benthic samples were
21 collected along a wide gradient of trawling intensity (including unfished sites) in soft-sediment areas of the
22 Kattegat, a shallow transitional sea located between the Baltic and North Sea. During sampling, sieves were
23 used to separate the benthic community into small (1-4mm) and large (≥ 4 mm) size categories. Firstly, a
24 number of sensitive traits are identified using multivariate ordinations of trait composition. Subsequently,
25 we model the response of these sensitive traits to trawling intensity and other environmental drivers.
26 Furthermore, we compare our observations with data from an independent benthic monitoring dataset
27 gathered in the same area, to examine if our results are representative of long-term trends. The findings of
28 this study provides new evidence of a size-dependent effect of trawling on benthic trait composition, and
29 insights into the functional impacts of fishing on the seabed.

30

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

The Kattegat is a shallow transitional sea characterised by an inflow of deep saline water from the North Sea, and an outflow of surface brackish water from the Baltic Sea. Due to increasing nutrient inputs, mainly nitrogen and phosphorus, areas of the Kattegat experience long-standing eutrophication (Pearson et al. 1985). The Kattegat also represents an important fishing ground for Danish and Swedish vessels targeting Norway lobster *Nephrops norvegicus* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Figure 1 a-c). The seabed here is composed of shallow sandy sediments to the west, and deep muddy canyons and moraines of mixed sediments in the north and eastern areas. *Nephrops* habitats, and the associated fishery, generally occurs in muddy sediments below 20m depth. Fishing is undertaken using single or twin *Nephrops* trawls, with average penetration depths of the gear provided by Eigaard et al. (2016). Approximately 3% of the total gear footprint is comprised by the doors and clumps (10 – 35 cm penetration), 29% by the groundgear (2-10 cm penetration), and 68% by the sweeps and bridles (>0-2 cm penetration). The fishery is also characterised by relatively low catchability and thus comparatively high trawling intensity (Eigaard et al. 2017). Based on trawling effort between 2013 and 2016, high trawling intensities (SAR) of up to 12.6 yr⁻¹ were observed in the northern Kattegat, in the vicinity of the Vinga trench system (running north to south), and sporadic areas in the south (Figure 1c).

2.2. Data sources – KS16 (2016) and NOVANA (2005 – 2013)

Soft-sediment benthic community data were gathered from two independent surveys undertaken in the Danish Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) of the Kattegat between 2005 and 2016. The Kattegat 2016 (KS16) survey represents a single (snapshot) survey undertaken in September 2016 at 21 sampling sites. The survey was designed to gather community data across a wide range of trawling intensity in the Kattegat, and is described in detail in McLaverty et al. (2020a). At each site, 4 faunal samples were collected using a 0.1m² Van Veen grab. The samples were sieved consecutively over 4 mm and 1 mm mesh sizes to separate the community into large (≥4mm) and small (1-4mm) size fractions. A 1mm mesh size is widely used as benthic macrofauna are generally defined as metazoans retained by a 1 mm sieve, and a 4 mm threshold is used to distinguish larger macrofauna and benthic megafauna. Additionally, a 4 mm threshold has been effectively used to determine the effects of trawling on macrobenthic production (H. Reiss et al, 2009). In the laboratory, all animal material was identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible, and biomass estimates were determined for each taxa as ash-free dry weight. The size-separation of the KS16 data provided 3 separate datasets for analysis; the 'small fraction', the 'large fraction', and the two fractions combined, hereafter referred to as the 'full community'. The second dataset was extracted from the Danish National Monitoring

1 programme (NOVANA), and included benthic macrofauna data from 22 fixed sites collected between April
2 and May, in the years 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2010, 2011 and 2013. At each site, 4 or 5 replicate sediment
3 samples were collected using a 0.0143m² Haps corer, and processed using a single 1 mm sieve (and thus
4 analogous to the KS16 'full community'). All macrofauna were sorted and identified to the lowest taxonomic
5 level possible. Biomass estimates per species were determined as wet weight. An additional sample was
6 collected at each sampling site in both surveys for the determination of sediment grain size (see Section 2.4
7 for details). The NOVANA programme was designed to monitor the effects of nutrient enrichment in Danish
8 waters (Svendsen et al. 2005), and the dataset is described in further detail in Gislason et al. (2017). As a
9 result, the relative effects of trawling on the benthos may be expected to differ between the NOVANA and
10 KS16 datasets, given the respective aims of the survey designs. The locations of all sampling sites are provided
11 in Figure 1 b-c. Penetration depths of sampling gears are assumed to be consistent between surveys, due to
12 the soft sediments throughout the study area, and the roughly similar penetration depths of the two gears
13 (Van Veen: 33 cm, Haps: 31.5 cm). To compare the representativeness of trait data from the respective
14 surveys, we used trait accumulation curves to determine how well the gears sampled communities across
15 our sampling stations (Supplement – Figure S1). The curves approached asymptotes for the majority of sites
16 in both surveys, indicating a similarly effective sampling of trait composition. Although two surveys generally
17 sampled different areas, sampling sites did overlap at 5 locations (Figure 1 b). In total, 4 datasets were
18 analysed; 3 from the KS16 survey, and 1 representing multiple years captured by the NOVANA surveys. The
19 full species list for the KS16 dataset is provided in Table S1 of the Supplement.

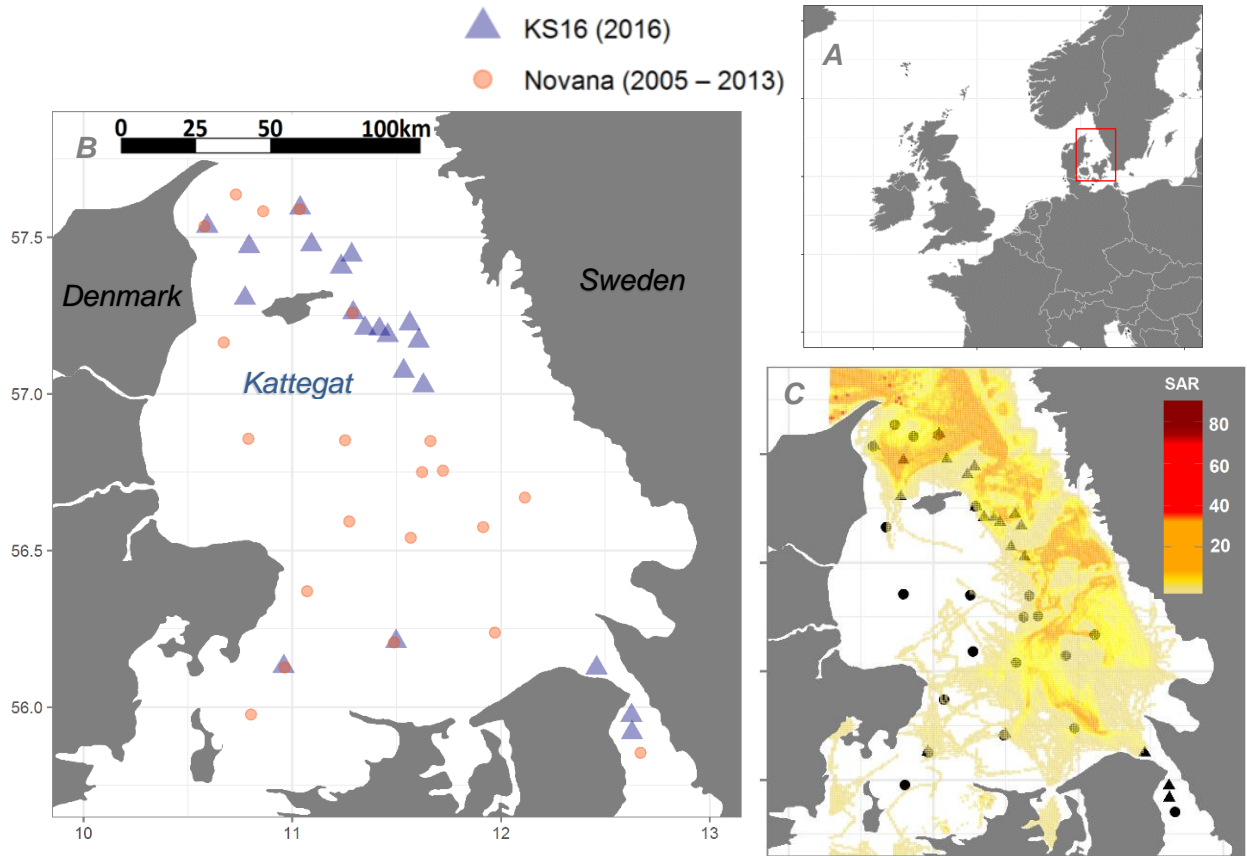


Figure 1. (a) Location of the study area (b) KS16 and NOVANA survey sampling sites in Danish waters (c) cumulative bottom trawling effort between 2013 and 2016 in relation to sampling sites. SAR = swept area ratio, a metric of trawling intensity.

2.3. Estimating trawling intensity

Trawling intensity was estimated as swept area ratios (SAR). The ratio was calculated by aggregating all trawling effort within an 'impact area' of 2 km radius around each sampling site. Effort was then divided by the area of the circle to estimate the number of times the seabed was trawled within a given time period. A 2 km radius was selected as a 2 x 2 km resolution has been shown to provide a relatively consistent compromise between over- and under-estimation of trawling intensity (Lambert et al. 2012). Trawling effort was estimated by combining Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) data with fishing vessel and gear information provided by EU logbooks. VMS receivers are used to collect and send data regarding the vessel location, heading, and speed at an hourly polling frequency (Danish and Swedish vessels). The raw VMS data were processed to preserve data considered to be trawling activity, defined as sailing speeds between 2 and 4 knots, and with a minimum distance of 3 km from port. The raw data points were interpolated using a cubic Hermite spline method (Hintzen et al. 2012) to reconstruct trawling tracks. These tracks were then combined with logbook data on vessel size and gear dimensions (Eigaard et al. 2016; Eigaard et al. 2017), which were

used to estimate and calculate the area of seabed 'swept' during each logbook trip. All processing of VMS data and estimation of SAR were conducted using the VMStools package in R (Hintzen et al. 2012). In order to ensure comparability between the KS16 and NOVANA data, only data for fishing vessels $\geq 15\text{m}$ were used in the study. While VMS has been mandatory for all vessels $\geq 12\text{m}$ operating in European waters since 2012, VMS was only mandatory on vessels $\geq 15\text{m}$ between 2005 and 2012, meaning that data are not available for vessel between 12-15m for much of the period covering the NOVANA samples. SARs were calculated based on 12 months of trawling effort prior to the date the individual samples were collected.

2.4. Environmental drivers

In addition to trawling intensity, data for 5 environmental drivers were included as predictor variables in the analysis. These included mud content (%), depth (m), bottom current speed ($\text{cm}^{-\text{s}}$), bottom water salinity, and bottom temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). Depth data were collected in the field, while mud content was determined from particle size analysis (PSA) of sediment samples. PSA was undertaken via mass loss following wet sieving (Danish Standard (DS) 405.9), and resulted in the estimation of mud % ($<63\mu\text{m}$), sand % ($0.063\text{--}2\text{mm}$), and gravel % ($\geq 2\text{mm}$). Modelled hydrodynamic data for bottom current speed, bottom salinity, and bottom temperature were extracted from the high-resolution Baltic Sea Ice-Ocean Model (BSIOM) (Lehmann et al. 2014). These data were back-calculated at a monthly scale, averaged over the 12 months prior to sampling, and based on $2 \times 2 \text{ km}$ grid cells. Due to the comparatively coarser resolution of the environmental data, a single value was applied to each replicate within a site.

2.5. Biological trait composition

Trait composition was described using 10 categories and 48 descriptive modalities (Table 1). The trait information was provided by a database developed by the EU-funded BENTHIS project (<http://www.benthis.eu/en/benthis.htm>), and outlined in Bolam et al. (2017). The database was developed for studies of fishing impacts on benthic ecosystems (Bolam 2014), and traits were included to reflect their functional importance to macrofaunal assemblages, and their vulnerability and sensitivity to trawling. In the cases where trait information was not included in the database (for ~ 10 species), information was supplemented by available literature, and the BIOTIC database (www.marlin.ac.uk/biotic). A 'fuzzy coding' approach (Chevenet et al. 1994) was used to describe trait information across each species. This approach was preferred as species can often exhibit multiple modalities within a trait category, and as it indicates the relative importance of the modalities. A score of 3 was assigned where species demonstrated full affinity to a modalities (e.g. maximum body size). Conversely, if taxa exhibited multiple modalities per trait category, a score was assigned relative to its importance (e.g. the brittlestar *Amphiura filiformis* is a deposit feeder and

a facultative suspension feeder, thus scored as suspension = 2 and surface deposit = 2). The fuzzy coding approach also facilitates the description of uncertainty in trait information. While some trait information (e.g. morphology) is widely available, other traits (e.g. longevity) are not documented for large numbers of taxa. In such cases, scores could be assigned to more than 1 modality, and were assigned based on the most closely related taxa following a best professional judgement approach (Bolam 2014). After coding, trait scores were standardised to 1 within each trait category. A trait-by-site matrix was calculated by averaging the trait scores across each species and then multiplying by the relative biomass of that species. This resulted in a value for each modality per sample, also known as a community-weighted mean (CWM). Biomass was selected (rather than density) as it is considered a more appropriate determinant of an organism's role in ecosystem functioning than abundance (Bolam & Eggleton 2014). Absolute CWM trait values were preferred (as oppose to relative values) to preserve spatial and temporal contrasts in trait biomass across the study area (Beauchard et al. 2017).

Table 1. Biological trait categories and modalities used in the study.

Trait category	Trait modality	Code	Hypothesized relationship
Feeding mode	Parasite Predator Scavenger/Opportunist Subsurface deposit Surface Deposit Suspension	F_para F_pred F_scav F_subs F_surf F_susp	Describes energy transfer (flow of carbon between sediment/water), vulnerability to disturbance, and has implications for number of biogeochemical processes (Rosenberg, 1995), while relative proportions can indicate community structure, and top down and bottom up dynamics of food web (Murillo et al. 2020). We would expect scavengers/predators to be more prevalent in trawled areas, with suspension feeders reduced due to physical damage from trawls or interference with feeding appendages from suspended sediments (De Juan et al. 2007, Tillin et al. 2006)
Larval Development	Direct Lecithotrophic Planktotrophic	LD_dire LD_leci LD_plank	Indicates potential of dispersal of larvae prior to settlement and associated ability to recover from disturbance. Planktonic (larvae feed and grow in water column) recruitment expected to provide potentially faster recruitment than lecithotrophic larvae (larvae use yolk sac), while direct developers have weakest ability to recolonise areas (Thrush & Whitlash, 2001).
Egg development	Asexual/Budding Sexual: benthic eggs Sexual: brood eggs Sexual: pelagic eggs	ED_asex ED_benth ED_brood ED_pele	Indicates dispersal potential of egg stage and potential vulnerability to physical damage. Eggs dispersed in the benthic zone or parental brooders are more susceptible to trawling impacts than pelagic eggs. Asexual reproduction can represent adaptation to disturbed conditions (Wangensteen et al, 2016) and may be more common in regularly fished areas.
Mobility	Burrower Crawl/creep/climb Sessile Swim	M_burr M_crawl M_sess M_swim	Increased mobility is likely to reduce likelihood of damage or capture by trawls, while also being indicative of ability to migrate into disturbed areas. Conversely, slow moving sessile and crawling species will be more vulnerable to

			changes in their environment and therefore trawling (Kenchington et al 2007)
Size range	<10 mm 11-20 mm 21-100 mm 101-200 mm 201-500 mm ≥500 mm	S_<10 S_11-20 S_21-100 S_101-200 S_201-500 S_>500	Indicative of a wide range of biological and ecological dynamics, including trophic position, productivity, trophic position, metabolic rate, and generation time. Key function relates to the movement of organic matter in the benthic system, with larger organisms holding more (low turnover) compared to small-bodied species (high turnover) (Pearson & Rosenberg, 1978). Expected that trawling will reduce biomass of large fauna, while small bodied fauna will be relatively prevalent (Bremner 2008)
Longevity	<1 year 1-3 years 3-10 years ≥10 years	L_1 L_1-3 L_3-10 L_>10	Indicates relative age of sexual maturity, a proxy of relative r- and k-strategy (Pearson & Rosenberg, 1978), and investment of energy in somatic growth. Long-lived species are associated with relatively slow growth and turnover rates, and lower production. Such individuals are more common in unfished or infrequently disturbed areas (Rijnsdorp et al. 2018)
Morphology	Crustose Cushion Exoskeleton Soft Stalked Tunic	MO_crust MO_cush MO_exo MO_soft MO_stalk MO_tunic	Indicates the external characteristics of an organism and vulnerability to physical damage. Soft e.g. are represented mainly by annelid species, exoskeleton by chitinous and calcareous shelled organisms, and crustose and stalked by sponges, hydroids and bryozoans. Individuals not covered by exoskeleton may be more easily damaged by trawl gear (e.g. Pham et al 2019)
Living habit	Attached Burrow-dwelling Crevice-dwelling Epi/endozoic/phytic Free-living Tube-dwelling	LH_attach LH_burr LH_crev LH_epi LH_free LH_tube	Indicates differing exposures to physical disturbance or ability to evade damage. May have implications for the topographic structure of seabed habitats. Chronic fishing can reduce species which form physical structures, or inhabit burrows and crevices, while the relative dominance of free-living fauna may increase (Kaiser et al 2000).
Sediment position	Surface 0-5cm deep 6-10cm deep ≥10cm deep	SP_surf SP_0-5 SP_6-10 SP_>10	Position of organisms within the sediment, and indicates role in biogeochemical regulation via sediment/water nutrient and oxygen exchange. Organisms present in surface sediments will be relatively susceptible to damage from trawling, compared to those that occur in deeper sediments (Hiddink et al 2017). However, deeper-living fauna may also be vulnerable to heavy fishing gears.
Bioturbation	Diffusive-mixing Downwards conveyor Non-bioturbator Surface deposition Upward Conveyor	B_diff B_down B_none B_surf B_up	Sediment reworking dynamics of organisms, and indicates potential for fauna-mediated biogeochemical properties and processes such as sediment-water exchange (Sandnes et al, 2000). Expected that trawling may impact bioturbating fauna, with those that diffuse surface sediments or form burrows at the surface potentially vulnerable (Olsgard et al 2008).

1

2 2.6. Statistical approach

3 *Analysing trait composition & determining sensitive traits*

4 Analyses of trait composition were carried out using multivariate distance-based linear models (DistLMs),
5 which fit a relationship between community composition data and environmental variables (predictors). The

1 routine follows a distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) approach (Legendre & Andersson 1999),
2 where constrained ordinations are undertaken using non-Euclidean distance measures. Trait values were log
3 transformed ($\log(x+1)$), and resemblance matrices were calculated using Bray-Curtis similarity. The selection
4 of predictors in the DistLM final model was achieved using an automated step-wise sequential test and small-
5 sample size corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) (Anderson et al. 2008). DbRDA plots were used to
6 visualise the models, which include vector overlays that indicate the strength and direction of the included
7 predictors. Multiple partial correlations (Pearson's R) were calculated based on the vector overlays, and
8 coefficients used to determine the relative importance of the predictors in each of the datasets. Using a
9 similar approach, the most 'sensitive' trait modalities in each dataset were identified by examining the
10 strength of correlation between each modality and the axis of the redundancy plot that correlated with
11 trawling. The larger the correlation coefficient, the greater contribution of that modality to the dbRDA
12 ordination. While the approach cannot quantify the effect of individual predictors, it is suitable to generate
13 exploratory hypotheses from multivariate data (Anderson et al. 2008). We therefore used the correlation
14 coefficients to rank the sensitivity of each individual modality, and highlighted 10 modalities from each
15 dataset with the largest coefficients. These were combined to provide a composite list of sensitive traits
16 (Table 3b). Analyses were carried out using PRIMER v.7 (Clarke & Gorley 2015) with PERMANOVA+ (Anderson
17 et al. 2008).

18 *Analysis of trait sensitivity to trawling disturbance*

19 Based on the composite list of sensitive traits, we then selected those which exhibited a significant response
20 to dbRDA1 in more than one of the fractions/datasets. The remaining 16 trait modalities were analysed using
21 generalised linear mixed effects models (GLMMs), an approach considered suitable for the quantification of
22 potential correlations in repeated measure designs (Bolker et al. 2009). As the trait values were non-negative,
23 continuous, right skewed, and contained zeros, we applied a Tweedie distribution in the GLMMs (Foster &
24 Bravington 2013). The GLMMs were fitted with a log-link using the glmmTMB package (Brooks et al. 2017).
25 Model selection was undertaken using backwards elimination of model terms based on likelihood ratio tests.
26 Model diagnostics were checked using the DHARMA package (Hartig, 2016). Although collinearity is not
27 necessarily a problem in multiple regression (Morrissey and Ruxton, 2018), all predictors (including trawling)
28 were checked for multicollinearity prior to formal statistical analysis. Pair-wise plots were used to calculate
29 correlation coefficients. All correlations were ≤ 0.7 (Table S2), meaning that all predictors could be included
30 in the analysis (Dormann et al. 2013). Additionally, variance inflation factor (VIF) values were checked for
31 models containing all predictors for each dataset. While some level of correlation was present, the VIFs were
32 all below the acceptable threshold of 5 (Kutner et al. 2004). The marginal effects of trawling on each trait

1 modality were visualised using the 'sjPlot' package (Lüdecke 2016). Plots were based on predicted values
2 from the GLMMs, and are conditional of the effects of the other predictors (environmental variables)
3 included in the final model. All analyses were conducted using R version 3.5.0 (R Development Core Team,
4 2019).

5 *Other analyses*

6 We examined differences in environmental variables between the KS16 and NOVANA surveys using non-
7 parametric Kruskal–Wallis tests (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952). A comparison of the inter-annual variability of
8 trait data and the underlying species data was undertaken to investigate which data type was more
9 temporally stable. To do this, we used an ANOSIM (Analysis of Similarity) routine (Clarke & Gorley 2015) on
10 all years of the NOVANA data. The routine provides scaled measures (R values) of the effect size of a given
11 factor (in our case 'year'), allowing for the trait and species matrices to be compared directly.

3. Results

3.1. Comparison of data sources

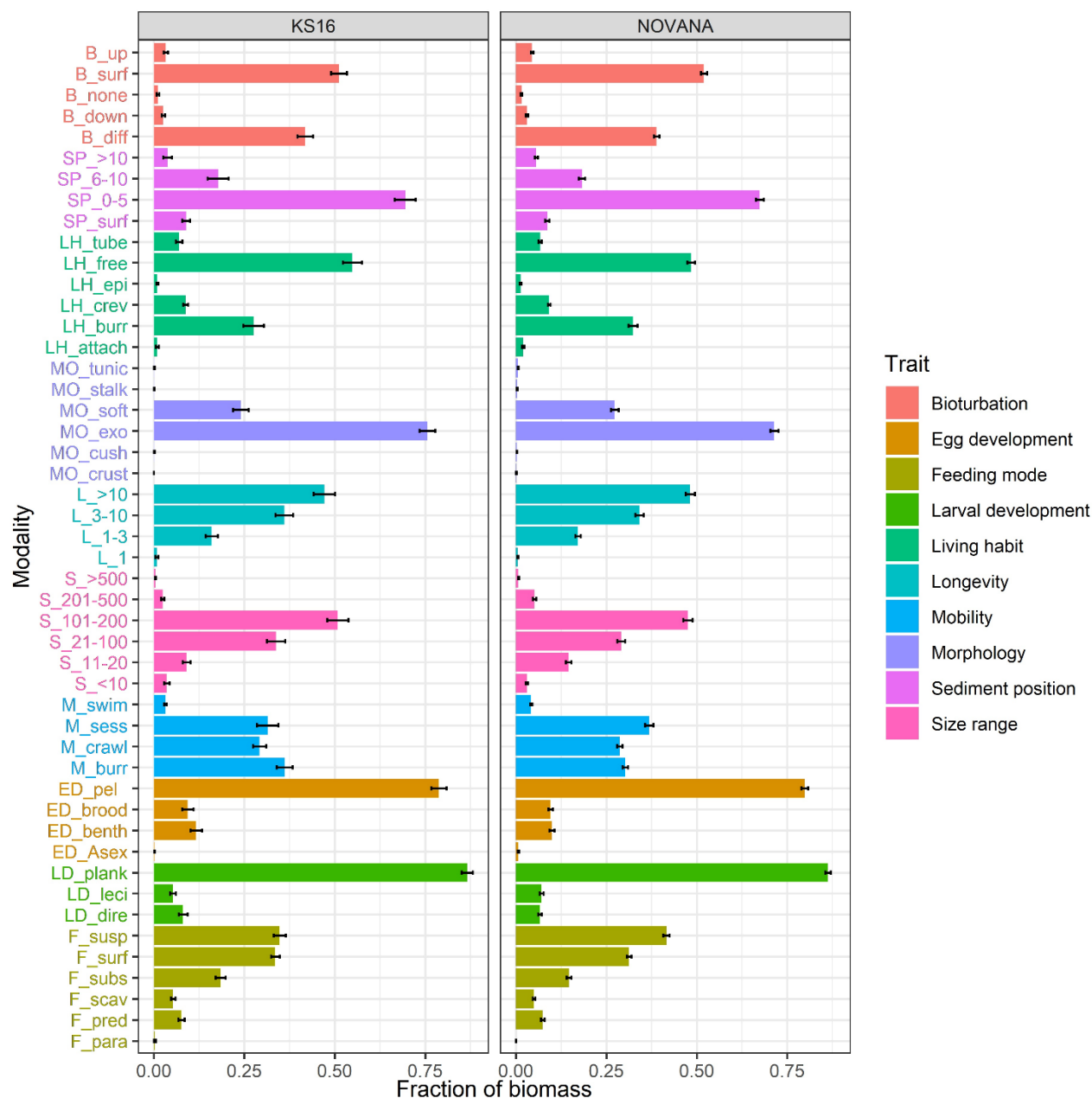
Due to the respective sizes of the 0.1 m² Van Veen grab sampler (KS16) and 0.0143m² Haps corer (NOVANA), the area of seabed examined between the two surveys was relatively similar, despite the differences in sampling effort (Table 2). The total number of taxa sampled in the KS16 full community (285) was, however, lower than the NOVANA data (368). Size fractionation of the KS16 data resulted in fewer species recorded in the large (144) than the small fraction (259), although the large fraction accounted for ~90% of biomass. All 48 trait modalities were recorded in the KS16 and NOVANA surveys. Comparisons of trait modalities observed between surveys (Figure 2) revealed the commonality of modes such as '0-5cm deep' (sediment position category), 'exoskeleton' (morphology), 'pelagic eggs' (egg development), and 'planktotrophic' (larval development) across species. The proportional representation of modalities within categories were largely comparable between surveys, with only minor differences observed in a small number of modalities e.g. 'sessile', 'surface deposit feeder' and 'benthic eggs'. Inter-annual variability of trait data was found to be less than that of species data. This was revealed by the statistically significant and greater effect of 'year' on species composition ($R = 0.11$, $p = 0.001$) than on trait composition ($R = 0.04$, $p = 0.05$), which was of borderline significance.

Table 2. Summary of sampling effort, benthic community parameters, bottom trawling intensity, and environmental variables associated with the KS16 (2016) and NOVANA surveys (2005-2013).

	KS16 (2016)			NOVANA (2005 – 2013)
	Large fraction	Small fraction	Full community	Full community
Size fraction	≥4 mm	1 – 4 mm	≥1 mm	≥1 mm
Number of samples	84			827
Number of surveys	1			7
Area sampled	8.4 m ²			11.8 m ²
CWM trait modalities represented	46	48	48	48
Total biomass (g)	199.04*	21.46*	220.50*	4,814.13†
Total number of taxa	144	259	285	368
Trawling intensity range (mean)	0 - 12.6 (3.8 yr ⁻¹)			0 - 14.8 (3.4 yr ⁻¹)
Current speed range (mean)	0.4 - 4.1 (1.6 cm/s)			0.7 – 7.0 (2.5 cm/s)
Depth range (mean)	16.3 - 81 (38 m)			13 – 55 (24 m)
Mud content range (mean)	3.6 - 97 (41 %)			1.1 - 94.7 (26 %)
Min salinity range (mean)	21.6 - 34.5 (32 PSU)			14.4 - 34.5 (29 PSU)
Temperature range (mean)	6.2 - 8.9 (7.6 °C)			5.2 - 9.3 (7.6 °C)
* Ash free dry weight biomass				
† Wet weight (blotted) biomass				

1 Average trawling intensity (KS16: 3.8 yr⁻¹, NOVANA 3.4 yr⁻¹) and range (KS16: 0 - 12.6 yr⁻¹, NOVANA 0 - 14.8
2 yr⁻¹) were similar between surveys (Kruskal-Wallis, p = 0.58), indicating that the trawling gradient sampled in
3 2016 was representative of longer term trawling activities. On the other hand, environmental conditions
4 were less comparable (Table 2). Current speed was generally higher at the NOVANA sites (Kruskal-Wallis, p =
5 <0.001), while depth, mud content, and salinity were all lower (all Kruskal-Wallis, p = <0.001). Temperature
6 was, however, similar between the surveys (Kruskal-Wallis, p = <0.437). Correlations between trawling and
7 other environmental variables were found to be strongest between trawling and mud (R = 0.58) in the KS16
8 data, and between trawling and depth (R = 0.6) in the NOVANA data (Table S2). All relationships were within
9 acceptable thresholds (Kutner et al. 2004; Dormann et al. 2013), meaning that their respective effects can
10 be interpreted independently. A summary of all trawling and environmental values per site is provided in
11 Table S3 of the Supplement.

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3 **Figure 2: Proportion of CWM trait modalities observed in the KS16 (2016) and NOVANA (2005 – 2013)**
4 **datasets. Error bars: SE. Trait codes are defined in Table 1.**

5 **3.2. Determining sensitive traits**

6 Redundancy analysis ordinations showed that the primary axis (dbRDA1) explained the majority of trait
7 variance. Furthermore, multiple partial correlations revealed that dbRDA1 was significantly correlated with
8 trawling, temperature, and, in particular, depth in each dataset (Table 3a & Supplement – Figure S2). Salinity
9 and mud content were also correlated with trait composition in the KS16 small fraction and NOVANA data.

This also revealed that the conditional effect of trawling on trait composition was relatively greater for the KS16 large fraction ($R = 0.45$). The variance in trait data explained by predictors was low in the NOVANA data (3.3% explained by dbRDA1), compared to that of the KS16 full community (18.2% by dbRDA1). This was further highlighted by the differences in site ordinations in Figure S2 a-d. In these plots, the positions of sites are constrained by the predictors included in the model, thereby indicating relatively different environmental conditions at KS16 and NOVANA sampling sites. The low degree of trait variance explained in the NOVANA data indicates a poor match with the environmental variables, and the possible influence of other non-measured variables at these locations.

Correlations between modalities and dbRDA1 were estimated in each dataset, and a composite list of the ten most sensitive traits (strongest correlations) from each is outlined in Table 3b. Most of these 22 trait modalities exhibited negative correlations in both KS16 and NOVANA surveys. The exceptions to this were 'diffuse mixing', 'predator', 'lecithotrophic' and 'soft', which were only identified in the KS16 dataset. A negative correlation indicated a decline in trait biomass with increasing trawling intensity, depth, temperature, mud content, and salinity. On the other hand, 'crevice dwelling' and 'free-living' modalities exhibited positive relationships with dbRDA1, indicating an increase in trait biomass with increasing trawling intensity and environmental parameters. Positive correlations were also observed for short-lived fauna (<1 year'), however, these relationships were comparatively weaker and outside the ten most sensitive traits in each fraction. For the next step of the analysis, we selected the modalities which exhibited a significant response to dbRDA1 in more than one of the fractions/datasets. This resulted in the omission of 'non-biotubator', 'diffuse-mixing', 'predator', 'free-living', '1-3years', and '21-100 mm' from further analysis.

Table 3. (a) Multiple partial correlation coefficients (Pearson's R) between environmental variables associated with the KS16 (2016) and NOVANA (2005–2013) surveys and main axis of redundancy plots (dbRDA1), (b) correlation coefficients between trait modalities and dbRDA1. The 10 strongest correlations are highlighted in bold for each dataset. In both (a) and (b), + or – indicates a positive or negative relationship, respectively, and blank entries corresponds to a non-significant relationship

	KS16 (2016)			NOVANA (2005 – 2013)
	Large fraction	Small fraction	Full community	Full community
(a)				
Environmental variable	Pearson's R			
Current speed				
Depth	0.75	0.82	0.83	0.37
Mud				0.81
Salinity			0.35	-0.29

Temperature		0.49	0.34	0.30	0.13
Trawling		0.45	0.30	0.41	0.13
dbRDA1 explained variance		12.4%	19.9%	18.2%	3.3%
(b)					
Trait	Modality	Pearson's R			
Bioturbation	Surface deposition	-0.49	-0.36	-0.51	-0.13
	Non-bioturbator	-0.33			-0.21
	Diffusive mixing		-0.43		
Egg development	Pelagic eggs	-0.48	-0.52	-0.5	-0.16
Feeding mode	Predator		-0.45		
	Subsurface deposit	-0.36	-0.43	-0.4	-0.15
	Suspension	-0.52	-0.32	-0.55	-0.20
Larval development	Lecithotrophic	-0.23	-0.46	-0.4	
	Planktotrophic	-0.48	-0.41	-0.5	-0.15
Living habit	Crevice-dwelling	-0.35	-0.26	-0.34	+0.42
	Free-living		-0.41		+0.21
	Tube-dwelling	-0.47		-0.47	-0.13
	Burrow-dwelling	-0.43	-0.41	-0.48	-0.26
Longevity	1-3 years			-0.38	-0.20
	≥10 years	-0.50	-0.29	-0.51	-0.16
Mobility	Sessile	-0.47	-0.45	-0.51	-0.24
Morphology	Exoskeleton	-0.47	-0.34	-0.49	-0.15
	Soft	-0.37	-0.51	-0.54	
Sediment position	0-5cm deep	-0.33	-0.47	-0.38	-0.23
	6-10cm deep	-0.45	-0.53	-0.47	-0.23
Size range	21-100mm		-0.28		-0.22
	101-200mm	-0.49	-0.31	-0.49	-0.11
Pearson correlation critical values: KS16 = 0.21 & NOVANA = 0.07					

1 **3.3. Trait sensitivity to trawling disturbance**

2 Of the remaining 16 trait modalities, GLMMs revealed that 10 were negatively impacted by trawling intensity
3 in the KS16 large fraction. These included 'suspension', 'planktotrophic', 'sessile', 'surface deposition', '≥10
4 years', '6-10cm deep', 'tube-dwelling', 'subsurface deposit', 'soft', and 'burrow-dwelling'. By comparison, 7
5 of these 10 modalities were impacted by trawling in the KS16 full community (exceptions being '≥10 years,
6 'soft' and '6-10cm deep') and similarly, 7 of the 10 were impacted by trawling in the NOVANA full community
7 (exceptions being 'suspension', 'burrow-dwelling', and 'soft') (Table 4, Figure 3 & 4). Accordingly, traits
8 impacted by trawling in the KS16 full community and NOVANA data were both a subset of those identified in
9 the large fraction, potentially indicating the importance of these in driving sensitivity at the community level.
10 Responses observed in the NOVANA data were also most comparable with the results from the large fraction.
11 The traits of 'burrow-dwelling', 'sessile', and 'subsurface deposit' feeders were the only modalities impacted
12 across all KS16 datasets (large, small and full community). In the case of 'sessile' and 'subsurface deposit',
13 these modalities responded across the KS16 and NOVANA datasets, potentially indicating highly sensitive
14 traits. Summary model outputs for all GLMMs are provided in Table S4 of the Supplement.

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1 **Table 4. Summarised results of GLMMs for CWM trait modalities associated with the KS16 (2016) and NOVANA (2005–2013) surveys. Significant**
2 **relationships with trawling are shown with an ‘x’. Significant relationships with environmental variables are shown in the ‘other’ column, where C =**
3 **bottom current speed, D = depth, M = mud content, T = bottom temperature, S = bottom salinity. Direction of the relationship is shown as positive**
4 **(+) or negative (-). Model coefficients of determination (R^2) provided as conditional R^2 values (both marginal and random effects combined).**

Trait	Modality	KS16 (2016)									NOVANA (2005 – 2013)		
		Large fraction			Small fraction			Full community			Full community		
		Trawling	Other	R^2	Trawling	Other	R^2	Trawling	Other	R^2	Trawling	Other	R^2
Bioturbation	Surface deposition	x-	D-, T-	0.67		S-, T+	0.44	x-	D-	0.69	x-	C+, M-, S+	0.43
Egg development	Pelagic eggs		D-, T-	0.58		S-, T+	0.40		C+, D-, T-	0.62		S+, T+	0.42
Feeding mode	Subsurface deposit	x-	T-	0.64	x-		0.52	x-	T-	0.62	x-	C+, M-, S+	0.13
	Suspension	x-	D-	0.69		S-, T+	0.48	x-	D-	0.72		C+, M-	0.43
Larval development	Lecithotrophic		S-	0.27		M-, S-	0.51		S-	0.24		D-, M-, T-	0.17
	Planktotrophic	x-	D-	0.58		S-, T+	0.42	x-	D-	0.61	x-	C+, S+	0.41
Living habit	Crevice-dwelling		D-	0.64			0.47		D-	0.69		C+, D+, S-, T+	0.21
	Tube-dwelling	x-	T-	0.80		M-, T-	0.81	x-	T-	0.87	x-	C+, M-, T-	0.82
	Burrow-dwelling	x-		0.77	x-	C-, D-	0.64	x-	M-, T-,	0.79		D-, M-	0.49
Longevity	≥10 years	x-	D-	0.70		D-	0.67		D-, T-	0.69	x-	C+, D+, T+	0.41
Mobility	Sessile	x-	D-	0.83	x-	C-	0.74	x-	D-	0.82	x-	C+, M+, S+, T-	0.90
Morphology	Exoskeleton		C+, D-, T-	0.57		T+	0.52		D-, T-	0.61		C+, S+	0.29
	Soft	x-	T-	0.63		M-, S-	0.58		M-, T-, S-	0.58		C+, D-, S+, T-	0.57
Sediment position	0-5cm deep		D-	0.44		D-	0.39		S-	0.53		C+, M+, S+	0.18
	6-10cm deep	x-	D-, T-	0.83		M-, S-	0.67		D-, T-	0.81	x-	C+, D-, M-, S+	0.67
Size range	101-200mm		D-, T-	0.68		S-, T+	0.48		D-, T-	0.70		C+, M+	0.52

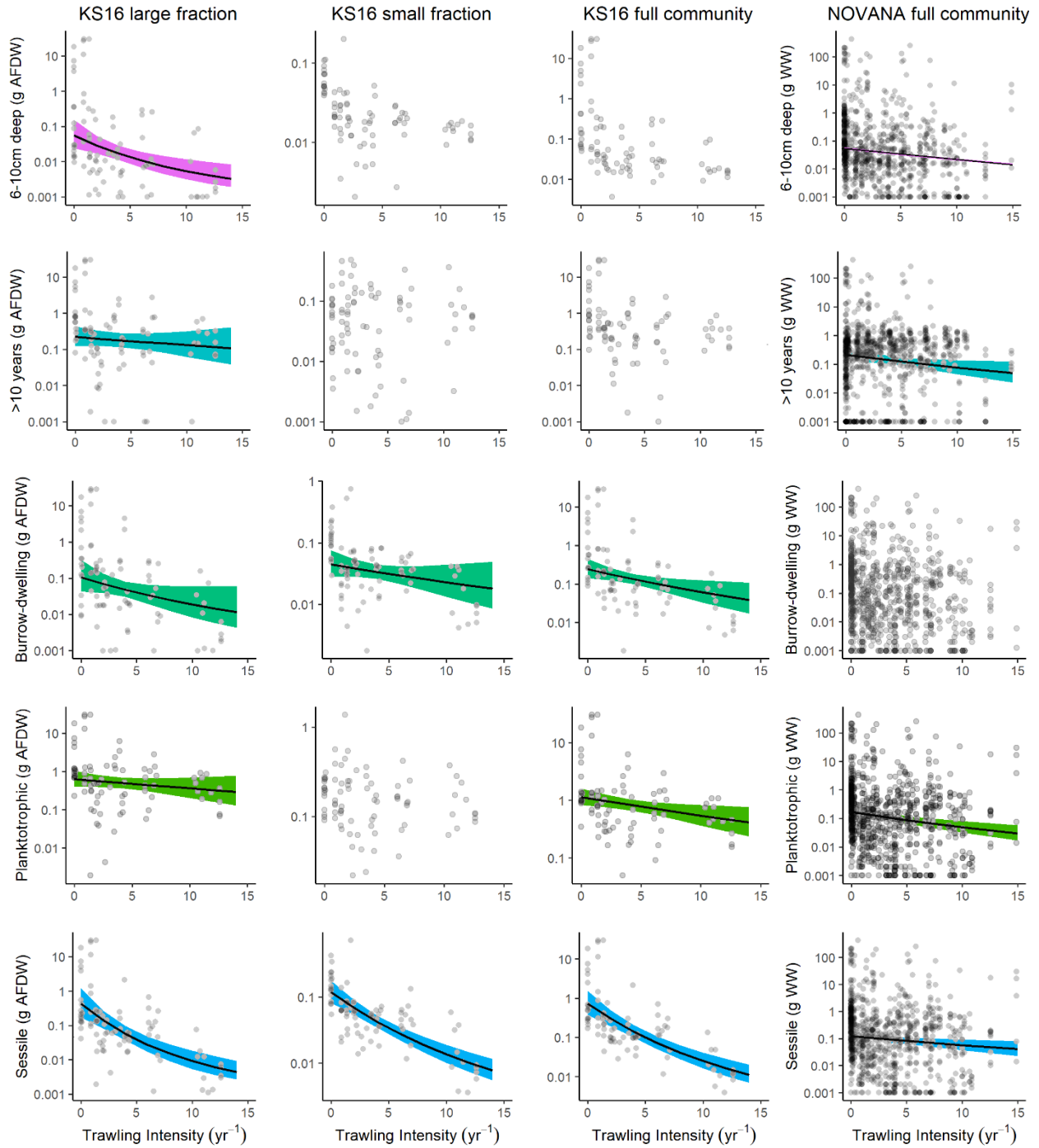


Figure 3. Relationships between trawling intensity and the trait modalities ‘6-10cm deep’, ‘≥10 years’, ‘burrow-dwelling’, ‘planktotrophic’, and ‘sessile’. Regression lines denote a significant relationship, based on the predicted values from GLMMs presented in Table 4. The raw observations are overlaid as data points. Coloured areas represent 95% confidence intervals, and colours represent trait categories shown in Figure 2. To aid visual interpretation, trait biomass are presented on a log scale. AFDW: ash-free dry weight. WW: wet weight.

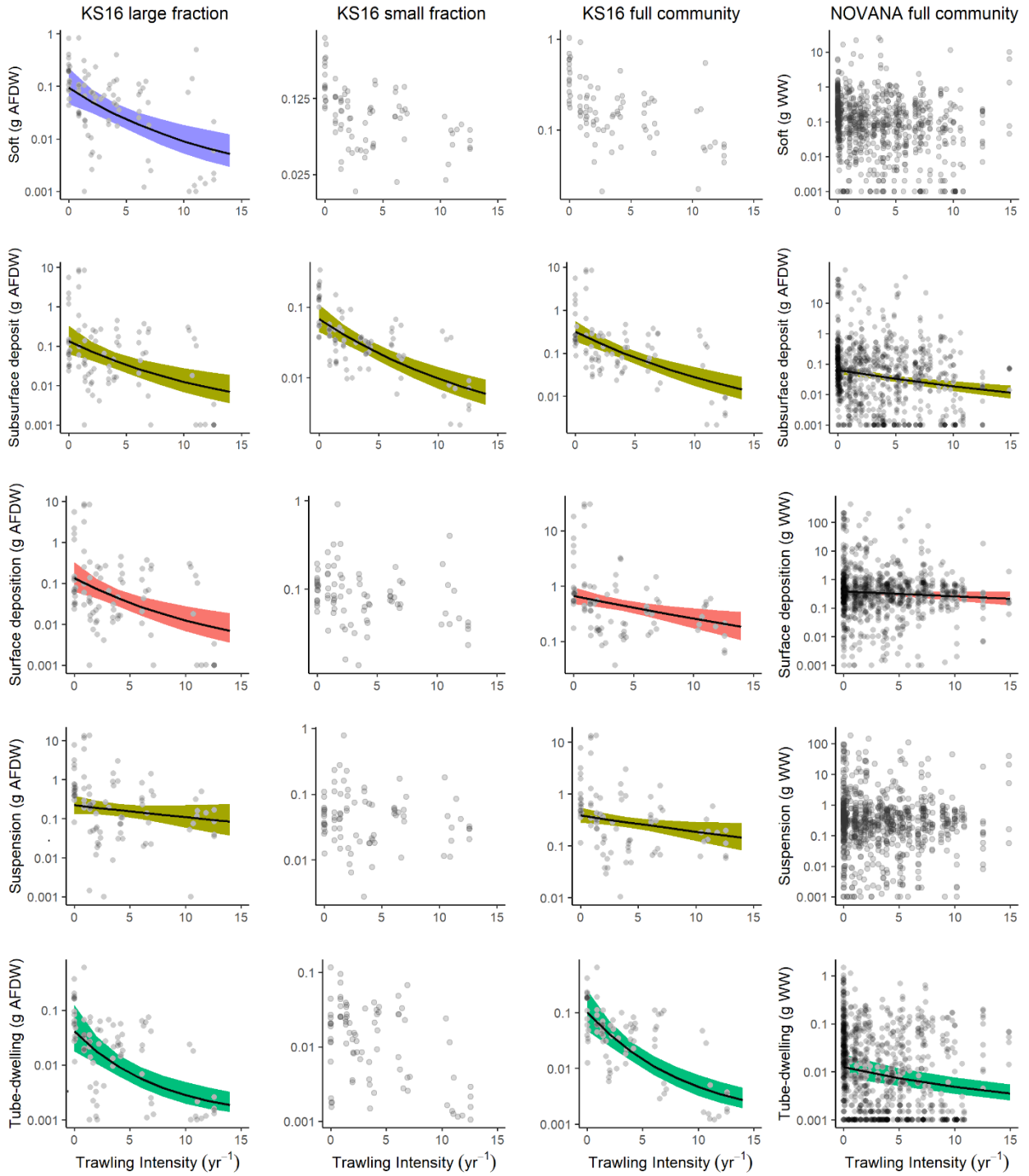


Figure 4. Relationships between trawling intensity and the trait modalities ‘soft’ ‘subsurface deposit’, ‘surface deposition’ ‘suspension’, and ‘tube-dwelling’. Other details as in Fig. 3.

4. Discussion

Monitoring and assessing trawling impacts to the seabed require metrics that accurately describe ecological condition, and acutely respond to changes that occur as a result of fishing. This dual capability is important as seabed communities will vary naturally across fishing grounds, and in relation to gradients in e.g. salinity, sediment type, and depth (Rice et al. 2012, Gislason et al. 2017, Hiddink et al. 2020). Our results highlight a number of benthic species traits that were able to distinguish trawling impacts from the effects of other environmental drivers, while also reflecting key functional and ecological community characteristics. Furthermore, the observed relative sensitivity of large benthos and their traits would indicate a size-dependent effect of trawling on the functional properties of the community. In the following sections we elaborate on these results, discuss their underlying causes, and highlight the implications of our findings from an ecological and management standpoint.

Of the 48 life history modes examined, 10 exhibited by large-bodied fauna were significantly impacted by trawling, with 7 of these impacted at the community level. While the relative sensitivity of larger individuals to trawling disturbance is well documented (Kaiser et al. 2000, McLaverty et al. 2020a, Pitcher 2000, Queirós et al. 2006), we highlight specific traits which may be denuded or lost due to trawling, and those which may be potentially overlooked in assessments based on the full community ('≥10 years', '6-10cm deep', and 'soft' were only impacted in the large fraction). For example, the biomass of large bodied burrow-dwellers, subsurface deposit feeders ('subsurface deposit'), and surface-depositing bioturbators ('surface deposition') were significantly affected by trawling in our study. Large bodied fauna which share these traits are responsible for a significant proportion of sediment bioturbation and reworking (Sandnes et al. 2000), improving nutrient fluxes and benthic production (Lohrer et al. 2004), and provide substantial sources of labile carbon available for higher trophic levels (Ellingsen et al. 2007, Hiddink et al. 2016). Given the dominant functional role of large individuals in processes such as oxygen and nutrient fluxes and nutrient regeneration (Thrush et al. 2006, Norkko et al. 2013), the loss of large individuals and their traits is likely to have strong negative implications for seabed ecosystem functionality.

The range of trait responses observed in our results illustrates how trawling can potentially impact several seabed functions, while providing insights into the potential mechanism of sensitivity. Modalities such as '6-10 deep', '≥10 year', and 'surface deposition' were all highly sensitive to trawling, and also chiefly accounted for by large bivalve taxa (e.g. *Arctica islandica*, *Thracia* spp.), the common heart urchin (*Echinocardium cordatum*), and the slender sea pen (*Virgularia mirabilis*). Marine bivalves are often a key component of macrofauna-mediated benthic processes (Dame 2016), but experience high mortality rates from trawling (Rumohr & Krost 1991, Bergman & van Santbrink 2000). Species such as *Arctica islandica* are periodically

deep-living in the sediment, and exhibit a remarkable lifespan that can exceed 400 years (Abele et al. 2008; Morton 2011). Their large size can contribute up to half of total benthic community production (Brey et al. 1990), and large bivalves are important bioturbators of deeper sediment layers (Morys et al. 2017). Similarly, the activity of species such as *E. cordatum* facilitates the exchange of water and oxygen in surface sediments (Forster & Zettler 2004), while *V. mirabilis* play a key role in deep sediment irrigation (Osinga et al. 1995). These species are, however, relatively vulnerable to physical damage due to their brittle test (*E. cordatum*) and soft feeding appendages (*V. mirabilis*), and trawling-induced declines have been observed in the Kattegat and North Sea (Bergman & van Santbrink 2000, Sköld et al. 2018). As the physical impact of trawling affects these same sedimentary and biogeochemical processes (Sciberras et al. 2016, Tiano et al. 2019), reductions in biologically-mediated functions such as bioturbation may exacerbate impacts to soft sediment environments.

Similarly trawling sensitive traits included those of filter-feeding ('suspension'), non-mobile ('sessile'), and tube-dwelling benthos. Large-bodied filter feeders attached or lodged in the sediment are considered to be characteristic of undisturbed seabed environments (Bremner et al. 2005), and given their prominent position, are easily impacted by demersal gears (Kaiser et al. 1998, 2000, Sciberras et al. 2018). This is as suspension feeders typically possess fragile feeding appendages, which are vulnerable to physical damage and clogging from sediment resuspension (Jennings & Kaiser 1998). From a functional perspective, filter feeders play an important role in benthic-pelagic coupling (Griffiths et al. 2017), nutrient cycling, and the transfer of organic material into the sediment matrix (Rosenberg 2001, Lohrer et al. 2004). Although mobile fishing gears are known to negatively impact populations of tube-dwelling benthos (Collie et al. 1997, Kenchington et al. 2006, Hinz et al. 2009), few trait-based studies have highlighted tube-dwelling as a sensitive trait at the community level. In our study, unfished sites were characterised by a high biomass of maldanid (e.g. *Rhodine gracilior* and *Maldane sarsi*) and terebellid annelids (e.g. *Anobothrus gracilis*), as well as taxonomically distinct phoronid worms (*Phoronis* spp.). Tube-building fauna typically live at the sediment surface-water interface and are generally slow to recolonise disturbed areas (Bolam & Fernandes 2002). Given that most gradient studies lack unfished sites or true reference conditions (Hiddink et al. 2017), this may mean that densities of tube-builders may remain low even at historically impacted sites, or at relatively low trawling intensity. A potentially important implication of losing these traits from fishing grounds would be that tube-builders are ecosystem engineers, actively modifying their surrounding habitats. Tube-building fauna support increased benthic diversity (Bolam, 1999; Tendal and Dinesen, 2005), improve sediment stability (Noji & Noji 1991, Friedrichs et al. 2000) and conditions for larval settlement (Bolam & Fernandes 2003), and increase food supply for other benthic species (Holte 2001).

Size-separating the KS16 data also provided new insights into how the traits of small-bodied macrofauna respond trawling. While many traits differed in their response to trawling between size fractions, burrow-dwelling, non-mobile ('sessile'), and subsurface deposit feeding ('subsurface deposit') fauna were impacted in both the large and small fractions, as well the KS16 full community. This would suggest that the effects of trawling were equivalent, and not size-dependent, for these traits. While trawling is known to impact size classes <1 mm (Hinz et al. 2008), detecting impacts in communities dominated by small-fauna is often highly challenging (Jennings et al. 2002). The identification of traits which are sensitive to trawling regardless of size may therefore be useful in this regard, and furthermore, may be of relevance to less productive or disturbed systems which support fewer large-bodied fauna. While size-separating the community using a 4 mm mesh size improved the detection of trawling effects in sand dominated areas of the southern North Sea (H. Reiss et al, 2009), and in studies where abundance is used as oppose to biomass (McLaverly et al 2020a), our approach requires further validation and testing across different habitat types and regions.

Given the clear size-based effects observed in this study, our results may have practical implications for the management and monitoring fishing impacts on the seabed. Aside from the classic approach of distinguishing benthos as infauna and epifauna (somewhat a proxy of size), body-size thresholds are not commonly applied in benthic impact assessments. By comparison, the use of thresholds are well established for monitoring the effects of fishing on fish populations (Shin et al. 2005). A well-known example of a body-size threshold is the 'Large Fish Indicator' (LFI). The LFI was first applied in the North Sea to indicate the state of fish stocks, by estimating the proportion of the fish community over a given length threshold (40cm in the North Sea) (Greenstreet et al. 2011). As well as being sensitive to fishing, using a proportion of the community larger than a specific value has the advantage of being easy to communicate and calculate, providing that sampling gear and methodology is consistent (Rice et al. 2012). Accordingly, such approaches have the potential to be particularly useful for benthic community studies, where a single sample may contain thousands of individuals and >100 species. It should be noted, however, that the use of body-size thresholds should be tailored to specific scientific hypothesis, or the goal of a given monitoring program, as information on the whole community may be required for certain studies, such as biodiversity based assessments. Compared to a full community approach, a large amount of ecological information can be potentially lost by size-segregating the community. This is as relatively fewer species are represented by large individuals, and comparatively less information regarding community composition and biodiversity can be conveyed by only the large fauna (Pinto et al. 2009).

The similarity of results between a one-time snapshot survey (KS16 large fraction) and a multi-year monitoring dataset (NOVANA programme) suggests that spatial patterns in large fauna traits are reflective

of long-term or chronic trawling impacts. Due to limitations of resources, practicality, and the relatively short cycles associated with research funding, relationships between ecological units and their environment are most often investigated using snapshot surveys (Fisher et al. 2010). Despite this, ecological communities vary from year-to-year, particularly in dynamic systems, meaning that these surveys can be limited in their ability to overcome this variation. On the other hand, datasets based on larger or longer-lived individuals are potentially less affected by 'noise' caused by inter-annual variations in recruitment (Greenstreet et al. 2011). The biomass-weighted traits of large benthic fauna may represent a feature of benthic communities which are particularly sensitive to trawling impacts, and may be useful as a metric to track and monitor trawling impacts between locations and over time. Furthermore, large fauna represent a relatively small subset of the total community (<25% of the total number of individuals in the KS16 data), and therefore require significantly less laboratory processing times.

5. Perspectives

Trait-based approaches have the advantage of being able to describe the functional and ecological characteristics of benthic communities, and interpret how trawling can alter their structure and composition. Trait information can consequently be used to track and monitor benthic functionality, as well as seabed ecosystem services such as productivity, nutrient cycling, and biodiversity maintenance. In this study, we have demonstrated a size-based sensitivity of several species traits to trawling disturbance, and outlined some of the mechanisms which may underpin their sensitivity. Given the importance of many of these traits in benthic processes, it is likely that the decline or loss of these traits can have considerable implications for the functioning of seabed ecosystems across fishing grounds. In addition, marine ecosystems are currently experiencing considerable changes in local and regional species pools due to e.g. increased human activity and climate change. These aspects together have the potential to alter the functional resilience of seabed ecosystems (Oliver et al. 2015). In light of our results, and as body-size is widely regarded as an ecological driver of ecosystem function (Woodward et al. 2005, J. Reiss et al. 2009), we suggest that greater attention should be paid to size-based methods to meet the requirements of benthic habitat assessments under a fully integrated Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries Management (EAFM). Monitoring ecological systems is often constrained by high ecosystem complexity, and it is therefore crucial to identify and develop methods which effectively distil complex information into metrics of ecological impact and state, which are easy to use, interpret, and communicate. It is hoped that the results of this study can inform future assessments of the ecosystem effects of fishing, using functionally relevant traits that are common across habitat types and geographic areas.

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Supplementary information

See Supplement below.

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