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# Heterogeneous distribution in sediments and dispersal in waters of *Alexandrium minutum* in a semi-enclosed coastal ecosystem

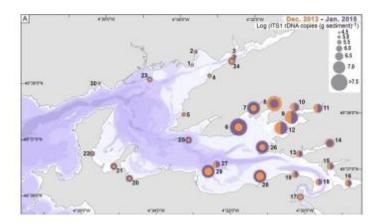
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#### Abstract:

Within the framework of research aimed at using genetic methods to evaluate harmful species distribution and their impact on coastal ecosystems, a portion of the ITS1rDNA of Alexandrium minutum was amplified by real-time PCR from DNA extracts of superficial (1-3 cm) sediments of 30 subtidal and intertidal stations of the Bay of Brest (Brittany, France), during the winters of 2013 and 2015. Cell germinations and rDNA amplifications of A. minutum were obtained for sediments of all sampled stations, demonstrating that the whole bay is currently contaminated by this toxic species. Coherent estimations of ITS1rDNA copy numbers were obtained for the two sampling cruises, supporting the hypothesis of regular accumulation of A. minutum resting stages in the south-eastern, more confined embayments of the study area, where fine-muddy sediments are also more abundant. Higher ITS1rDNA copy numbers were detected in sediments of areas where blooms have been seasonally detected since 2012. This result suggests that specific genetic material estimations in superficial sediments of the bay may be a proxy of the cyst banks of A. minutum. The simulation of particle trajectory analyses by a Lagrangian physical model showed that blooms occurring in the south-eastern part of the bay are disconnected from those of the north-eastern zone. The heterogeneous distribution of A. minutum inferred from both water and sediment suggests the existence of potential barriers for the dispersal of this species in the Bay of Brest and encourages finer analyses at the population level for this species within semi-enclosed coastal ecosystems.

#### **Graphical abstract**



**Keywords**: Molecular ecology; Dinoflagellate cyst; Spatial distribution; Real-time PCR; Lagrangian model; Population dynamics

#### Introduction

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The recovery of resting stages of harmful microalgae in sediment samples and the identification of accumulation sites indicate potential seeding sources for the initiation of blooms (Anderson et al., 2012). Cyst bank mapping is therefore particularly useful for the risk assessment of harmful microalgae, since it enables the prediction of blooming areas and the optimization of the management of coastal economic activities.

The distribution of Alexandrium species in coastal and shelf waters is relatively well known; however, comprehensive distributional data, especially for resting stage banks, are still needed (Anderson et al., 2012). On the basis of the available information, some common features in the distribution of Alexandrium cysts can be identified. Previous studies have reported that cyst accumulations are favored in fine-muddy rather than sandy sediments (White and Lewis, 1982, Kremp, 2000, Yamaguchi et al., 1996, Joyce et al., 2005, Gayoso et al., 2001, Matsuoka et al., 2003, Wang et al., 2004, Anderson et al., 2005, Anglès et al., 2010, Horner et al., 2011, Genovesi et al., 2013, Trikia et al., 2014, Fertouna-Bellakhal et al., 2015), supporting the hypothesis that dinoflagellate resting stages behave physically like fine particles (Dale, 1983). In semi-enclosed, confined ecosystems discrete cyst banks may be found (Anderson et al., 2012). A close link between the local distribution of cyst banks and blooms has been documented for some Alexandrium species in estuaries (Cembella et al., 1988, Crespo et al., 2011, Anderson et al., 2014), lagoons (Genovesi et al., 2009, Genovesi et al., 2013, Trikia et al., 2014, Fertouna-Bellakhal et al., 2015), and harbors (Bravo et al., 2008, Anglès et al. 2010). This local distribution has been associated with the hydrodynamic features of the studied ecosystems. Despite occurring in adjacent waters, local blooms of A. fundyense Balech were temporally separated, probably due to water retention in the first site where the blooms occurred (Crespo et al., 2011). Cyst densities of A. tamarense (Lebour) Balech were influenced by local hydrodynamics, with wind-induced currents causing cyst dispersal in the shallow ecosystem of the Thau lagoon (Genovesi et al., 2013). These examples prove the interest of characterizing discrete, fine spatial scale cyst distributions to deduce local bloom dynamics in semienclosed ecosystems.

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Traditionally, hot spots of harmful microalgae accumulation in sediments are identified by microscopy counting of their cysts (Genovesi et al., 2013), a method that is time-consuming and suffers from taxonomical limitations in identification due to the lack of distinctive morphological characteristics for the cysts of some species. In contrast, the analysis of specific genetic material in sediment has proved to be a valuable alternative to infer cyst distribution, enabling a large number of samples to be processed objectively in a relatively short time. The amplification of species-specific marker genes from DNA preserved in sediment samples has been used to infer the presence of dinoflagellate cysts (Godhe et al., 2002, Penna et al., 2010). Real-time PCR amplification to quantify DNA genes from sediments has been shown to be a good proxy for cyst abundances, including some Alexandrium species (Kamikawa et al., 2007, Erdner et al., 2010, Park and Park, 2010). Lastly, cyst species have been mapped using the fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) technique (Hattenrath-Lehmann et al., 2016). Genetic techniques can therefore be used to provide reliable information on accumulation spots of cysts and to infer ecological patterns. Given the close association between resting cyst abundance and sediment type, high specific DNA abundances should also be found in the corresponding muddy sediments. The DNA extracted from sediments, however, can be of both intercellular (resting stages) (Godhe et al., 2002, Erdner et al., 2010) and extracellular origin (Pietramellara et al., 2009), making the relationship between specific DNA traces and sediment type not completely predictable and still barely studied.

Although the analysis of genetic material in sediment cores showed that *A. minutum* Halim has been present in the Bay of Brest since at least the 19th century (Klouch et al., 2016), the vegetative form of the species was first identified within the framework of the REPHY (*REseau de surveillance et d'observation du PHYtoplankton et des PHYcotoxines*: http://envlit.ifremer.fr/surveillance/phytoplancton\_phycotoxines/presentation) in 1990. The first cyst abundance survey was carried out in the same year and no cyst of *A. minutum* was found in four

estuarine stations of the Bay of Brest (Erard-Le Denn, 1993, Erard-Le Denn and Boulay, 1995). The species abundance increased over time in the bay, reaching the record concentration of ca.  $42 \times 10^6$  cells l<sup>-1</sup> in July 2012 (Chapelle et al., 2015, Klouch et al., 2016) in the small, enclosed Daoulas estuary, where bloom occurrences were unsuspected and monitoring was not carried out. In parallel, other blooms of the species were observed in other estuaries on the bay (Elorn River, Aulne River), but these were of minor importance ( $< 2 \times 10^6$  cells l<sup>-1</sup>). After the 2012 event, monitoring of Daoulas Bay was initiated and seasonal blooms of *A. minutum* are observed in the Daoulas estuary along with blooms of lower cell abundance in other monitored estuaries. The development of different intensities in the Bay of Brest raises questions about the distribution of the major cyst banks of the species and the potential connectivity between its different adjacent estuarine ecosystems.

In this study, both genetic analyses of sediments and model simulations in the water column were used to try to explain the heterogeneity of *A. minutum* bloom occurrence in the Bay of Brest. With a recently developed real-time PCR assay (Klouch et al., 2016), the ITS1rDNA copy number of *A. minutum* from total DNA extracts of superficial sediments was quantified and used to infer the distribution of cyst banks in the area. In parallel, the viability of these banks in the sampled stations was determined in order to verify whether DNA genetic data correspond to viable resting stages of the organisms and not only to the amplification of extracellular DNA. By means of a Lagrangian physical model, passive particle trajectories released from different estuarine zones were simulated in order to study the potential dispersal of *A. minutum* cells of different blooms and the connectivity between different estuaries of the bay. The information gathered on both the benthic and the pelagic habitat contributes to the understanding of *A. minutum* bloom dynamics in the Bay of Brest and provides an example of heterogeneity in the dispersal of toxic microalgae in a semi-enclosed coastal area.

#### **Materials and Methods**

129 Study area

The Bay of Brest (Brittany, France) is a semi-enclosed, marine ecosystem of 180 km<sup>2</sup> connected to the Iroise Sea (Atlantic Ocean) by an opening 1.8 km wide and ~50 m deep (Fig. 1). The bay is a shallow (about half of the total surface area is shallower than 5 m) macrotidal coastal system. The semidiurnal tidal amplitude ranges from 1.2 to 7.3 m (average of 4 m), leading to the presence of extended intertidal flats during low tides. Frequent storms can induce a resuspension of material and a very high turbidity (>100 mg l<sup>-1</sup> of sediments) over a long period of time (Hily et al., 1992). The bay is characterized by fine and coarse sediments in shallow and deep waters, respectively, with a higher proportion of muddy sediments in the upstream part of the estuaries (Hily et al., 1989). The ecosystem hydrology is influenced by 5 different watersheds, with two main rivers, the Aulne (1842) km<sup>2</sup> catchment area, 30 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> interannual mean flow) flowing into the south basin and the Elorn (402 km<sup>2</sup> catchment area, 5.63 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> interannual mean flow) flowing into the north basin, contributing to about 80% of the total annual freshwater input. The total interannual mean flow has stabilized after a four-decade rise, while the anthropogenic loads of nitrogen and phosphorous have stabilized and decreased, respectively. The ban on washing powders containing orthophosphates in the last two decades has resulted in a decreased phosphorous supply and thus a significant imbalance in the N/P ratio (Chauvaud et al., 2000, Guillaud and Bouriel, 2007) which has led to changes in the composition of planktonic and benthic communities (Quéguiner and Tréguer, 1984, Del Amo et al., 1997, Chauvaud et al., 2000).

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#### Sampling strategy

Thirty sites were selected in the Bay of Brest on the basis of available cartographies of sediment typologies and benthic biotopes. Sampled stations correspond to ecosystems where: i) cyst accumulation may be favored by the site geomorphology (estuaries, small bays with low flushing, low bioturbation rates), ii) genetic material could be better preserved (muddy, anoxic sediments), iii) human activities are developed and/or the impact of Harmful Algal Blooms is higher (harbors, shellfish farming areas). Twenty-three stations were located in intertidal zones and seven in subtidal

areas (Table 1). Altogether, the 30 sampled stations cover well the geography of the Bay of Brest (Fig. 1). Samples were collected at low tide  $\pm$  2 hours during two campaigns of 3-5 days, both carried out during the winter of two consecutive years (December 2013 and January 2015). Subtidal stations were sampled by scuba divers. The top 3 cm of sediments was collected in triplicate using plastic syringes at 1-2 m distance from each other. Sediment samples were carefully preserved in different tubes. Samples of DNA were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen then stored at -80°C in the laboratory while samples for cyst germination experiments were preserved in the dark at 4°C. Samples were preserved at 4°C for granulometry, at -80°C for chlorophyll  $\alpha$  and pheopigments, and at -20° for organic carbon (OC).

#### Sediment analyses

Granulometry, chlorophyll *a*, pheopigment and organic carbon (OC) concentrations were determined from samples collected in triplicate at each station. Sediment grain size was analyzed using an LS 200 Beckman Coulter laser granulometer and sediment typologies were classified according to Larsonneur (1977) on the basis of four size classes (0-63, 63-125; 125-500; 500-2000 μm). For chlorophyll and pheopigment concentration measurements, sediment samples were freeze-dried just before extraction and analysis (Reuss and Conley, 2005). Before extraction, the sample was homogenized, and gravel and shell debris were removed. Chlorophyll *a* and pheopigments were extracted from 1 g of sediment with 10 ml of 90% acetone for at least 12 h at 4°C. Supernatants containing the extracted pigments were recovered after sample centrifugation. Chlorophyll *a* and pheopigment concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically at 750 and 665 nm before and after sample acidification with 0.3 N HCl (Lorenzen, 1967, Pusceddu et al., 2003). Sediment samples for OC measurement were ground and homogenized. Organic C was measured using a vario EL-III CNS elementary analyzer after decalcification of a subsample of the freeze-dried and ground sediment with phosphoricacid (Cauwet, 1975). Concentrations were calculated by comparison with

samples of known concentration of organic carbon (acetanilide, sulfanilamide) and analyses were verified with a certified reference sediment sample.

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#### Molecular analyses

Copy numbers of A. minutum ITS1rDNA were measured directly on DNA extracts from sediments using a newly developed real-time qPCR assay (Klouch et al., 2016). Total DNA was extracted from 10 g of sediment material from each triplicate of all stations using the PowerMax soil isolation kit (Mobio Laboratories Inc., Carlsbad, California, USA), following the manufacturer's instructions. Extracts of DNA were eluted in a final volume of 5 ml and immediately stored at -80°C. Samples of DNA were quantified by absorbance measurements using a Take3 trio microplate reader (BioTek, Winooski, Vermont, USA) on 3 µl of DNA extract, and sterile water was used as the blank. The quality of DNA was checked by 260/280 nm ratio to ensure that no contamination by proteins or other components had occurred during DNA extraction. Real-time PCR reactions were carried using primers Am\_48F (5'-TGAGCTGTGGTGGGGTTCC-3') and Am\_148R (5'-GGTCATCAACACAGCAGCA-3') which target a fragment of 100 bp, the optimal amplicon length for real-time PCR efficiency (Klouch et al., 2016). Prior to real-time PCR reactions, a standard curve was constructed by cloning the ITS1rDNA gene from a local culture of A. minutum (A89) into a plasmid (pCR 4) using a TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen, USA). The standard curve was prepared with 10-fold serial dilutions of the plasmid containing the ITS1rDNA sequence of A. minutum and ranged from 10<sup>6</sup> to 10 copies µl<sup>-1</sup>. Real-time PCR (quantitative PCR or qPCR) reactions were performed using the iTaq Universal SYBR Green supermix kit (Bio-Rad) in a final volume of 20 µl. The reaction mixture was composed of 10 µl of SYBR Green supermix (1X) containing (dNTPs, iTaq DNA polymerase, MgCl2, SYBR Green I), 0.3 μM of the forward primer (Am\_48F), 0.2 μM of the reverse primer (Am\_148R), sterile water and 2 μl of DNA template. The experiments were conducted in 96-well plates containing the standard curve dilutions in duplicate, the target samples in triplicate and negative controls composed of water instead of DNA in duplicate. The plates were loaded onto a Stratagene Mxpro3000P (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California, USA) thermal cycler with the following cycling conditions: 1 cycle at 95°C for 5 min followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 5 sec and 62°C for 30 sec. A melting curve analysis was added at the end of each run to ensure specific *A. minutum* amplification. The optimal annealing temperature of 62°C was initially determined in conventional PCR. The primer combination that yielded the lowest threshold cycle value (Ct) and maximum real-time efficiency (Am\_48F; 0.3  $\mu$ M, Am\_148R; 0.2  $\mu$ M) was retained for further analysis. The reaction efficiency was estimated by the equation E= 10 (1/6)-1, where b is the slope of the standard curve. To ensure specific amplifications, the melting temperature values (Tm) were systematically checked by analyzing the melting curves. For further details, see Klouch et al. (2016). Abundances of *A. minutum* in each sample were expressed (assuming a 100% DNA extraction efficiency) in terms of copy number perg of wet sediment, using the following formula: Copy number x g<sup>-1</sup> = copy number  $\mu$ l<sup>-1</sup> x DNA extraction volume ( $\mu$ l)/sediment wet weight (g)

#### Cyst germination experiments

Germination experiments were carried out on samples from the 2013 series. An aliquot of  $\sim$ 5 cm³ of sediment samples was added to filtered seawater and placed in an ultrasonic bath for 6 min to separate dinoflagellate cysts from inorganic particles. The 20-100  $\mu$ m fraction of particles was retained for culturing experiments after sample sieving. Some drops of the 20-100  $\mu$ m sediment fractions were distributed in 12-well plastic plates with K medium (Keller et al., 1987). The plates were placed in a culture room at 16°C, under an irradiance of 60  $\mu$ mol photons m $^{-2}$  s $^{-1}$  and a light: dark cycle of 12 h:12 h. The plates were examined qualitatively once every day to check for *A. minutum* cell germination using an inverted microscope (Zeiss Axiovert 135). Germinated cells of *A. minutum* were identified using morphological characteristics (size, shape, plate arrangement).

Simulation of A. minutum cell trajectories: Lagrangian transport

The MARS3D hydrodynamic model (a detailed description is available in Lazure and Dumas, 2008) was used to study planktonic cell trajectories after bloom development. This numerical code solves

primitive physics equations (e.g. Navier-Stokes under hydrostaticity and Boussinesq assumptions) and is based on a finite difference scheme coupling barotropic and baroclinic modes within a sigmacoordinate framework. For this study, the model was defined for the Bay of Brest with spatial limits ranging between 48.203-48.447 °N and 4.093-4.730 °W, a spatial horizontal resolution of 50 meters and 20 vertical layers. Moreover, the model assumed a wetting and drying capability (intertidal areas), which is mass preserving. The model's bathymetry was provided by the SHOM (French Naval Hydrographic and Oceanographic Service). At its western and southern boundaries, the model was forced for water elevation (tides), water temperature and salinity by another model (Lazure et al., 2009), previously validated for tides and hydrology and simulating the Bay of Biscay and Channel hydrodynamics. Atmospheric forcing (wind and atmospheric pressure) came from the Météo-France AROME model (Seity et al., 2011) which has a temporal resolution of 1 hour and a spatial resolution of 0.025° (roughly 2.4 km). The three major rivers, the Aulne, the Elorn and the Mignonne, were taken into account, and water flows came from the HYDRO database (Governmental Environment Agency). Trajectories of A. minutum cells were computed by the ICHTYOP Lagrangian transport tool (Lett et al., 2008) coupled with the hydrodynamic model of the bay. This tool enables offline simulations of bloom dispersion by calculating fictive particle trajectories based on previously calculated currents. Two simulations were run for years 2014 and 2015. Particles were released at the beginning of June, when Alexandrium bloom conditions were fulfilled according to Chapelle et al. (2015), i.e. when the water temperature was above 15°C and during a neap tide period. Four different starting points were tested: stations 3, 9, 13 and 16 (Fig. 1). At each station, 1,000 passive particles were released in the surface layer within a square stain of 100 m side length. Each particle position was recorded during 10 days of simulations, which is the approximate period before particles are flushed out of the bay. The level of dropping (surface or bottom) was tested but had no significant influence on the results (not shown here). For these simulations, it was also assumed that particles had no buoyancy, no mortality and no growth and that they could not wash up on the coast. Connectivity between the four different release zones was assessed by defining reception areas as

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the geographical limits of the four different estuarine areas: the Elorn estuary (incorporating station 3), the Daoulas estuary (incorporating station 9), the Camfrout estuary (incorporating station 13), and the Aulne estuary (incorporating station 16). Total numbers of particles released at each station and reaching the other three areas were computed. The model also enabled the calculation of the mean total distance covered by particles starting from the different stations as well as the total number of particles remaining in each area by the end of the simulation as a proxy for confinement.

#### Statistical analyses

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to assess relationships between environmental and biological data along a reduced number of axes (ade4 package for R; Dray and Dufour, 2007). Data used in the PCA included the four sediment size fractions (0-63 µm, 63-125 µm, 125-500 µm, 500-2000 µm) and the three biological variables (Chl *a, A. minutum* and total DNA concentration). To reduce the importance of observations with very high values, concentrations of *A. minutum* ITS1rDNA copy number g<sup>-1</sup> sediment were log10 (x+1)-transformed. The PCA result had the same dimension as the dataset, but the first principal components account as much as possible for the data variability. Thus, only the first two axes explaining most of the variance were retained for later interpretations. For graphical representation, PCA results were combined with a cluster analysis performed on environmental and biological variables (complete-linkage clustering, vegan package; Oksanen et al., 2015) to highlight further differences between station groups. A single cutting level (Euclidean distance = 8.2) was selected to obtain major groups of samples. Prior to these analyses, all variables were centered and scaled in order to make them dimensionally homogenous. Finally, the Spearman rank correlation coefficients were calculated between all the environmental and biological variables. All statistical analyses were performed using the R software (R Core Team, 2015).

#### Results

Sediment analyses

The relative magnitude of the granulometric size classes analyzed enabled each sampling site to be classified on the basis of their sediment typology (Supp. Table 1) for the two sampling surveys. Of the 30 sampling stations, 13 were classified as sandy-mud, 6 as mud, 1 as muddy-sand, and 2 as fine sand, coherently for both sampling surveys. For the remaining 8 stations, the granulometric classification varied between the two years, more often due to variations in the percentage of either or both 0-63  $\mu$ m and 125-500  $\mu$ m sediment size fractions.

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#### Quantification of A. minutum in DNA extracts of sediments

Total DNA concentrations extracted from the sediments ranged from 1.95 to 55.20 ng µL<sup>-1</sup> for 2013 samples and from 1.57 to 36.08 ng  $\mu L^{-1}$  for 2015 samples. According to 260/280 nm ratios, the DNA extracts were of sufficient yield and purity to conduct amplification analyses. The reaction efficiencies of real-time PCR amplifications of about 100 bp of the ITS1rDNA of A. minutum ranged from 95 to 99% and the melting temperature values always corresponded to the expected value of 62°C, both results proving the high resolution of the PCR assay performed in this study. The ITS1rDNA copy number varied from 1.63 x  $10^4$  to 5.46 x  $10^7$  copies  $g^{-1}$  sediment in 2013 and from 2.89 x  $10^4$  to 5.47 x 10<sup>7</sup> copies g<sup>-1</sup> sediment in 2015. Local *A. minutum* quantification was very variable between replicates of some stations (the ranges of the standard errors between the three replicates were 3.57  $\times 10^4 - 2.63 \times 10^7$  and  $8.06 \times 10^4 - 2.09 \times 10^7$  copies  $g^{-1}$  sediment in 2013 and 2015, respectively) showing a significant spatial variability for some stations at a very fine spatial scale (1-2 m) (Figs 2A, B). At some stations, one replicate differed from the other two in one sampling year and not in another (stations 1-10, 30), while for other stations the data between replicates were coherent for the two years of analyses (stations 11-19). Stations 16-29 were characterized by higher copy numbers in 2015 (Fig. 2B). Despite this strong intrasite variability, a coherent pattern of copy numbers of ITS1rDNA of A. minutum was identified between the two years. On the whole, both the intertidal (6-19) and subtidal (26-29) stations of the south-eastern part of the Bay of Brest were characterized by higher copy numbers than the subtidal and intertidal stations of the western (20-22, 25, 30) and north-eastern part (1-5, 23-24) of the bay, in both 2013 and 2015. In particular, the intertidal stations within Daoulas Bay (6-12) and the subtidal station outside the bay (26-29) were characterized in both years by higher copy numbers of *A. minutum* ITS1rDNA (Fig. 2A).

#### Germination experiments

Germination of *A. minutum* occurred within the first 10 days of incubation of all (30/30) 2013 sediment samples. No differences (size, shape and swimming behavior) were observed in light microscopy between specimens of different localities. In the light of the 2013 successful germinations, cysts of the species were considered to have settled in all localities of the Bay of Brest and therefore germination experiments were not performed on 2015 sediment samples.

#### Genetic and environmental data correlations

The PCA performed with genetic, sediment granulometry and biological environmental parameters (Figs 3A, B) as well as Spearman correlations between variables (Fig. 3C) showed that *A. minutum* ITS1rDNA copy numbers (labeled *A. minutum* DNA) and total DNA concentrations (labeled Total DNA) were positively correlated with the fine sediment size fraction (labeled 0-63 µm), the Organic Carbon (labeled OC), and chlorophyll *a* (labeled CHL *a*) concentrations (Figs. 3A, C). In particular, *A. minutum* DNA was positively correlated with only fine sediment (0-63 µm) (0.54) and not with coarser sediment types. The 0-63 µm sediment fraction and *A. minutum* DNA were both positively correlated with OC concentration (0.60 and 0.83, respectively) (Fig. 3C). Cluster analysis identified two major groups of stations (differentiated in dark (cluster 1) and light gray (cluster 2) in Fig. 3B). Overall, the analysis separates the south-eastern intertidal and subtidal sampling stations of the Bay of Brest (cluster 2: 6-12, 14-19, 26, 28, 29) where the highest percentages of the fine sediment size fraction (0-63 µm) were associated with the highest concentrations of OC, CHL *a* and genetic material, from the western and north-eastern stations (cluster 1: 1, 3-5, 20-22, 25, 30) where measured values of these variables were lower. Yet, some exceptions to this geographical separation of sampling stations

were highlighted. Eastern stations 13 and 27 were characterized by low correlations and were grouped within cluster 1. On the contrary, the north-eastern station 24 was grouped within cluster 2, showing that the strong association between fine sediment granulometry, OC and CHL  $\alpha$  and A. *minutum* copy number was not exclusive to a part of the Bay of Brest. Stations 2 and 23 had the same number of replicates in both clusters 1 and 2.

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Simulation of particle trajectories in the water

Simulated trajectories and final particle positions after 10 days as a function of the initial release location and the year are shown in Figure 4 A-D as an example for 2015 (2014 simulated trajectories are not shown). Whichever year is considered, 56 to 81% of passive particles remain in the Bay of Brest after 10 days (Table 2). Particles released at Station 9 (Daoulas estuary) show the lowest percentage being flushed out of the Bay of Brest (Fig. 4B, Table 2), whilst particles released at station 3 (Elorn estuary) show the highest percentage (Fig. 4A, Table 2). The model simulations also show that particles released at stations 13 (Fig. 4C) and 16 (Fig. 4D) tend to be transported over greater distances than those released at stations 3 or 9. The Daoulas estuary appears to be the most confined area with 26.5-26.2% (depending on years) of the initial number of particles released at station 9 remaining in that area after 10 days (Table 2). The connectivity table between the four release areas (Table 3) shows similar patterns for 2014 and 2015 simulations. As expected, stations 13 and 16 show a high connectivity with the nearby Daoulas estuary (from 29.7 to 30.7% of the initial released particles). Interestingly, this connectivity seems to be rather one-way (from stations 13 or 16 towards the Daoulas estuary) since very few particles starting from station 9 (Daoulas estuary) reach the Camfrout estuary (0-0.4%) or the Aulne estuary (7.8-8.5%). The Daoulas and Elorn estuaries seem particularly hydrodynamically disconnected with very few particles released at station 9 reaching the Elorn estuary (0.2-0.3%) and similarly from station 3 to the Daoulas estuary (1.2-1.4% of particles). Moreover, after 10 days of simulation, no particle released from station 3 reaches the Camfrout estuary. In the center of the Bay of Brest, particles are well-mixed and come from each releasing station. Overall, the simulations described here demonstrate that the south-east of the bay is quite disconnected from the Elorn estuary, which is the area exporting the highest proportion of particles outside the Bay of Brest, and that the Daoulas estuary is a confined area with little connectivity with the Aulne estuary and even less with the Elorn estuary.

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#### Discussion

Genetic mapping of A. minutum in sediments

In this study, a geographically exhaustive survey of the presence of A.minutum in superficial sediment of the Bay of Brest (Brittany, France) during the winter of two consecutive years (December 2013 and January 2015) is provided. This is not the first screening of A. minutum traces in sediment of the study area. In 1990, no cyst of A. minutum was found in four estuarine stations of the Bay of Brest (Erard-Le Denn et al., 1993, Erard-Le Denn and Boulay, 1995) using cyst identification by light microscopy. Here, real-time PCR amplification of a fragment of the ITS1rDNA of A. minutum from DNA sediment extracts was proposed as an alternative method to cyst quantification. The high proportion of extracellular DNA in the total environmental DNA extracts from sediments (Dell'Anno and Danovaro, 2005) is an important issue to take into account when performing specific DNA quantification in sediments. This problem may lead to misinterpreting the presence of viable material (resting stages) in sediment and bias estimations of cyst abundances. Methods to separate extracellular from intracellular DNA have been developed (Corinaldesi et al., 2005, Alawi et al., 2014, Lever et al., 2015) but, even when this separation has not been directly applied, specific DNA amplifications by PCR methodologies in field sediment samples have been shown to be a good proxy of cyst abundances (Gohde et al., 2002, Erdner et al., 2010, Penna et al., 2010, Klouch et al., 2016), most probably due to the better preservation of DNA material in resting stages (Boere et al., 2011). The number of copies of genomic DNA markers and its variability among strains and growth phase stages in dinoflagellates, including Alexandrium spp. (Galluzzi et al., 2010) and A. minutum in particular (Galluzzi et al., 2004), may also cause a misinterpretation of the exact dinoflagellate cell numbers in field samples when applying real-time PCR analyses. This issue has been discussed in several studies focusing on the efficiency and limitations of the real-time PCR methodology (Gohde et al., 2002, Gohde et al., 2008, Erdner et al., 2010, Galluzzi et al., 2010, Penna et al., 2010) underlining the importance of taking into account this variability when monitoring HAB species. The objective of this work was not to validate the real-time PCR amplifications to estimate exactly the cyst abundances of *A. minutum*, but to map potential accumulation zones in the study area in order to contribute to the understanding of the spatial heterogeneity of bloom dynamics and intensities of *A. minutum* in the estuaries of the Bay of Brest.

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Genetic traces of A. minutum were found in 30 out of 30 sampled stations of the study area. In parallel, successful germination experiments of A. minutum on 2013 sediment samples proved that living resting stages had settled in all stations and that the toxic species currently contaminates the whole Bay of Brest. The reduced interstitial space between fine particles decreases water circulation and can favor the establishment of anoxia in sediments, which are suitable conditions for slowing the digenetic process and preserving organic matter (Genovesi et al., 2013). Therefore, as expected, the organic matter content, chl a and total DNA concentrations were higher in stations characterized by fine sand-muddy sediment typology, as proved for instance by the high correlation value (0.83) obtained between the finest sediment fraction (0-63 μm) and the organic carbon content (Fig. 3). It is acknowledged that Alexandrium cysts behave physically like fine particles and that accumulation spots mostly occur in fine sediment areas (White and Lewis, 1982, Kremps, 2000, Yamaguchi et al., 1996, Joyce et al., 2005, Gayoso et al., 2001, Matsuoka et al., 2003, Wang et al., 2004, Anderson et al., 2005, Anglès et al., 2010, Horner et al., 2011, Genovesi et al., 2013). Consequently, DNA traces of the species should mostly be found in sediments characterized by a large fraction of fine particles. The good positive correlation found between the A. minutum ITS1rDNA amplifications and the 0-63 µm sediment fraction of the sampled stations confirms this hypothesis. Good correlations between ITS1rDNA amplifications and the 0-63 μm sediment fraction were coherent for both 2013 and 2015 samples in stations of the south-eastern part of the Bay of Brest and particularly for stations of the

Daoulas estuary, in areas that were confirmed to be of muddy-fine sediment facies in a recent comprehensive, morpho-sedimentological analysis of the Bay of Brest (Gregoire et al., 2016).

Seasonal blooms of *A. minutum* have been detected in the Daoulas estuary since July 2012, when a massive toxic bloom event (concentrations of 42 x 10<sup>6</sup> cells l<sup>-1</sup>) highlighted the Daoulas area as a new risky zone for toxic blooms of *A. minutum* in the Bay of Brest (Chapelle et al., 2015). Before this event, the Daoulas area was not included in the monitored area of the REPHY observation network; in fact, the toxic species has only recently increased in the area as demonstrated by paleogenetic data from ancient sediment cores of the area (Klouch et al., 2016). As well as Daoulas Bay, blooms of the species occur in other zones of the Bay of Brest, but they have always been of minor intensity (Chapelle et al., 2015). In conclusion, large numbers of copies of the marker gene of *A. minutum* were found in sediments or areas where blooms of higher intensity occur in the plankton. This leads to the suggestion that the Daoulas estuary is probably an accumulation zone of cysts of *A. minutum* in the Bay of Brest, an area which should be carefully monitored for toxic bloom occurrences.

Spatial heterogeneity in sediment and in water

The mapping of the potential accumulation spots of *A. minutum* obtained for December 2013 and January 2015 suggests a non-homogenous distribution of cyst banks within the Bay of Brest, with major accumulation areas in the south-eastern part of the bay. In parallel, the simulation of passive particle trajectories performed with real forcings in potential offspring periods of *A. minutum* (June 2014 and 2015, the summer periods after the wintertime cyst accumulation in 2013 and 2015) suggests a differential dispersal of blooms in the bay. Blooms occurring in the south-eastern Daoulas estuary would be relatively disconnected from those in the north-eastern Elorn estuary, as the connectivity between the two areas is very low (<1.4%). The reasons for this heterogeneity in cyst banks and potential bloom dispersal must be found in the hydrology, geomorphology, and hydrodynamics of the bay.

Previous model simulations have shown that the estuaries of the Bay of Brest are preferential ecosystems for dinoflagellate bloom occurrence because of a sustained nitrogen supply from rivers (Menesguen et al., 2006) and significant estuarine nutrient stocks in sediment (Raimonet et al., 2013) that can be resuspended (Tallberg et al., 2006) and due to low flushing rates in estuaries that allow the development of the bloom (Sourisseau et al., accepted). Despite high nutrient loads, the Bay of Brest seems to be resistant to eutrophication problems due to strong semi-diurnal tidal currents that ensure the water exchange with the continental shelf (Le Pape and Menesguen, 1997, Chavaud et al., 2000). In the shallow estuarine ecosystems of the Bay of Brest, the tide and the wind intensity and direction could promote bottom currents that can influence cyst and sediment distributions as shown in other semi-enclosed ecosystems (e.g. Genovesi et al., 2013, Trikia et al., 2014). Weak bottom currents favor the settlement of fine-muddy (<0.63 µm) sediment and cysts of Alexandrium, which are acknowledged to behave like fine sediment particles (Dale, 1983). Therefore, bottom currents in the Bay of Brest may play a role in promoting the sediment movement and creating permanent superficial deposits of A. minutum in the shallow, peripheral embayments of the southeastern zone of the bay, such as the Daoulas estuary. The specificity of the distribution pattern of A. minutum in sediments of the Bay of Brest remains to be demonstrated. The cysts of different species showed different abundance patterns in the same ecosystem (Park and Park, 2010, Satta et al., 2013, Fertouna-Bellakhal et al., 2014). Therefore, the cysts of other dinoflagellate species might be characterized by a different distribution in the Bay of Brest.

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Sediment resuspension and transport in the water column of the Bay of Brest were analyzed by hydro-sedimentary model simulations. Tide currents would generate higher concentrations of resuspended muddy sediments in the south-eastern estuaries of the bay (the Daoulas and Aulne estuaries) than in the north-eastern estuary (Elorn estuary) (Beudin et al., 2013, Beudin et al., 2014). Tracked suspended mud of the south-eastern estuaries is predicted to be flushed out of the bay, without reaching the Elorn estuary, while the mud of the Elorn estuary is expected to remain and redeposit in the estuarine area without reaching the inner and south-eastern parts of the Bay of

Brest (Beudin et al., 2013, Beudin et al., 2014). In parallel, the simulated particle dispersal trajectories suggest tidal currents coupled with river outflows would trigger current trajectories that cause low exchanges between the north-eastern Elorn estuary and the south-eastern Daoulas, Camfrout and Aulne estuaries. Potential blooms developing in the Elorn estuary would be mostly directly exported out of the bay, whereas blooms developing in each of the south-eastern estuaries would be connected to each other but not to the Elorn estuary. Simulations of both sediment and particle transport suggest that the hydrodynamics of the bay would create barriers for *A. minutum* dispersal. Consequently, there could be low interbreeding between populations of the northern and southern zones of the Bay of Brest. The simulations carried out in this study are based on a physical model that does not include biological variables such as growth, asexual and sexual reproduction and mortality rates. These variables affect the retention time of a bloom and the connectivity between ecosystems and populations of the bay. New model simulations that integrate biological variables and a population genetic approach would complete the information provided by this study, probably supporting the heterogeneity of *A. minutum* dispersal in the Bay of Brest.

#### Conclusions

The successful germination of *A. minutum* from all sampled stations of the Bay of Brest demonstrates that *A. minutum* currently contaminates the whole Bay of Brest. Since in 1990 no cysts were found in estuarine samples of the bay, the information provided in this study contributes to highlighting a relatively recent proliferation of this toxic species in the bay. Higher copy numbers of ITS1rDNA in sediment samples of the Daoulas estuary argue in favor of the possibility that this estuary could be a major accumulation spot of the cysts of *A. minutum*. This distribution pattern could explain the regular occurrence of blooms of higher intensity in this area of the bay. The simulations of particle trajectories demonstrate that the blooms occurring in the north- and south-eastern estuaries of the bay are disconnected and therefore rather independent of each other. This suggests the existence of potential physical barriers to *A. minutum* bloom dispersal and of populations interbreeding in the

bay. Overall, a heterogeneous distribution of *A. minutum* in both sediment and the water column emerge from this study, proving that there may be discrete, localized accumulations of cysts even in a semi-enclosed coastal ecosystem.

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### **Table and Figure Legends**

**Table 1.** List and coordinates of sampling stations. Subtidal stations (23-27) are indicated by a circle.

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Station	Station	
ID	locality	Coordinates (N/W)
1	Polder	48° 23′ 3′′/ 4° 26′ 6′′
2	Moulin Blanc	48° 23' 44''/ 4° 25' 55''
3	Le passage	48° 23' 25''/ 4° 23' 03''
4	Kéraliou	48° 22' 35''/ 4° 24' 41''
5	Caro	48° 20' 28''/ 4° 26' 26''
6	Tinduff	48° 20' 2''/ 4° 22' 03''
7	Moulin Neuf	48° 21' 5"/ 4° 21' 04"
8	Penfoul	48° 21' 25''/ 4° 19' 28''
9	Kersanton	48° 20' 45''/ 4° 18' 2''
10	Lanveur	48° 21' 19''/ 4° 17' 51''
11	Rivière de Daoulas	48° 21' 21''/ 4° 16' 2''
12	Château	48° 20′ 11′′/ 4° 18′ 46′′
13	Moulin Mer	48° 18' 56''/ 4° 17'11''
14	Hôpital Camfrout	48° 19' 37''/ 4° 14' 53''
15	Tibidy	48° 18' 25''/ 4°14' 40''
16	Lanvoy	48° 17' 47''/ 4° 13' 29''
17	Térénez	48° 16' 43''/ 4° 16' 49''
18	Landévennec	48° 17' 34''/ 4° 15' 29''
19	Sillondes Anglais	48° 17' 52''/ 4° 17' 22''
20	Fret	48° 16′ 54′′/ 4° 30′ 13′′
21	Rostellec	48° 17' 27''/ 4° 31' 30''
22	Persuel	48° 18' 1''/ 4° 33' 17''
23 0	Port de Commerce	48° 22' 7''/ 4° 29' 18''
24 0	Le Passage	48° 23' 39''/ 4° 22' 54''
25 0	Auberlac'h	48° 19' 9''/ 4° 25' 53''
26 0	EstTinduff	48° 19' 7''/ 4° 20' 7''
27 0	Lanveoc-Tinduff	48° 18' 2''/ 4° 23' 31''
28 0	Quillien	48° 17' 36''/ 4° 20' 6''
29 0	Ecole Navale	48° 17' 37''/ 4° 24' 6''
30	Sainte Anne	48° 21' 41''/ 2° 33' 13''

**Table 2.** Summary of simulated particle trajectories initiating from four different areas in the Bay of Brest: F stands for the percentage of particles flushed out of the Bay of Brest at the end of the simulation, D is the mean cumulative distance covered by particles until the end of the simulation and A represents the percentage of particles still located in the estuary of release at the end of the simulation (auto-connectivity). The two numbers stand for years 2014 and 2015, respectively.

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Release station	3	9	13	16	
F (%)	43.6 – 37.7	9 – 18.7	29.1 – 30.8	23.5 – 24.2	
<i>D</i> (km)	129.5 – 127.9	114.0 - 114.3	151.1 – 149.7	152.9 - 153.4	
A (%)	9.4 - 8.3	26.5 - 26.2	0 - 0	12.8 - 10.4	

**Table 3.** Connectivity table between releasing stations (3, 9, 13 and 16) and receiving areas (Elorn, Daoulas, Camfrout and Aulne estuaries). Percentage (%) of particles reaching the considered area at least once in 10 days for 2014 and 2015, respectively.

8	7

	Releasing stations			
	St. 3	St. 9	St. 13	St. 16
Elorn estuary area	-	0.3 - 0.2	1.6 – 2.0	2.0 – 0
Daoulas estuary area	1.4 - 1.2	-	29.7 – 28.4	30.7 – 28.0
Camfrout estuary area	0-0	0.4 - 0	-	6.6 - 6.0
Aulne estuary area	1.3 - 1.5	7.8 - 8.5	58.7 – 57.4	-

Figure 1. Map of the Bay of Brest indicating intertidal (stars) and subtidal (circles) sampling stations.

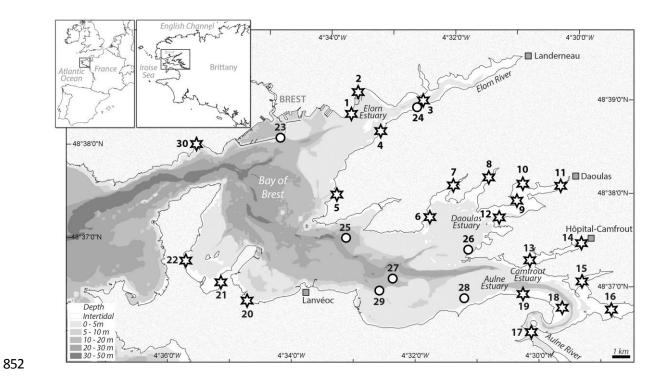


Figure 2: Log10 (x+1) transformed real-time PCR data of *Alexandrium minutum* copy number g<sup>-1</sup> of sediment at the 30 sampled stations during the two surveys (December 2013 and January 2015). A) At each station, colored circles represent the averaged values of copy number concentrations of the three replicates for each annual survey (yellow = December 2013; purple = January 2015). For each station, the highest concentration (larger circle) is in the background and the lowest is represented as a superposed circle. When the concentrations of the two years are of the same order of magnitude, each concentration value is represented by a semi-circle. B) Circles represent replicates for each sampling station and year. The dark gray bar represents the median of the six data values.

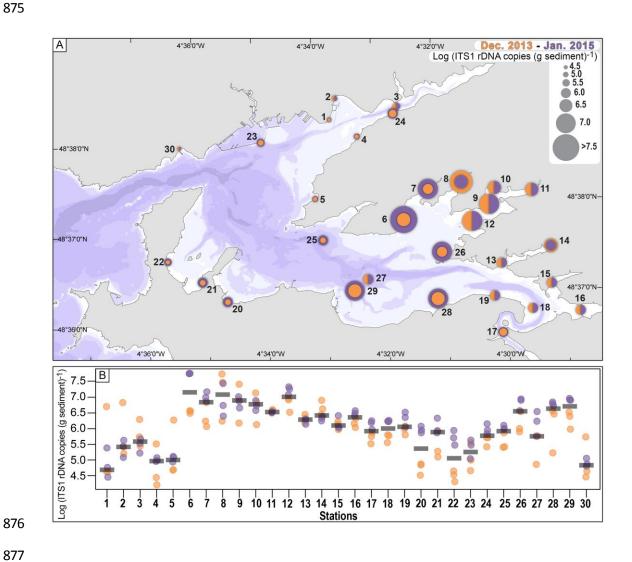
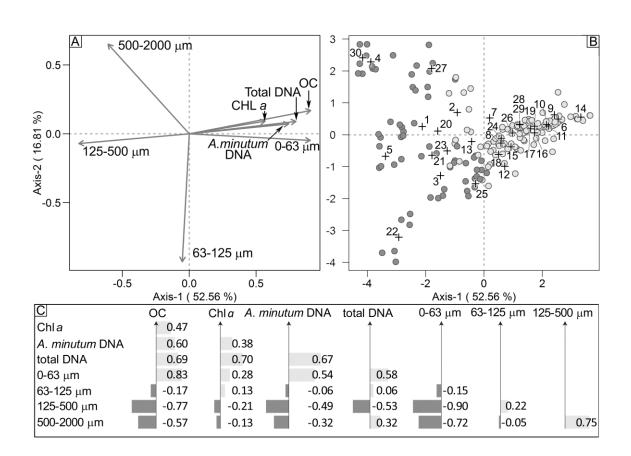
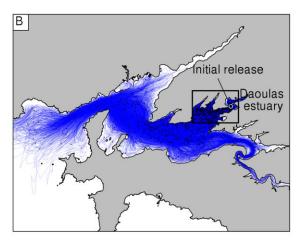


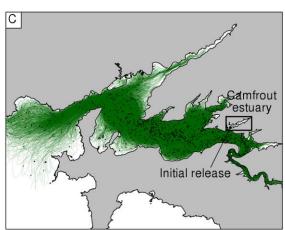
Figure 3. Relationship between environmental parameters (chlorophyll *a*: CHL *a*; organic carbon: OC, sediment size class: 0-63, 63-125, 125-500 and 500-200 μm), ITS1rDNA copy number concentration g<sup>1</sup> of sediment of *Alexandrium minutum* (*A. minutum* DNA) and total DNA concentration (ng/μl) extracted from sediment (Total DNA). A) Projection of variables on the first two axes of the PCA accounting altogether for 69.37% of the total variance. B) Samples (site-year-replicate) scores with overlaid clustering results highlighting the two main sample groups detected by data clustering. Each circle represents a sample replicate; the color differentiates the sample clusters (cluster 1: dark gray and cluster 2: light gray): + symbol corresponds to the gravity center of each group of samples belonging to the same sampling station indicated by its corresponding number. (C) Spearman rank correlation coefficients between all variables. Light gray bars indicate positive correlations and dark gray bars negative correlations.

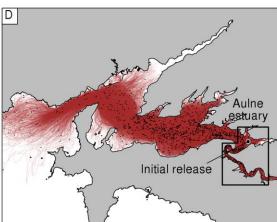


**Figure 4:** Simulated trajectories of 1000 passive particles coming from 4 releasing estuarine stations and reaching delimited estuarine areas: A) station 3 (Elorn estuary); B) station 9 (Daoulas estuary); C) station 13 (Camfrout estuary); D) station 16 (Aulne estuary). Simulation duration is 10 days and final particle positions are given as black dots.

A Initial release Elorn estuary







Id St.	0-63		63-125		125	125-500		500-2000		Classification	
	2013	2015	2013	2015	2013	2015	2013	2015	2013	2015	
1	14.3 ± 7.7	53.8 ± 18.2	16.7 ± 0.9	11.9 ± 2.3	47.9 ± 9.4	20.4 ± 5.4	21.0 ± 2.7	13.9 ± 15.0	Muddy sand	Sandy mud	
2	63.4 ± 4.7	27.4 ± 4.3	14.8 ± 0.6	12.0 ± 1.2	18.0 ± 2.9	24.7 ± 1.3	3.9 ± 2.5	35.9 ± 5.9	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
3	32.5 ± 0.6	40.8 ± 11.6	28.7 ± 0.3	18.1 ± 1.7	33.2 ± 0.9	33.6 ± 10.9	5.6 ± 0.5	7.5 ± 2.9	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
4	4.1 ± 0.7	5.5 ± 2.8	2.7 ± 0.5	2.2 ± 0.8	61.5 ± 1.5	55.0 ± 3.9	31.6 ± 2.3	37.3 ± 5.6	Fine sand	Sandy mud	
5	3.6 ± 0.5	3.5 ± 0.6	17.3 ± 0.3	12.4 ± 4.6	75.6 ± 1.0	81.5 ± 5.3	3.4 ± 1.1	2.5 ± 0.7	Fine sand	Fine sand	
6	81.9 ± 2.9	77.7 ± 5.5	11.2 ± 1.0	11.2 ± 1.6	6.3 ± 1.5	10.0 ± 4.0	0.6 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.3	Mud	Mud	
7	69.6 ± 6.5	35.8 ± 6.6	16.0 ± 2.9	11.9 ± 0.2	12.4 ± 2.5	24.7 ± 4.2	2.0 ± 1.3	27.7 ± 9.9	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
8	61.2 ± 5.4	45.2 ± 6.3	18.9 ± 2.3	15.5 ± 2.1	17.6 ± 3.1	31.0 ± 2.4	2.2 ± 0.8	8.3 ± 3.6	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
9	62.6 ± 5.0	70.0 ± 6.4	11.9 ± 2.0	13.1 ± 1.0	18.9 ± 4.1	15.6 ± 4.7	6.5 ± 3.1	1.4 ± 1.3	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
10	76.0 ± 2.1	70.6 ± 2.2	12.4 ± 0.2	13.5 ± 0	9.8 ± 1.2	14.4 ± 1.7	1.8 ± 0.8	1.5 ± 0.6	Mud	Sandy mud	
11	77.2 ± 1.1	76.5 ± 0.5	13.0 ± 0.4	12.8 ± 0.2	9.1 ± 0.6	9.9 ± 0.3	0.7 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0	Mud	Mud	
12	44.2 ± 3.2	52.5 ± 7.7	25.1 ± 3.3	22.2 ± 2.1	24.4 ± 1.6	22.2 ± 5.6	6.3 ± 2.0	3.0 ± 2.5	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
13	51.1 ± 11.1	36.7 ± 31.8	18.4 ± 1.8	12.7 ± 11.0	25.7 ± 9.5	15.1 ± 13.2	4.8 ± 3.2	2.2 ± 2.0	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
14	80.1 ± 1.4	74.1 ± 1.8	13.0 ± 0.5	13.5 ± 0.2	6.5 ± 1.0	11.6 ± 1.7	0.5 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.7	Mud	Sandy mud	
15	69.6 ± 2.4	65.2 ± 3.5	16.5 ± 1.8	16.9 ± 1.2	12.2 ± 0.5	15.8 ± 2.0	1.6 ± 0.6	2.1 ± 0.8	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
16	70.0 ± 12.7	76.6 ± 0.4	16.2 ± 4.0	12.0 ± 0.5	12.4 ± 7.8	10.4 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.9	1.0 ± 0.3	Sandy mud	Mud	
17	65.3 ± 6.1	64.2 ± 5.7	15.8 ± 1.0	13.5 ± 1.2	14.9 ± 2.9	18.6 ± 5.3	4.0 ± 2.7	3.6 ± 1.3	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
18	54.3 ± 8.5	70.0 ± 3.5	21.8 ± 1.6	15.6 ± 0.4	19.9 ± 6.9	12.9 ± 2.9	3.9 ± 3.2	1.5 ± 0.8	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
19	77.7 ± 2.3	82.1 ± 2.3	12.9 ± 0.4	10.8 ± 0.9	8.4 ± 1.5	6.8 ± 1.1	1.0 ± 0.4	0.3 ± 0.3	Mud	Mud	
20	15.8 ± 7.8	67.4 ± 4.7	9.0 ± 2.0	17.5 ± 2.9	54.0 ± 11.1	14.1 ± 2.1	21.3 ±16.6	1.0 ± 0.3	Muddy sand	Sandy mud	
21	49.8 ± 10.7	10.9 ± 0.9	23.7 ± 2.8	10.1 ± 0.5	23.9 ± 6.8	72.2 ± 0.8	2.5 ±1.1	6.8 ± 2.2	Sandy mud	Muddy sand	
22	7.2 ± 1.1	10.4 ± 1.6	40.5 ± 1.8	31.9 ± 1.1	52.0 ± 2.7	56.5 ± 1.5	0.3 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 1.2	Muddy sand	Muddy sand	
23	57.3 ± 6.8	27.5 ± 24.8	18.2 ± 1.1	12.4 ± 10.8	22.2 ± 3.8	23.3 ± 20.7	2.3 ±2.0	3.5 ± 4.5	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
24	69.1 ± 4.8	81.6 ± 1.1	15.9 ± 0.6	10.7 ± 1.0	12.9 ± 3.0	7.3 ± 0.2	2.1 ±1.4	0.3 ± 0.6	Sandy mud	Mud	
25	63.3 ± 1.0	62.5 ± 1.5	24.9 ± 2.2	23.3 ± 1.6	10.4 ± 0.6	13.1 ± 0.6	1.4 ±1.1	1.1 ± 0.1	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
26	77.4 ± 3.3	81.5 ± 2.6	12.6 ±0.7	11.0 ± 1.5	9.4 ± 2.7	7.5 ± 1.2	0.6 ±0.1	0	Mud	Mud	
27	35.1 ±2.8	32.1 ± 6.6	7.4 ±0.7	7.7 ± 1.4	19.4 ±2.1	25.9 ± 5.2	38.1 ±1.6	34.3 ± 10.5	Sandy mud	Sandy mud	
28	77.7 ± 1.1	81.7 ± 4.0	10.4 ± 0.2	9.8 ± 1.2	11.1 ± 0.7	8.2 ± 2.3	0.9 ± 0.9	0.3 ± 0.6	Mud	Mud	
29	79.4 ± 3.3	84.6 ± 0.7	10.9 ± 1.3	8.9 ± 0.4	8.9± 1.4	6.5 ± 0.6	0.8 ±0.7	0	Mud	Mud	
30		2.6 ± 1.3		4.1 ± 0.9		51.9 ± 6.2		41.4 ± 7.3	-	Fine sand	