

Historical subtidal regime shifts echoed in adjacent intertidal community

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Data availability statement

Data and codes can be found at:

https://github.com/Julien-Beaulieu/GOM_RegimeShift_timeSeries

Conflict of interest disclosure

There are no competing interests to declare

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Abstract

40 Anthropogenic stressors can trigger regime shifts, causing ecosystems to reorganize into new
41 states. Moreover, there is growing evidence of the importance of fluxes (e.g., energy, matter
42 and nutrients) in linking adjacent systems, suggesting that regime shifts within one system may
43 extend to neighbouring systems through cross-ecosystem interactions. However, empirical
44 evidence supporting this hypothesis is lacking. To address this gap, we analyzed over 40 years
45 of community data from intertidal and subtidal ecosystems at Appledore Island in the Gulf of
46 Maine, a region that has experienced multiple subtidal regime shifts. We identified three
47 periods of rapid change in subtidal communities that are coherent with known regime shifts in
48 the region. In the intertidal zone, we found that 58% of island-scale directional changes in
49 community composition exhibited offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts, meaning they
50 started changing during subtidal regime shifts. This pattern was also observed in key intertidal
51 species. We suggest that these offset synchronies may be the result of cross-ecosystem linkages
52 through trophic interactions. Our results support the notion that regime shifts can propagate
53 across ecosystem boundaries, demonstrating the importance of considering adjacent
54 ecosystems as drivers of changes in any ecosystem of interest, and highlighting the need to
55 consider the indirect effects of cross-ecosystem interactions for multiple ecological
56 phenomena.

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70 **Introduction**

71 Regime shifts are abrupt, high amplitude shifts in the physical or ecological components of a
72 system, which cause a transition to an alternative stable state that is difficult or virtually
73 impossible to reverse (Beisner et al. 2003, Scheffer and Carpenter 2003, Lees et al. 2006).
74 Regime shifts can be triggered by natural (e.g., hurricane) or anthropogenic (e.g.,
75 overharvesting) pressures (Genkai-Kato et al. 2012) and can have numerous cascading effects
76 on biodiversity and ecosystem services. Regime shifts are difficult to reverse because they
77 change the dominant positive feedbacks controlling the system in a way that reinforces the new
78 state of the ecosystem even after the initial cause of the shift is removed (Scheffer and
79 Carpenter 2003). Losses of ecosystem services caused by regime shifts can lead to substantial
80 and persistent social and economic consequences, such as through the collapse of fisheries or
81 resource harvesting industries (Scheffer et al. 2001, Scyphers et al. 2019, Janssen et al. 2021,
82 Defeo et al. 2021, Kuzyk et al. 2026). However, the study of regime shifts often requires long-
83 term datasets that are challenging to obtain, as these shifts may be difficult to distinguish from
84 other types of changes, such as cyclic variations or reversible transitions (Biggs et al. 2009,
85 Sundstrom et al. 2017).

86 Regime shifts in one ecosystem may affect adjacent ecosystems through cross-ecosystem
87 interactions (Polis et al. 1997, Rocha et al. 2018, Rocha and Crepin 2023). Cross-ecosystem
88 interactions occur primarily via two mechanisms: 1) transport of matter and biologically
89 available energy or nutrients between systems; and 2) mobile animals that cross systems
90 boundaries and have effects on nutrient cycles or community structure (Krumhansl and
91 Scheibling 2012, Subalusky et al. 2017, Brandt et al. 2024, Cereghetti et al. 2025), often
92 through nutrient excretion or consumption (Scherer-Lorenzen et al., 2022). These cross-
93 ecosystem interactions can influence the dynamics and structure of an ecosystem (e.g., nutrient
94 dynamics and food web structure) and shape their functions (e.g., pollination, Knight et al.,
95 2005 ; metapopulation dynamics, Montagano et al., 2019; and ecosystem metabolism, Gounand

96 et al., 2018). Despite the recognized importance of cross-ecosystem interactions in coupling
97 the ecological dynamics of adjacent ecosystems, few studies to date have examined how
98 temporal shifts in species composition (i.e., regime shifts) within one ecosystem may influence
99 adjacent ecosystems through such linkages (but see Rocha et al., 2018; Rocha & Crepin, 2023).
100 Understanding these dynamics is crucial, as cross-ecosystem interactions may initiate regime
101 shifts in adjacent ecosystems or amplify ecological disturbances by propagating regime shifts
102 to coupled ecosystems (Rocha et al. 2018, Rocha and Crepin 2023).

103 Cross-ecosystem interactions are common between intertidal and nearshore subtidal
104 ecosystems. These adjacent ecosystems are connected by mobile predators such as fish,
105 lobsters and crabs that regularly forage across the intertidal-subtidal boundary (Rilov and
106 David R 2006, Rilov and Schiel 2006, Silva et al. 2008, 2010, 2014, Christie et al. 2020).
107 Predators shape community structure in these ecosystems through top-down control (Pauly et
108 al. 1998, Williams et al. 2004, Peller et al. 2022), and predators have previously been
109 implicated as key players in regime shifts (Daskalov et al. 2007, Steneck et al. 2013).

110 At least three distinct subtidal regime shifts have been identified in the nearshore Gulf of Maine
111 during the past fifty years (Figure 1; Dijkstra et al., 2017; Jackson et al., 2001; Pershing et al.,
112 2015, 2016; Steneck et al., 2013). The first regime shift was driven by the overharvesting of
113 commercial predatory fish such as Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) (Jackson et al. 2001, Myers
114 and Worm 2003). This first regime shift occurred mainly around 1975–1980, but lasted until
115 around 1990 in the Gulf of Maine (Worm and Myers 2002). This fisheries collapse released
116 key benthic species from predation pressure, including green sea urchins (*Strongylocentrotus*
117 *droebachiensis*) (Jackson et al. 2001, Steneck et al. 2013). Abundant sea urchins defoliated
118 kelp beds, causing shifts to urchin barrens between 1975–1990 (Steneck et al. 2013). The
119 second regime shift occurred between 1995–2000 when urchin populations collapsed due to

120 overharvesting, increased predation, and disease outbreaks (Scheibling and Hennigar 1997,
121 Steneck et al. 2013). Urchin declines allowed opportunistic species and non-native macroalgae
122 to establish on the benthos, which facilitated larger invertebrate populations through habitat
123 provisioning (Steneck et al. 2013). The third regime shift, likely driven by ongoing rapid ocean
124 warming (Pershing et al. 2015), occurred around 2010 as non-native filamentous red algae
125 proliferated (Newton et al. 2013, Dijkstra et al. 2017, O'Brien et al. 2018), affecting
126 invertebrates and, indirectly, higher trophic levels (Dijkstra et al. 2017, O'Brien et al. 2018).

127 While changes in the neighbouring intertidal communities have not been explicitly defined,
128 changes in populations and community compositions occurred across the same time period.
129 When comparing shores from the 1970s to those in 2013–2014, Sorte et al., (2017) observed a
130 decrease in Irish moss (*Chondrus crispus*) and blue mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) and an increase in
131 the red alga *Mastocarpus stellatus* and crustose red algae. Petraitis & Dudgeon (2020)
132 documented warming-associated declines in the recruitment of habitat-forming filter feeders
133 (blue mussels, *M. edulis*, and barnacles, *Semibalanus balanoides*), and ocean acidification-
134 linked declines in the abundances of herbivorous gastropods and predatory whelks from 1996
135 to 2012. In addition to climate change, shifts in intertidal community composition may also be
136 attributed to increases in harvesting, hurricane activity, and non-native species (Sorte et al.
137 2017).

138 Here, we use long-term data sets from the Gulf of Maine to examine whether shifts in intertidal
139 communities correspond in time to documented subtidal regime shifts propagation during a 42-
140 year monitoring program. We do so by assessing periods and rates of change in both
141 ecosystems and how they align in time (Figure 2a). We hypothesized that subtidal regime shifts
142 will have cascading effects on intertidal ecosystems, likely through altered trophic interactions
143 propagating through linked food webs. We predict that if intertidal community composition is

144 driven by cross-ecosystem interactions with subtidal communities, then changes in the
145 intertidal community should lag behind those occurring in subtidal ecosystems in an “offset
146 synchrony” pattern (Figure 2b). Alternatively, if intertidal community composition is largely
147 independent of these cross-ecosystem interactions, then changes (not necessarily regime shifts)
148 in intertidal assemblages should occur independently of subtidal transitions, if they occur at all.

149 **Methods**

150 Our study focuses on Appledore Island in the Gulf of Maine (42.987°N, 70.609°W), where
151 intertidal community composition has been monitored annually along permanent vertical
152 transects since 1980, first as part of undergraduate field courses and later as part of a regular
153 sampling program (Shoals Marine Laboratory 2018). To identify the subtidal regime shifts over
154 the whole study period, we used NOAA bottom-trawl survey data from transect within 100 km
155 from Appledore Island. We then identified periods of change in mobile and sessile intertidal
156 communities in each of the five sites distributed around the island before relating the timing of
157 intertidal periods of changes to the subtidal regime shifts.

158 **NOAA Bottom Trawl Communities**

159 To identify the timing of regime shifts in subtidal and pelagic ecosystems of the Gulf of Maine,
160 we analyzed time-series data from sampled fishes and invertebrates as part of the Seasonal
161 Bottom Trawl Surveys conducted by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
162 (Grosslein n.d., Johnston and Sosebee n.d., NOAA 2020). Initiated in 1963, these seasonal
163 surveys follow a standard protocol to provide a harvesting-independent estimate of the
164 abundances and biomasses of key fisheries species (Evans and Stauffer 2004). Each season,
165 tows are conducted at more than 350 transects of different depths spanning the length of the

166 northeastern US Atlantic coast from Cape Hatteras, North Carolina in the south (28.47°N) to
167 the Canadian border in the north (44.52°N). In order to compare temporal changes in the
168 intertidal community to those in the subtidal zone, we used only NOAA transects within 100
169 km of Appledore Island (42.987°N, 70.609°W) with complete survey data from 1980 onwards.
170 With this approach, we selected six total transects: three inshore and three offshore (of a
171 possible 56 total located within the Gulf of Maine; strata 01260, 01270, 01400, 03640, 03650,
172 and 03660). The depth of the six transects selected were 366-549m, 549-732m, 0-27m, 110-
173 183m, 183-366m, and 366-549m. We acknowledge that despite their proximity to Appledore
174 Island, the communities described by the NOAA data may differ from those of the nearshore
175 subtidal zone (e.g., more deep water species). We argue that these data are a more thorough
176 indicator of the state of communities within the Gulf of Maine given their spatial scale and
177 taxonomic diversity in order to characterize system-wide regime shifts (Jackson et al. 2001,
178 Steneck et al. 2013, Pershing et al. 2015, Dijkstra et al. 2017). As a robustness check, we re-
179 analyzed the data using only species sampled in nearshore surveys at 10m depth by the Kelp
180 Ecosystem Ecology Network, and found the same results as analyzing the entire trawl data set
181 with respect to timing of regime shifts (see supplementary material 3).

182 Data from the six NOAA transects were used to detect changes in subtidal community
183 structure. We calculated the total number of individuals for each species captured in each
184 transect at every sampling time. We similarly calculated the species-specific total biomass of
185 all individuals caught in a given transect, season, and year. These values (catch and biomass)
186 were subsequently standardized by sampling effort by dividing the value by the number of
187 samples (“tows”) taken along each transect. Finally, we averaged the standardized effort values
188 from all strata to arrive at season-specific time series for each species included in the dataset.
189 Because data from summer and winter surveys were sparse relative to spring and autumn
190 (summer and winter trawls have only been conducted since 1991 and 1992, respectively), we

191 averaged spring and autumn records for calculating annual effort-standardized catch and
192 biomass.

193 **Intertidal Communities**

194 We divided Appledore Island into five regions that differ in wave exposure: Babb's Cove (BC);
195 North-East Appledore (NE); North-West Appledore (NW); South-East Appledore (SE) and
196 South-West Appledore (SW) (see Byrnes et al. (2024) for classification). A detailed description
197 of the survey methods and timeline of sampling changes can be found in the open access data
198 repository (Shoals Marine Laboratory 2018). Briefly, within each region, permanent transects
199 were surveyed periodically from 1982–2022, for a total of 28 transects around the entire island.
200 Within each transect, replicate 20 x 20 cm quadrats were placed every 0.3 m (1 ft) in elevation
201 from the low to the high intertidal zone. Within quadrats, the presence and/or abundance of all
202 observable species were documented. Mobile organisms were identified to species and counted
203 within each quadrat. The percent cover of sessile organisms was estimated at the canopy and
204 primary cover layers for all species with more than 3% cover. The percent cover used in this
205 study is the sum of values for the two layers in each quadrat such that a species can have more
206 than 100% cover. Organisms were identified to species or else the lowest possible taxonomic
207 resolution possible (e.g., *Fucus* spp., amphipods). The number and length of transects and
208 number of replicate quadrats within each transect surveyed varied among years. Each year,
209 between one and 17 transects (8.3 per year on average), and between one and four replicate
210 quadrats per tide height were sampled.

211 **Statistical analysis**

212 **Subtidal regime shift identification**

213 To identify the timing of subtidal regime shifts in the predator communities surrounding
214 Appledore Island, we used ordination and multivariate generalized additive models (GAMs;
215 Figure 2a). Fitted GAMs provided estimates of interannual community changes, and their
216 derivatives indicated the rate and direction of those changes. Prior to analysis, we aggregated
217 abundances to the genus level and excluded species recorded in fewer than 10 different years
218 to reduce zero inflation (see supplementary material 1 for retained species in this analysis).
219 Second, we performed a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) using Hellinger distance
220 dissimilarity on the NOAA bottom trawl survey effort-corrected biomass data. The PCoA was
221 calculated using the R package `'vegan'` (Oksanen et al. 2020). Next, we performed a time series
222 analysis on the first two ordination axes using Bayesian multivariate Gaussian Generalised
223 Additive Model (GAM) with the three first PCoA axes as dependent variables and year as
224 predictor with a smoothing term. All time series models are listed in Table 1. The first three
225 PCoA axes were used because they all explained significant variation in community
226 composition and had eigenvalues above one. The model was fitted with the `'brms'` package
227 (Bürkner 2018) in R version 4.3.3 (CoreTeam 2020).

228 Proper identification of regime shifts is difficult as it requires demonstrating rapid and
229 substantial changes in the community, in addition to the establishment of an alternative stable
230 state (Scheffer and Carpenter 2003) and often an increase in variance and autocorrelation
231 preceding the shift (Dakos et al. 2012, Guttal et al. 2013). In this study system, drastic changes
232 in the subtidal community have been previously defined as regime shifts (Jackson et al. 2001,
233 Steneck et al. 2013, Pershing et al. 2015, Dijkstra et al. 2017). Consequently, we define subtidal
234 regime shifts as the periods of time when the rate of community change is at its highest while
235 transitioning from one extreme to another (i.e., the maximum of the first derivative of the curve)
236 (Figure 2a). To identify the timing of the subtidal regime shifts, we calculated the derivative
237 (i.e., rate of change) of 1000 draws of the posterior prediction of the time series for subtidal

238 community PCoA axis one and two using forward difference. The regime shift interval was
239 identified as the period during which 95% of the derivatives of those 1000 draws were maximal
240 or minimal (Figure 1a).

241 **Timing of the changes in the intertidal community**

242 To identify periods of change in intertidal communities, we again used PCoA and GAMs to
243 estimate the magnitude of interannual community changes. First, we made one PCoA for
244 sessile organisms and one PCoA for mobile organisms using Hellinger dissimilarity for each
245 quadrat. Species present in less than 2.5% of the intertidal quadrats over the entire sampling
246 period were removed from those analyses to reduce zero-inflation. Next, we used two separate
247 multivariate hierarchical GAMs (HGAMs) for change analysis in sessile and mobile intertidal
248 communities on the first three axes of the PCoA. All time series models are listed in Table 1.
249 We accounted for spatial variability in these time series—both within and among transects—
250 by including tide height as a smoothing term and a random intercept for each transect. We used
251 leave-one-out cross-validation (LooIC) to select between models with different structures for
252 time effects: 1) a shared temporal trend and similar smoothness between site; 2) a shared trend
253 and different smoothness between sites; and 3) different trends and smoothness between sites
254 (Pedersen et al. 2019). For all of the following analyses, the model with different trends and
255 smoothness between sites (model 3 above) was selected (Table 1).

256 Because some taxa were numerically dominant and/or participate in key trophic interactions
257 linking intertidal and subtidal communities, we generated additional time series for eleven focal
258 taxa : *Amphipoda*; *Isopoda*; *Mytilus edulis*; *Semibalanus balanoides*; *Nucella lapillus*; *Littorina*
259 *spp.*; *Carcinus maenas*; *Mastocarpus stellatus*; *Fucus spp.*; *Chondrus crispus*; and
260 *Ascophyllum nodosum*. We used the same GAM formulation to generate focal taxa time series
261 data, accounting for spatial heterogeneity across different transects by including transect ID as
262 a random intercept and across different intertidal heights using a smoothing term. We also

263 allowed different trends and smoothness between sites. We modeled mobile species with count
264 data using the zero-inflated negative binomial distribution. The exception was *Littorina* spp.,
265 for which we used a zero-inflated Poisson distribution, as these data were not overdispersed.
266 We modelled percent cover of sessile invertebrates using the zero-inflated beta distribution,
267 and algae were modeled with gamma hurdle distribution. All priors were non-informative and
268 weakly regularizing (see supplementary material 7).

269 **Comparison of Subtidal and Intertidal Periods of Change**

270 To test whether regime shifts from the subtidal zone propagated to the intertidal zone, we
271 identified periods of changes in subtidal and intertidal communities as changes in temporal
272 trend direction (second derivative different from zero) of the previously described time series
273 models. A useful framework to assess whether or not a time series influences another is Granger
274 causality (Granger 1969). However, this approach requires high data frequency and linear
275 causal relationships (Maziarz 2015), which are lacking here. Instead, we compared the timing
276 of changes in temporal trends in intertidal community composition over time with the timing
277 of subtidal community changes. We assumed that if intertidal communities are influenced by
278 trophic interactions with subtidal predators, subtidal regime shifts will lead to corresponding
279 intertidal shifts beginning when the rate of subtidal change is at its maximum. (Figures 2a–b).
280 Changes in the temporal trend direction (forming an “elbow” shape) can be quantified using
281 the second derivative, with a second derivative significantly different than zero implying a shift
282 in trend direction. A non-zero second derivative of the intertidal community during a subtidal
283 regime shift therefore indicates that intertidal community composition begins to change at the
284 same time as the subtidal regime shift occurs, implying cross-ecosystem interactions. We
285 expect that intertidal community change will not be synchronous with subtidal regime shifts,
286 but delayed, as the intertidal community starts changing when the changes in the subtidal
287 community are occurring most rapidly. This pattern—hereafter referred to as offset

288 synchrony—indicates a potential propagation of the subtidal regime shift to the intertidal
289 system and corresponds to the concept of Granger causality, wherein changes in one ecosystem
290 precede and potentially influence another ecosystem. Offset synchrony is also coherent with
291 our hypothesis of regime shift propagation through altered trophic interactions between the
292 subtidal and intertidal zones, as changes in abundance due to trophic interactions inherently
293 includes a lag in time (Wangersky 1978).

294 To identify shifts in trend direction, we calculated the second derivative for each intertidal time
295 series using the central difference method across 1000 posterior predictive draws. This included
296 site by species combinations where a significant interaction between the two factors was
297 detected. Changes in the second derivative that were completely asynchronous with a subtidal
298 regime shift were attributed to variables unrelated to the subtidal regime shift. Finally, as the
299 intertidal and subtidal community compositions were quantified using Hellinger dissimilarity,
300 the magnitude of the changes in community composition over time can therefore be compared
301 by looking directly at the magnitude of changes over time.

302 **Results**

303 **Subtidal regime shift identification**

304 Subtidal community composition around Appledore Island (i.e., pelagic and benthic fishes and
305 invertebrates from the NOAA trawl survey) was nonstationary over the 40-year period, as
306 demonstrated by constant change on the first or the second ordination axes (Figure 3). Rates of
307 community change were also variable through time, with the first derivative (slope) reaching a
308 maximum around the year 2000 on the first ordination axis, and around 1990 and 2010 on the
309 second axis (Figure 3, supplementary material 2). For the remainder of this study, we
310 considered these periods of particularly fast changes in community composition in 1990, 2000

311 and 2010 as the first, second, and third subtidal regime shifts (see Supplementary Figures S1
312 and S4). Driven by the first regime shift (~1990), the subtidal predator community changed on
313 the second ordination axis from an assemblage characterized by a higher abundance of large
314 predatory and benthic invertivore fish (e.g., *Gadus morua*, *Pollachius virens*, and *Cyclopterus*
315 *lumpus*) to one characterized by invertebrates (e.g., crabs, shrimps, squid)(Figure 3, Tables S1
316 and S2). This trend was reversed ~20 years later during the third regime shift (~2010), when
317 predatory fish again became more abundant. The second regime shift (~2000) drove a change
318 from a community characterized by a higher abundance of large vertebrate and invertebrate
319 predators (e.g., *Lumpenus spp*, *Scomber scombrus*, *Brosme brosme*, *Cancer spp.* crabs and
320 *Lithodes maja*), to a community characterized by a high abundance of invertebrates (e.g.,
321 *Bathypolypus arcticus*, *Maurolicus weitzmani*, *Sepiolidae*, *Lycenchelys verrilli*, *Lebbeus*
322 *polaris*, *Pontophilus norvegicus* and *Spirontocaris liljeborgii*) and barndoor skate (*Dipturus*
323 *laevis*)(Figure 3 and S1).

324 **Comparison of Intertidal and Subtidal Regime Shifts and Changes in Intertidal** 325 **Communities**

326 **Mobile invertebrate intertidal community**

327 The composition of the intertidal mobile invertebrate community changed through time across
328 all sites (Figure 4) on the first and third ordination axis. We identified 10 changes in the second
329 derivative of the mobile intertidal community, 4 of which displayed offset synchrony with the
330 three subtidal regime shifts (Figure 4, Supplementary Material 6, and a table with all the second
331 derivative values for each regime shift is available in the data repository hereafter referred to
332 as repository table). Moreover, all six intertidal mobile invertebrate genera that we analyzed
333 exhibited changes corresponding to offset synchrony with the subtidal regime shifts (Figure 5,
334 Supplementary Material 6, repository table).

335 The offset synchrony varied across species and sites, with a tendency for the focal taxa to
336 exhibit a more offset response at the SE Appledore site (figure 5). However, spatial variation
337 (i.e., intertidal height and site) was the primary factor shaping the intertidal mobile organism
338 community, which varied between higher intertidal communities characterized by a low
339 abundance of mobile organisms and lower intertidal communities characterized by a higher
340 abundance of *Nucella*, *Amphipoda* and *Littorina* on the first two ordination axis (Figure S3).
341 However, accounting for spatial variation allowed us to isolate temporal trends (Figure 4,
342 Supplementary Material 4).

343 The magnitude of island-wide shifts in species composition, measured in Hellinger distance,
344 were less pronounced in the intertidal community than in the subtidal community over the study
345 period. Intertidal community changes ranged between -0.1 to 0.1 on the first axis and -0.2 and
346 0.2 on the second axis, approximately five to ten times smaller than changes in the subtidal
347 community (-1 to 1 on both axes) (Figures 3, 4).

348 **Sessile intertidal community**

349 We identified two changes in the sessile intertidal community, both along the first ordination
350 axis (Figure 6). Island-wide shifts in the intertidal sessile community composition showed
351 offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts along the first ordination axis in 1990, but not in
352 2000 nor 2010 (Figure 6, Supplementary Material 6). No corresponding changes were detected
353 on the second or third ordination axes. Of the five focal sessile organisms analyzed, four
354 displayed some level of offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts (*S. balanoides*, *C. crispus*,
355 *M. stellatus* and *Fucus* spp.), especially for *S. balanoides* and *C. crispus* (Figure 5,
356 Supplementary Material 6). Similar to the intertidal mobile invertebrate community, the sessile
357 community was mainly influenced by spatial variation in intertidal height and site, and
358 accounting for this variation allowed us to distinguish temporal trends.

359 **Long-term community changes in the intertidal zone**

360 Overall, 58% (7/12) of the periods of changes in both sessile and mobile whole intertidal
361 communities (i.e., number of times the second derivative differed from zero) corresponded to
362 offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts (Figure 4, 6, Supplementary material 6, repository
363 table). However, both sessile and mobile intertidal communities also tended to have changes
364 starting around 2005 until the end of the study period that were asynchronous with the
365 identified subtidal regime shifts (Figures 4, 6), although these changes were not significant
366 (second derivative overlapping with zero, Figure S5). Similar patterns were observed for many
367 focal taxa that decreased in abundance post-2005 in some sites: *C. crispus*; *M. edulis*; *N.*
368 *lapillus*; and amphipods, although their abundance started decreasing at the beginning of the
369 study (1980). At the same time, there was an increase in *Fucus sp.* presence. These changes
370 lasted until the end of the study period, although the mobile invertebrate community began to
371 stabilize towards 2020 (Figure 4, Supplementary material 6). There were also variable changes
372 in abundance over time for *C. crispus*, *Fucus* spp. and *Littorina* spp. around 1995 that did not
373 overlap with any subtidal regime shifts, but these changes were short-lived, and a subsequent
374 abundance change in 2000 occurred in offset synchrony with the second subtidal regime shift
375 (Supplementary Material 6).

376 **Discussion**

377 Regime shifts are often examined in isolation within individual habitats, limiting our
378 understanding of how a shift in one habitat may influence shifts in others. In our analyses of a
379 42-year dataset of subtidal and intertidal ecosystems in the Gulf of Maine, we found that 58%
380 of the changes in intertidal communities (at the island and community wide scale) were in
381 offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts, and thus could be due to cross-ecosystem

382 interactions by species that move between both ecosystems. These findings reveal that there is
383 offset synchrony in regime shifts between intertidal and subtidal communities, a pattern that
384 was consistent across three distinct regime shifts and among key intertidal species. Regardless
385 of mechanism, this pattern suggests that species interactions are capable of propagating change
386 between subtidal and intertidal ecosystems. The remaining 42% of directional changes in
387 intertidal community composition were mainly long-term (~20 years) starting around 2005 and
388 correspond to expected consequences of climate change on intertidal communities rather than
389 linkages to the subtidal community (Passarelli et al. 2017, Petraitis and Dudgeon 2020).

390 **Subtidal regime shifts identification**

391 We identified three periods of rapid change in the subtidal community composition since 1980
392 in the Appledore Island area. These changes correspond with previous benthic and pelagic
393 documented regime shifts (Jackson et al. 2001, Steneck et al. 2013, Pershing et al. 2015,
394 Dijkstra et al. 2017). The first regime shift, detected around 1990, is attributed to the collapse
395 of larger fish due to overharvesting (Jackson et al. 2001, Myers and Worm 2003). Despite the
396 fisheries collapse between 1970 and 1980, there was a second smaller collapse between 1980
397 and 1990 in the Gulf of Maine (Worm and Myers 2002). The second regime shift, detected
398 around 2000, aligns well with the collapse of urchins and the rise of invasive macroalgae as the
399 ecosystem reorganized (Steneck et al. 2013, Dijkstra et al. 2017). While we used trawl data to
400 characterize regime shifts, these shifts were likely felt in multiple parts of the system, and our
401 analysis of the subtidal community when selecting only species commonly present in the
402 nearshore subtidal zone of AppledoreIsland shows the same result (Supplementary material 3).
403 The third subtidal regime shift, detected around 2010, appears to coincide with the introduction
404 and proliferation of exotic filamentous red algae (Dijkstra et al. 2017) and warming oceans
405 (Pershing et al. 2015, Greene 2016, Bianchi et al. 2023).

406 By using multivariate approaches for whole-community analyses, we found that the subtidal
407 community composition has experienced continuous change over the last 40 years. Some
408 components of the community had periods of relative stability, but consistent structural
409 changes over this period suggest stressors occurred at a greater frequency than the ability of
410 the community to stabilize. The absence of a stable state points towards the need to promote
411 ecosystem resilience in the Gulf of Maine in the face of ongoing changes in climate (Caddy
412 and Seijo 2005). Within dynamic communities there is growing evidence of the importance of
413 ecosystem-based- (Curtin and Pallezo 2010) and adaptive management approaches (Williams
414 2011) for bolstering ecosystem resilience to external perturbations (DeYoung et al. 2008, Pace
415 et al. 2015) and prevent new regime shifts as anthropogenic stressors erode ecosystem
416 resilience (DeYoung et al. 2008).

417 **Regime shift propagation and changes in intertidal** 418 **communities**

419 We identified changes in the intertidal community that occurred both independently and in
420 offset synchrony with the changes to the subtidal community, offering support for the idea of
421 propagation of regime shifts between ecosystems. However, all three periods of change in the
422 subtidal community were followed by changes in intertidal community composition, which
423 were smaller in magnitude but may reflect a change in top-down trophic pressure from the
424 subtidal to the intertidal zone. The smaller magnitude of these shifts may be attributed to
425 stabilizing interactions, which can dampen the effects of subtidal regime shifts as they cross
426 ecosystem boundaries (Gladstone-Gallagher et al. 2023), or higher spatial heterogeneity in the
427 intertidal zone, which can promote stability by increasing overall richness and providing a
428 range of refugia (Oliver et al. 2015). Whether these changes in the intertidal zone constitute
429 regime shifts or not is beyond the scope of this study. Formal identification of regime shifts
430 requires showing fast and major changes (as here) in addition to the reach of an alternative

431 stable state, which is often accompanied by an increase in variance and autocorrelation before
432 the shift, or multimodal relationships with control factors (Scheffer and Carpenter 2003). While
433 we observed substantial shifts in intertidal community composition, the reversibility of the
434 changes is impossible to determine with the data available, the temporal frequency of the data
435 is too low and the sampling effort too variable to assess changes in autocorrelation and
436 variance, and the drivers for each period of change in the intertidal zone are too uncertain to
437 test multimodality.

438 **Potential mechanism for regime shifts propagation from the subtidal to the** 439 **intertidal zone**

440 We identified offset synchrony between the intertidal and the subtidal communities for all three
441 subtidal regime shifts at both the whole island and community scale, although the sites and
442 species impacted differed. While our data does not address specific interactions that would
443 cause the shifts *per se*, based on the natural history of the system and cross-correlations in
444 species abundances, we hypothesize that the propagation of subtidal regime shifts to the
445 intertidal ecosystem is through cascading consequences of changes in cross-ecosystem top-
446 down regulation (supplementary material 8). We identified 60 subtidal consumer species
447 present around Appledore Island that feed on taxa identified in the intertidal zone (Fig. S92).
448 Among those 60 consumers, 39 were identified to be impacted by one or two subtidal regime
449 shifts based on the ordinations and subtidal time series (Fig. S92). Of those 39 species' biomass,
450 31 were negatively cross-correlated with the abundance of some of their intertidal prey
451 (suggesting top-down regulation) and impacted by the same regime shift at one or more sites.
452 Yet, among those 31 species potentially linking the subtidal to the intertidal, six were detected
453 in the nearshore subtidal zone during a visual survey between 2014 and 2018 and their
454 predation on intertidal organisms could have cascaded through intertidal food webs and altered

455 grazing dynamics (Lubchenco 1978, 1980, Ellis et al. 2007). Foreexample, *Cancer borealis* is a
456 known top-down regulator of intertidal communities at Appledore Island (Ellis et al. 2007), but
457 the impact of the five other species (*Homarus americanus*, *Pollachius virens*,
458 *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, *Tautoglabrus adspersus* and *Urophycis regia*) on intertidal
459 communities is untested, partly because intertidal surveys are being done at low tide. However,
460 as communities from shallow subtidal and deeper subtidal zones differ, the offshore NOAA
461 bottom trawl surveys may not capture all nearshore species that contribute to trophic linkages
462 by foraging in the intertidal zone.

463 We acknowledge that cross-ecosystem linkage through trophic interactions in this article
464 remains speculative. We also acknowledge that some intertidal community change could result
465 from effects that are confounded with subtidal changes, qualities inherent to any time series
466 analysis. However, our finding of offset synchrony in intertidal communities across all three
467 subtidal regime shifts, combined with our knowledge of the ecological relationships between
468 subtidal and intertidal species, provides compelling circumstantial evidence that subtidal
469 regime shifts are influencing adjacent intertidal ecosystems. Our findings suggest that further
470 investigations of the impacts of regime shifts on adjacent ecosystems, particularly the
471 mechanisms by which those impacts propagate, are worthy of investigation.

472 **Independent changes in the intertidal communities**

473 Many (42%) of the changes in direction of the intertidal community composition at the island-
474 and community-wide scales did not correspond to offset synchrony with subtidal regime shifts.
475 These longer-term tendencies are coherent with the expected consequences of climate change,
476 as we have seen an increase in warm-affinity species and a decrease in cold-affinity species on
477 Appledore Island (Lawlor et al. 2026). Here, we found a general tendency for change starting
478 around 2005 that lasted until the end of the study period in sessile and mobile communities.

479 These changes include a decreased abundance of many key intertidal taxa (*C. crispus*, *M.*
480 *edulis*, Amphipoda, and *Nucella sp.*), all of which are likely negatively impacted by increasing
481 temperatures, either in their adult stage (Khan et al. 2018), as planktonic larvae (Petraitis and
482 Dudgeon 2020), or indirectly through increased susceptibility to parasites (Lavaniegos and
483 Ohman 1998, Mouritsen et al. 2005). Other abiotic factors including acidity and salinity may
484 contribute to declines in *Nucella* and Amphipoda (Passarelli et al. 2017, Petraitis and Dudgeon
485 2020). The reduction in *M. edulis* may also be attributable to the increased abundance of
486 predatory *Cancer borealis* (Ellis et al. 2007), from 2005 to the end of the study period.

487 **Conclusion**

488 The propagation of regime shifts has been theorized (Rocha et al. 2018, Rocha and Crepin
489 2023) but empirical evidence has been lacking. Our results offer some support for cross-
490 ecosystem interactions between subtidal and intertidal systems, wherein all major community
491 changes in the subtidal zone were followed by corresponding changes in the intertidal zone,
492 and abundance of subtidal consumers was negatively cross-correlated with abundance of their
493 intertidal prey. Propagation of regime shifts from subtidal to intertidal ecosystems is plausible
494 due to top-down control from subtidal predators feeding in the intertidal zone at high tide (Rilov
495 and David R 2006, Rilov and Schiel 2006, Silva et al. 2008, 2010, 2014, Christie et al. 2020).
496 Importantly, through our analyses we were able to distinguish between changes in intertidal
497 communities that are likely attributable to subtidal regime shifts, and changes that are likely
498 attributable to other causes, particularly climate change. This result demonstrates the broad
499 importance of considering community regime shifts in adjacent ecosystems as putative drivers
500 of change in any ecosystem of interest and a renewed need to consider the indirect effects of
501 cross-ecosystem interactions for multiple ecological phenomena.

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510 **Author contribution**

511 All authors played a role in Conceptualization (supporting), Writing - Review & Editing
512 (supporting). JEKB, JBB and EKB participated in Project Administration. JEKB also played a
513 role in Formal Analysis (supporting), and Funding Acquisition. JEKB, JAD and KB had a role
514 in Supervision. JB did conceptualization (lead), formal analysis (lead), visualization (lead),
515 writing - original draft (lead).

516 **Conflict of interest**

517 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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757 Tables

758 **Table 1:** Models ran and their performance. The GS model is a model with a shared trend and similar
 759 smoothness between sites, the GI model has a shared trend and different smoothness between sites, and
 760 the I model has different trends and smoothness between sites.

Variable	Model type	looIC	Bayes R ²
Subtidal predators community	-	30.5	0.83
Sessile community	GS	28084.9	0.55
Sessile community	GI	18803.5	0.55
Sessile community	I	18826.0	0.55
Mobile community	GS	19593.5	0.16
Mobile community	GI	19553.8	0.17
Mobile community	I	19659.9	0.16
Ascophyllum	I	12594.4	0.52
Chondrus	I	20301.6	0.50
C. maenas	I	3632.0	0.13
Fucus	I	48214.2	0.31
Littorina	I	114252.1	0.11
Mastocarpus	I	17553.3	0.36
Mytilus	I	9067.3	0.38
Nucella	I	16017.7	0.30
Semibalanus	I	8689.5	0.39
Amphipoda	I	77154.3	0.16
Isopoda	I	11816.8	0.42

762 **Figure captions**

763 **Figure 1.** Timeline of subtidal regime shifts within the Gulf of Maine since 1980 based on
764 Dijkstra et al. (2017); Pershing et al. (2015); Petraitis & Dudgeon (2020); Steneck & Wahle
765 (2013).

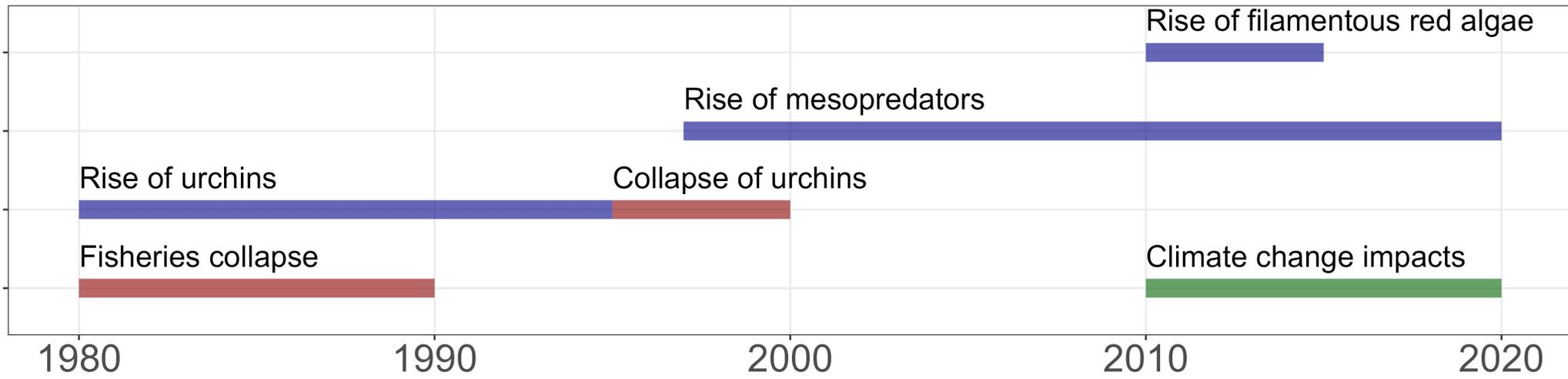
766 **Figure 2.** Illustrated hypotheses and timing of regime shifts within the Gulf of Maine. a) a
767 hypothetical temporal trend with the corresponding first and second derivatives. b) conceptual
768 figure of the hypothesis of where the subtidal regime shifts impact the intertidal community
769 and the alternative hypothesis where the changes in intertidal community are the result of the
770 direct effects of a stressor on the intertidal.

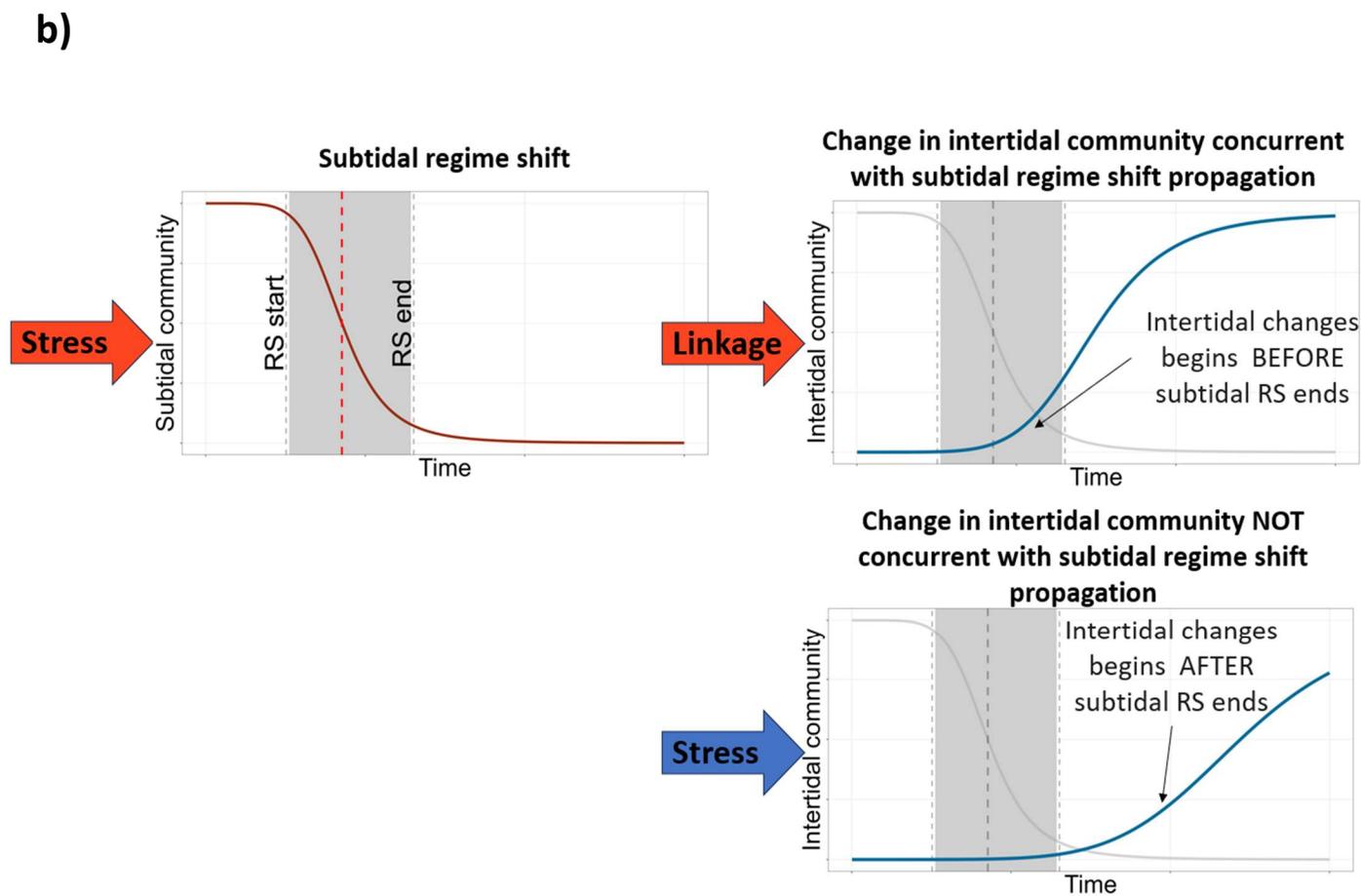
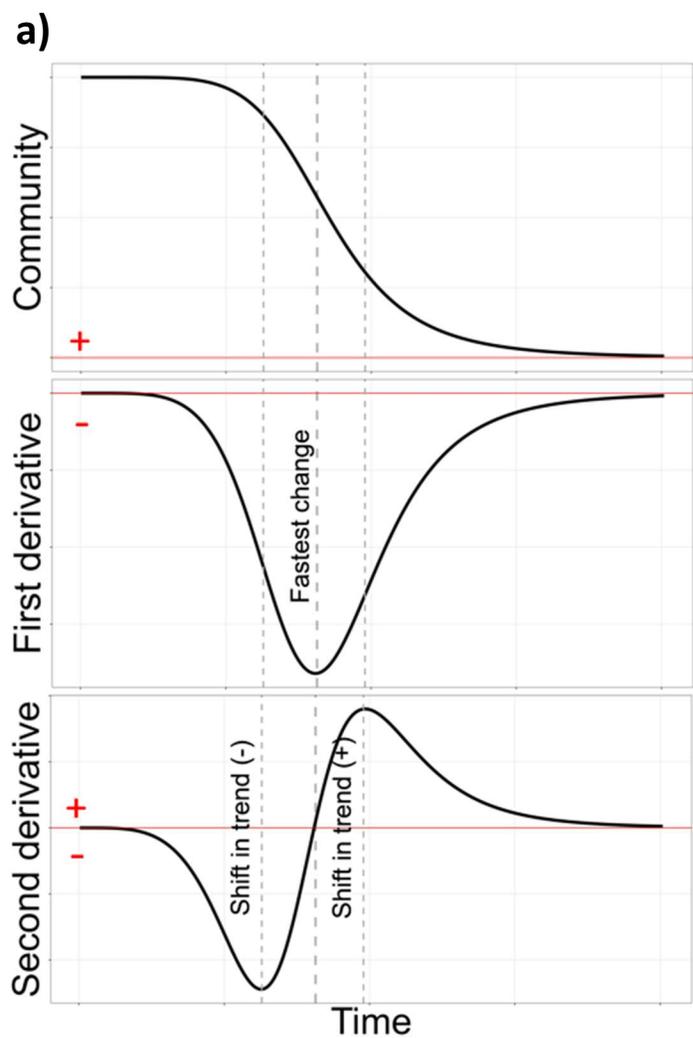
771 **Figure 3.** Changes in the subtidal predator community through time, as shown through PCoA
772 axes. The first ordination axis is in (a), and the second ordination axis is in (b). The shaded area
773 represents the 95% credible interval of the centered posterior predicted trends (without the
774 intercept). The red dashed lines represent the moments when the rate of change was particularly
775 fast (regime shifts) and the red shaded area around this line represents its 95% credible interval.

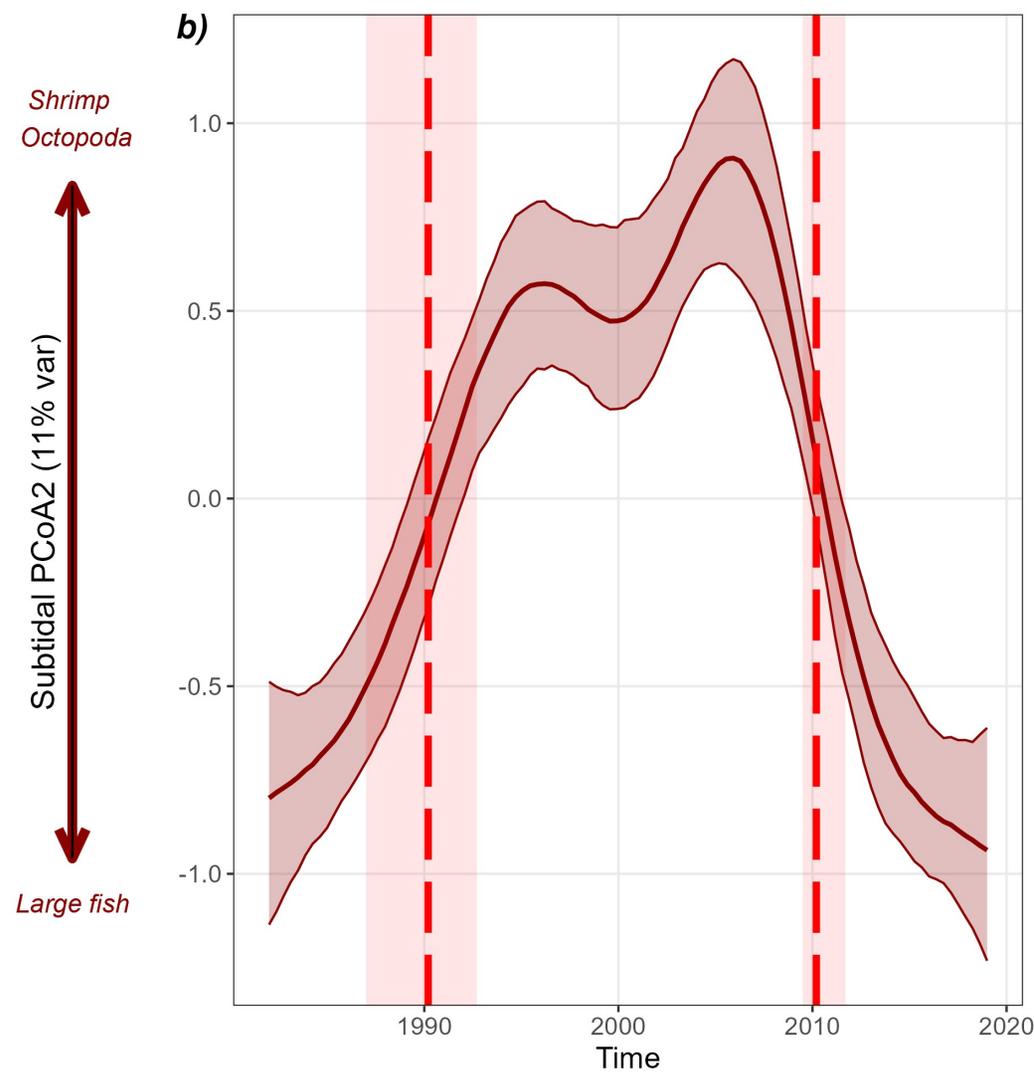
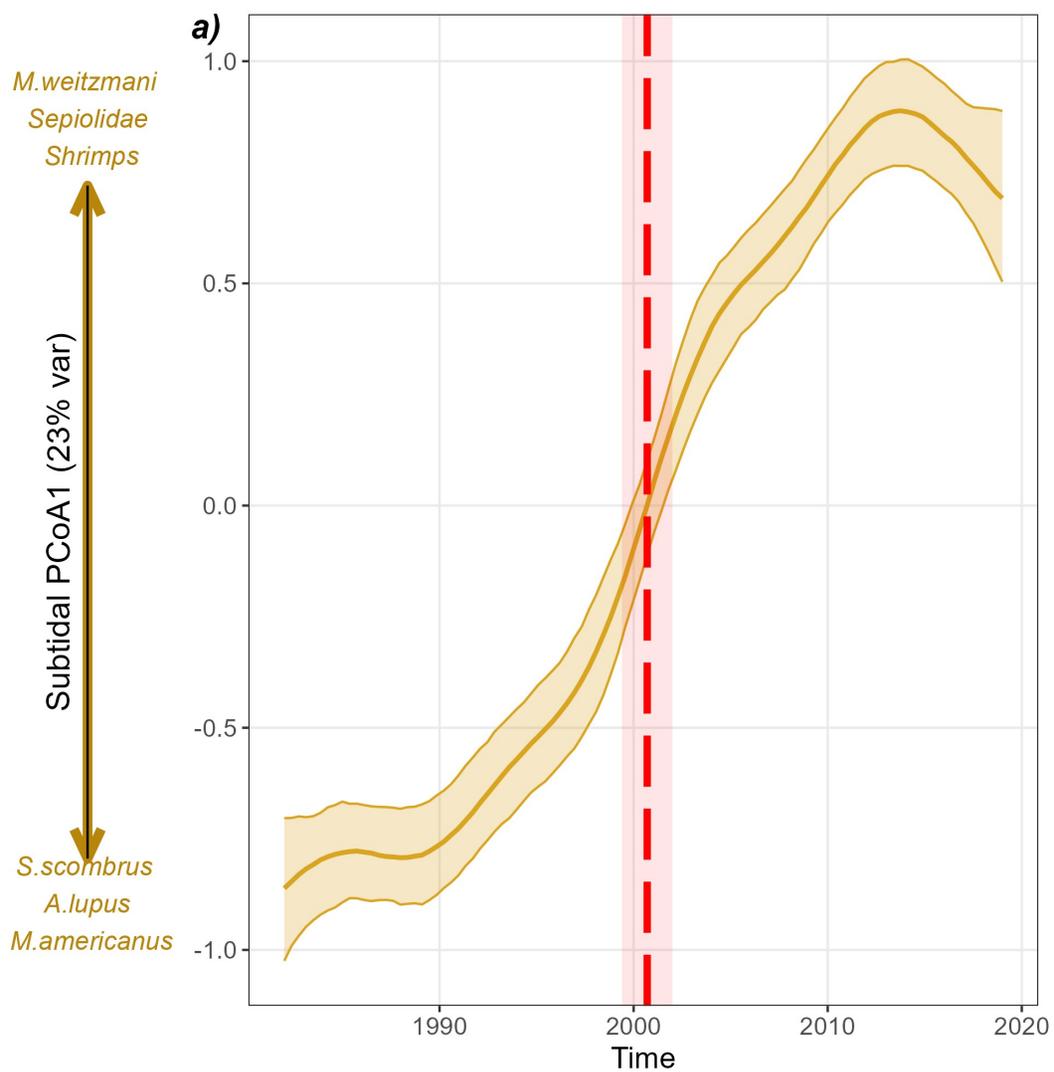
776 **Figure 4.** Island-wide changes in the intertidal mobile community through time, as shown
777 through PCoA axes. In a) island-scale trend in PCoA axis 1, in b) island-wide trend in PCoA
778 axis 2, and in c) island-wide trend in PCoA axis 3. The blue shaded area represents the 95%
779 credible interval of the centered posterior predicted trends (without the intercept). The red and
780 grey shaded areas represent the 95% CI of the subtidal regime shifts. This area is red when we
781 detected offset synchrony and grey if we did not. The small grey lines at the bottom are times
782 where there were significant changes in direction (second derivative different from zero). The
783 site specific trends are in supplementary material 4.

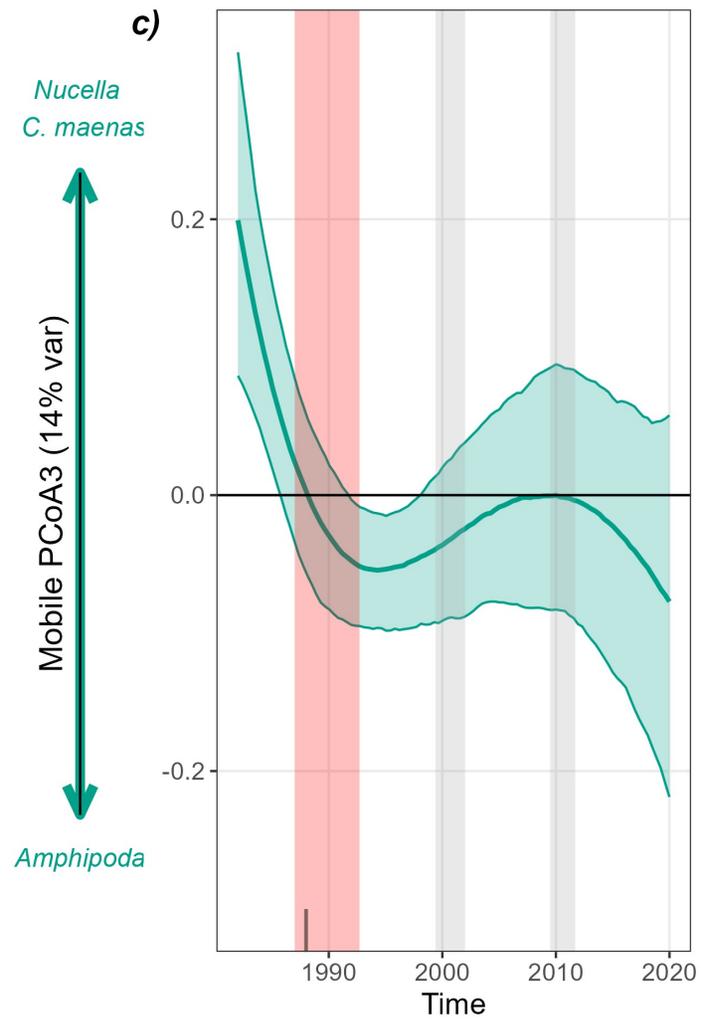
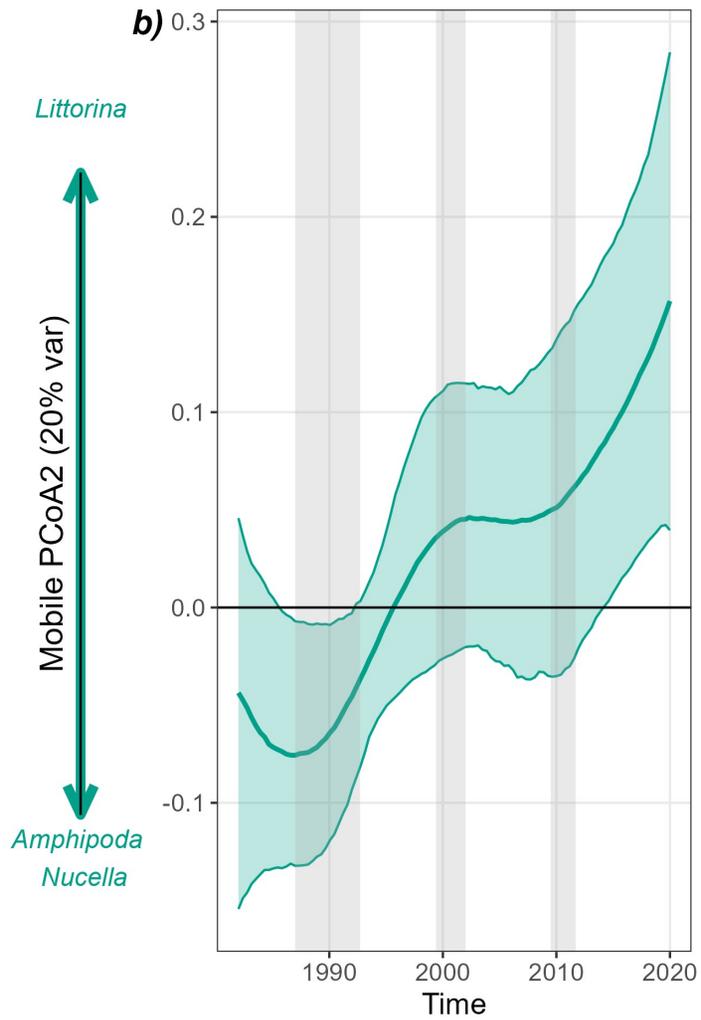
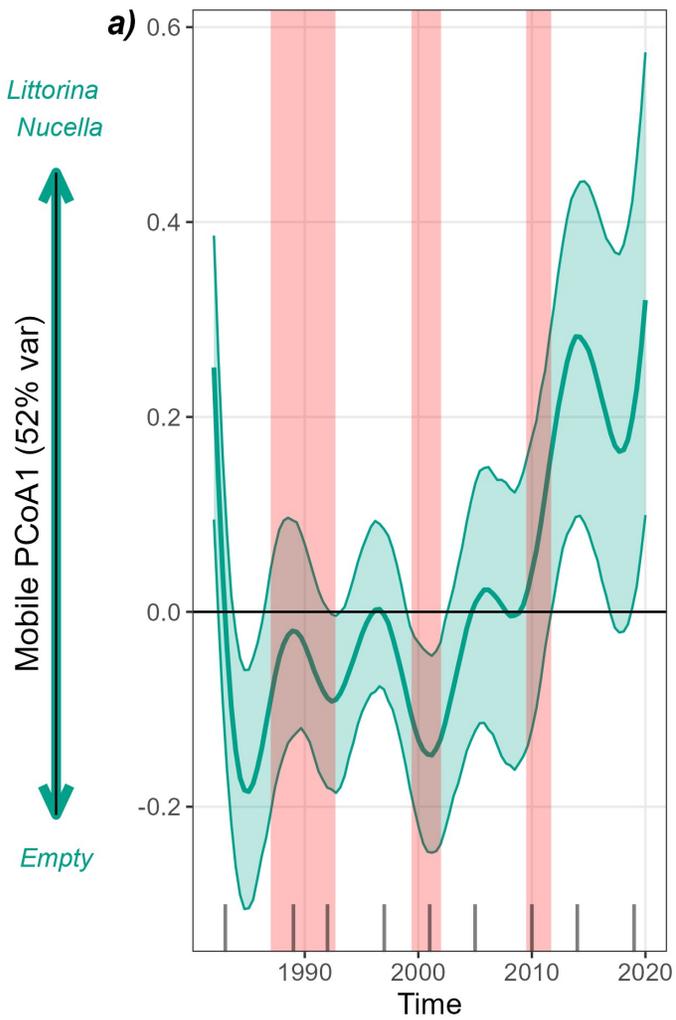
784 **Figure 5.** Heatmap of the offset synchrony of intertidal species changes in abundance for each
785 subtidal regime shift. The sites are on the y-axis and the focal groups in the x-axis. Red
786 represents a shift toward a higher abundance, blue represents a shift toward a lower abundance,
787 and white represents the absence of shift. We considered a shift in direction as significant when
788 the 95% credible interval of the second derivative differed from zero during the time period of
789 a subtidal regime shift.

790 **Figure 6.** Island-wide changes in the intertidal sessile community through time, as shown
791 through PCoA axes. In a) island-scale trend in PCoA axis 1, in b) island-wide trend in PCoA
792 axis 2, and in c) island-wide trend in PCoA axis 3. The blue shaded area represents the 95%
793 credible interval of the centered posterior predicted trends (without the intercept). The red and
794 grey shaded areas represent the 95% CI of the subtidal regime shifts. This area is red when we
795 detected offset synchrony and grey if we did not. The small grey lines at the bottom are times
796 where there were significant changes in direction (second derivative different from zero). The
797 site-specific trends are in supplementary material 4.

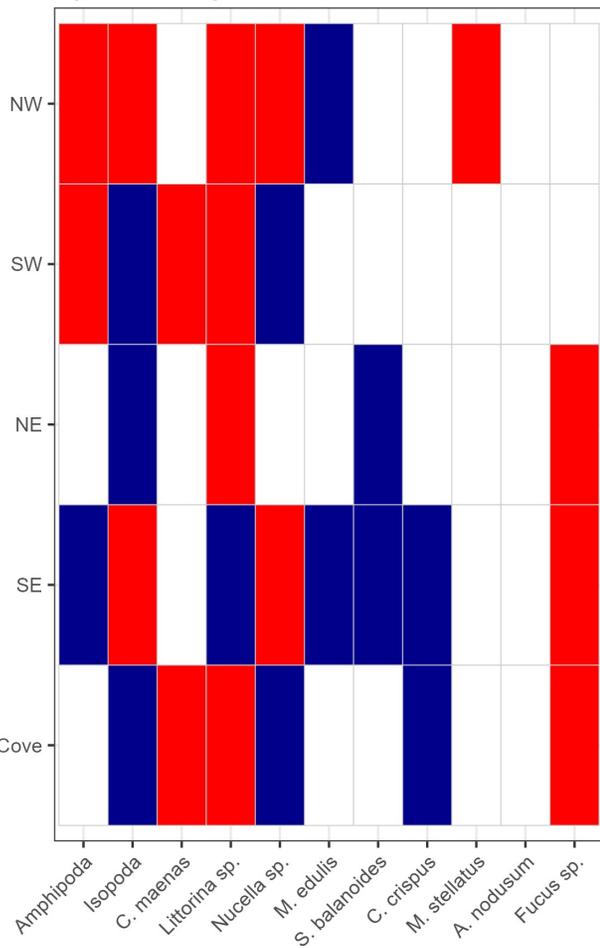




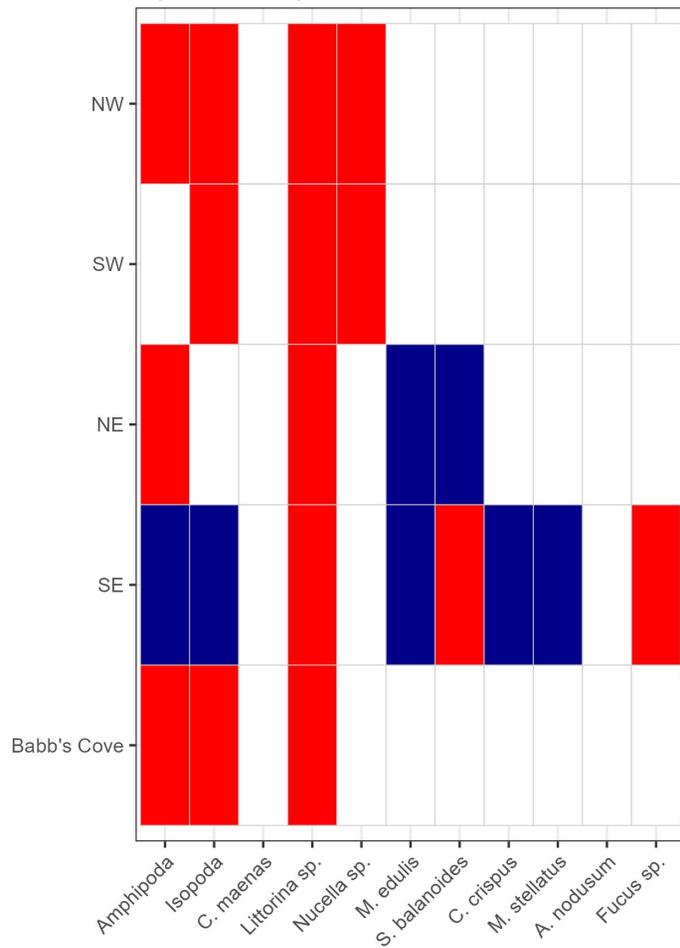




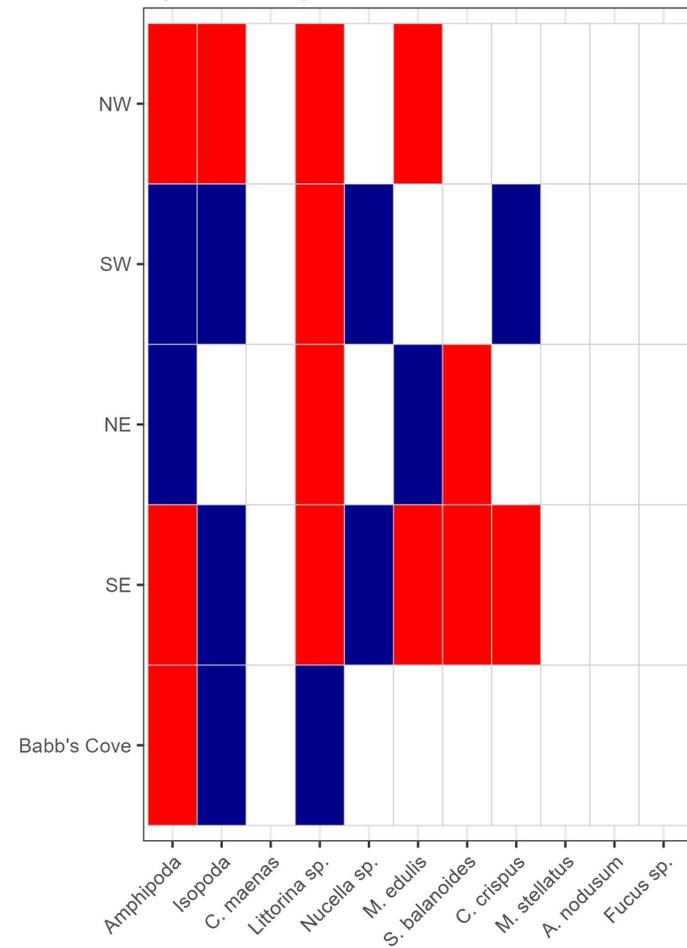
a) 1990 Regime Shift



b) 2000 Regime Shift



c) 2010 Regime Shift



Offset synchrony ■ Lower ■ Stable ■ Higher

