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4 Ideas and perspectives. The fluctuating nature of oxygen shapes the ecology of aquatic habitats and their

- 5 biogeochemical cycles: the aquatic oxyscape
- 6

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24 Abstract

25 Oxygen availability is a pivotal factor for ecosystem functioning and the resistance of organisms to the 26 effect of climate change in aquatic habitats. Although extensive work has been made to assess the effect of 27 oxygen on marine and freshwater biota, many studies did not capture the ecological importance of oxygen 28 variations. Overlooking the fluctuating nature of oxygen may cause potential biases in the design and 29 implementation of management policies of aquatic habitats. Conceptual perspectives on the dynamic nature 30 of oxygen fluctuations have been raised in the scientific community to enhance the understanding of the 31 effect of oxygen on the physiology and the ecology of aquatic species and the biogeochemical functioning 32 of the ecosystems. A growing number of empirical works are outlining a novel conceptual framework that 33 considers the magnitude of oxygen fluctuation as a key variable that explains adaptation to stress conditions. 34 Oxygen in productive aquatic habitats shows large fluctuations at diel scale, exposing aquatic species from 35 conditions of extreme supersaturation to anoxia. Recent research indicates that such fluctuation tunes the 36 physiological plasticity of the animal in response to thermal stresses. In this contribution, we provide 37 compelling evidence based on current research that the fluctuating oxygen landscape, here defined as 38 "oxyscape", has an important role in aquatic animal physiology and adaptation and the ecosystem 39 biogeochemistry. We propose that the oxyscape should be considered in the modelling and managing 40 policies of aquatic ecosystems.

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42 Keyword

43 Biogeochemical cycles; Climate Change; Hyperoxia; Hypoxia; Marine Ecosystem Assessment; Microbial

44 processes; Oxygen Fluctuations; Supersaturation

46 1. Introduction to environmental dissolved oxygen variability and its ecological relevance

The actual assembly of organism communities in a given habitat is determined by the specific environmental conditions that select specific sets of species. Climate anomalies and changes raise concerns on ecosystem stability and habitat preservation, with consequences ranging from species substitution to species extinction (Antão et al., 2020). To model and predict such effects on community composition and stability, it is necessary to learn about the limits of the environmental conditions that challenge the different species (Bennett et al., 2021). However, in many cases, such conditions are resumed into averaged parameters that do not capture the whole range to which organisms are exposed to (Bernhardt et al., 2020).

54 In aquatic environments, chemical and physical parameters greatly vary at different time and spatial scales, 55 following cyclical fluctuation or stochastic variations (Shaw et al., 2013; Kerrison et al., 2011; Vargas et al., 56 2017, 2022; Manzello, 2010; Challener et al., 2016; Duarte et al., 2013). The lack of details on such variations 57 in time and space challenges our understanding of how the species adapt their physiology, limiting our 58 estimation of their resilience to ongoing environmental changes (Booth et al., 2023a). The perception of 59 such knowledge gap is progressively moving the research interest on species' eco-physiological response to 60 chemical and physical parameters, such as temperature, salinity or pH, and the associated biogeochemical 61 cycles, toward more accurate assessments of their natural variability (Antão et al., 2020; Bernhardt et al., 62 2020). Increasing efforts are now devoted to upgrade eco-physiological approaches to integrate the relevant 63 environmental background (Giomi et al., 2019; Marasco et al., 2023; Bitter et al., 2018, 2021; Pörtner et al., 64 2023).

65 Oxygen variability exerts a deep effect on aquatic life yet remains underestimated. Most studies dealing with 66 oxygen variation have addressed the decline of mean oxygen availability in oceans (Breitburg et al., 2018) 67 and the occurrence and repercussions of events of environmental hypoxia (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; 68 Bickler and Buck, 2007). How short-term (i.e., daily) oxygen variations shape aquatic life and 69 biogeochemical processes remains largely overlooked. These variations are generally of greater amplitudes 70 and more regular than seasonal ones (Limburg et al., 2020; Bates et al., 2018). We refer to deviation from 71 the saturation of oxygen concentrations as the ratio between the actual concentration and the saturation 72 concentration of oxygen that would be observed in water under equilibrium conditions between air and 73 water. The fine measure of the range of variation of aquatic oxygen and its effect on organisms and

biogeochemical cycles has the potential to elucidate unpredicted mechanisms of resilience and tolerance toongoing climate change.

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77 2. Oxygen trends and stochastic variations

78 A gradual decline of the total oxygen content of about 2% since the second half of the 20th century has 79 been recently reported, with a further reduction of up to 7% predicted for the following century (Schmidtko 80 et al., 2017; Breitburg et al., 2018). In parallel, open-ocean oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) have largely 81 expanded (Stramma et al., 2010) together with the increasing occurrence of severe hypoxia events whose 82 predictability has decreased as their occurrence spreads across all oceans (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008). The 83 main cause of deoxygenation is attributed to global warming and is exacerbated by the discharge of nutrients 84 and pollutants (Ito et al., 2016). Topography of water basins also affects the incidence of hypoxia events 85 influencing the rate of mixing of oxygenated layers and the resident time of water bodies (Breitburg and 86 Grégoire, 2018; Laffoley and Baxter, 2019). For example, in the Baltic Sea, the geomorphology of the 87 coastline can explain up to 80% of the hypoxic phenomena (Virtanen et al., 2019).

88 The gradual decrease of total oxygen in oceans has been reported in several studies that analyse long time 89 trends (Keeling et al., 2010; Schmidtko et al., 2017; Breitburg et al., 2018) and from reports at the global 90 geographical scale (Laffoley and Baxter, 2016). However, unexpected oxygen profiles have also been 91 reported in several specific habitats and at different time scales suggesting that different abiotic and biotic 92 drivers modulate oxygen dynamics (Craig and Hayward, 1983). For instance, the alternation of oxygen 93 biological production and consumption determines massive fluctuation of its availability in highly 94 productive aquatic habitats, such as mangrove forests, salt marshes, coral reefs (Giomi et al., 2019; Fusi et 95 al., 2021; Booth et al., 2021), kelp forests (Krause-Jensen et al., 2016), plankton blooms in the open oceans 96 (Riser and Johnson, 2008; Benoiston et al., 2017), freshwater lakes (Andersen et al., 2017) or even in 97 agricultural drainage channels (Booth et al., 2023). The seasonal variation of diel oxygen fluctuations is 98 increasingly reported at all latitudes and habitats and occur in a vast range of water bodies independently 99 of the scale, the hydrological features, and the local biotic components (Figure 1). For example, fluctuations 100 of 150% in spring and 30% in winter occur in the Venice lagoon (Figure 1, Location 5), and even more 101 pronounced fluctuations occur in mangroves, corals and seagrasses (Figure 1, Locations 10-12; Giomi et 102 al., 2019). The magnitude of oxygen fluctuations is site-specific and depends, among other factors, on the 103 solar radiation and water temperature and their effect on primary producers' photosynthetic and respiration 104 activity, the cycles of water column stratification and mixing, and the nutrient loads. In highly productive 105 marine environments, increased dissolved oxygen concentration may occur in spring due to the 106 intensification of photosynthetic activity, followed by a decrease of available oxygen during the warmest 107 months and a progressive recovery in autumn and winter (Cowan et al., 1996; Bartoli et al., 2001; Kim et 108 al., 2019). Spatial differences in oxygen saturation occur between surface and bottom water masses because 109 of isolation driven by water stratification, the decrease of light penetration, and the coupling with increased 110 oxygen demand close to the sediments at the bottom of the water column (Figure 2). In summer, enhanced 111 benthic respiration is determined by higher water temperature, which decreases oxygen solubility and 112 enhances oxygen demand. Lower vertical mixing, higher water residence time, and higher turbidity due to 113 higher concentration of organic matter, further decrease oxygen concentrations down to hypoxia in the 114 deep water layers (Figure 2; Talke et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2019). Conversely, dissolved oxygen increases 115 in the euphotic part of the water column because of the enrichment of photosynthetic communities (Spietz 116 et al., 2015).

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118 3. The oxygen variation in the day-life of aquatic organisms

119 Marked oxygen variations occur at a diel scale, driven by temperature and light diel cycles and by the balance 120 between photosynthesis and respiration (Winter et al., 2019). The amplitude of diel oxygen variation can 121 exceed the average seasonal variation, thus being variable with higher explanatory power for the physiology 122 of aquatic life (Giomi et al., 2019). While water temperature is only linked to meteorological changes, the 123 oxygen concentration in productive aquatic environments is also regulated by the biota component 124 (Chapman, 2021). Community composition of primary producers (Power and Cardinale, 2009), rainfall 125 level (Mallin et al., 1993), nutrients' runoff (Kinney and Roman, 1998), biotic networks (Graham et al., 126 2018; Breen and Mann, 1976), and bacterial community dynamics (Guo et al., 2022), govern, at a small 127 scale, high spatial and temporal change in the concentrations of dissolved oxygen. The interaction of all 128 these factors strongly affects dissolved oxygen fluctuations beyond the levels that can be predicted from 129 just the meteorological trends.

130 Oxygen availability plays an important role in the physiology of aquatic species (Pörtner, 2010; Hochachka, 131 1991; Stillman and Somero, 2000). In the design of experiments on the physiology of aquatic animals, 132 oxygen is frequently treated as a fixed factor and maintained around the water saturation. However, 133 organisms inhabiting aquatic environments experience ample diel oxygen fluctuations and are adapted to 134 endure or respond to the experienced variation (Blewett et al., 2022; Morash et al., 2018). Oxygen may be 135 systematically depleted at night and fully recovered during the day, changes that certainly have consequences 136 on the tolerance to acute stressors such as hypoxia and warming. Dependent on the intensity of the 137 photosynthetic activity, dissolved oxygen concentrations can reach levels far above the physical saturation 138 (Giomi et al., 2019; McArley et al., 2020). Under such hyperoxic conditions, aquatic organisms experience 139 oxygen availability well beyond their physiological needs, but the effects on their physiology and life history 140 are largely unknown.

141 Hyperoxia benefits the metabolic performance of fishes and invertebrates, especially under acute warming 142 that may be very intense in tidal ponds or shallow coastal habitats (Fusi et al., 2021; Booth et al., 2021; 143 Giomi et al., 2019; McArley et al., 2020; Booth et al., 2023a). It extends the upper thermal tolerance of 144 aquatic animals during acute events of daily warming and their survival to anomalous heat waves (McArley 145 et al., 2022). Within the current trend of climate change, the beneficial effect of hyperoxia against extreme 146 heating events can have underestimated positive consequences on the survival of the animals. For instance, 147 an important consequence of exposure to the hyperoxic conditions experienced during the daytime under 148 high heating regimes is the enhanced capability to extract oxygen from the poorly oxygenated water during 149 the night and endure hypoxic or even anoxic periods (Giomi et al., 2019; Booth et al., 2021).

Oxygen fluctuations are also appreciated as a factor contributing to the structuring of organismal networks
and in the synchronization of life history dynamics such as spawning or larval recruitment (Garzke et al.,
2019; Viaroli and Christian, 2004).

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154 4. The role of oxygen fluctuation in coastal biogeochemical cycles

155 4.1 Biogeochemical cycles in the pelagic compartment in relation to oxygen fluctuation at daily scale

156 In productive coastal ecosystems the biogeochemical cycles of key chemical elements are strongly 157 interconnected with oxygen dynamics. Nitrogen and phosphorus are typically key elements which limit 158 primary production in shallow coastal-marine ecosystems, whose emissions from river basins (or other 159 sources, such as previously enriched sediments) can lead to eutrophication with detrimental effects on 160 biodiversity and human welfare (Palmeri et al., 2013). The biogeochemical cycles of nitrogen and 161 phosphorus are composed of multiple physical, chemical and biological processes, of which some are 162 accelerated by oxygen availability, such as nitrification and mineralization, while some others are enhanced by its absence, such as denitrification and P release from sediments. The regular daily alternation of 163 164 contrasting conditions of below- and above-saturation dissolved oxygen concentrations in the water 165 column, particularly in the euphotic zone, promotes changes in the relative abundance of different nutrient 166 forms (Figure 3). This becomes clear when looking, for example, at the nitrogen cycle in the water column 167 and its complex relationship with oxygen availability: the presence of dissolved oxygen speeds up the 168 mineralization of organic nitrogen to ammonium as well as nitrification, i.e., the microbial oxidation of 169 ammonium into nitrites and then nitrates. The absence of oxygen makes denitrification possible, i.e., the 170 reduction of nitrates into inert gaseous nitrogen is promoted by facultative aerobic bacteria which, in the 171 absence of anoxia, will prefer oxygen to nitrates as an electron acceptor (Palmeri et al., 2013). Ammonium, 172 nitrites and nitrates are important nitrogen forms which are bioavailable to primary producers, and 173 oscillating oxygen conditions in the water column at the diel scales can promote their removal via the 174 nitrification-denitrification chain. High oxygen concentrations are also associated with high photosynthetic 175 activity (e.g., planktonic) and, therefore, with the fast removal of dissolved inorganic nutrients from water 176 through uptake by primary producers (Caron, 1994). The picture is made more complex by the typically 177 non-linear dependence of biogeochemical reactions on oxygen concentration (e.g., nitrification and 178 denitrification) and on temperature (in the case of most biogeochemical processes), which can both change 179 strongly throughout the day, especially in shallow productive ecosystems, altering reaction rates at sub-daily 180 scales in a way which cannot be appreciated if only the daily mean in dissolved oxygen is considered, but 181 which needs to be quantified if we are to mechanistically predict future biogeochemical cycling under 182 climate change (Caballero-Alfonso et al., 2015). A further source of complexity is given by the feedbacks 183 between abiotic and biotic components of pelagic ecosystems. The growth of primary producers, both 184 microscopic and macroscopic, is on the one hand affected by the presence of bioavailable nutrient forms, 185 and on the other hand their biomass can reduce light availability by increasing shading or turbidity, limiting 186 light penetration and, so, oxygen production and warming in deeper waters. These examples highlight the 187 importance of higher frequency measurements of oxygen fluctuations, nutrient concentrations, and 188 microbial community abundance, composition and activity in the water column at sub-daily scales, to get a 189 better, more quantitative grasp of biogeochemical cycling in coastal water bodies (Meire et al., 2013). A 190 general framework to assess the short-term (hourly) oxygen fluctuations in relation to the movement and 191 related physical properties of water masses, i.e., of processes such as stratification, residence time, 192 thermohaline flows, in addition to other processes (photosynthesis, respiration, solubility changes, etc.) is 193 important to future oxygen modelling.

Of course, the intertwined oxygen and nutrient dynamics in the water column cannot be understood, at least in relatively shallow aquatic ecosystems, without looking also at the interactions between the pelagic and the benthic compartment. This takes place through vertical transport of matter (settling, resuspension, convection, upwelling currents, etc.) and is also affected by stratification, gradient-driven diffusive fluxes, and organism movements and vertical migrations.

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200 4.2 Biogeochemical cycles in the benthic compartment in relation to oxygen fluctuation at daily scale

When temperature and oxygen concentration in the water column fluctuate at short daily time scale, yet with very large amplitude (from anoxia/hypoxia to hyperoxia), the impact on biogeochemical cycles and chemical transfers is mostly unknown. Based on the trends observed at seasonal "steady-state" conditions, a conceptual model on the location of the major benthic processes in the sediment and the resulting fluxes at the sediment-water interface within the diurnal temporal scale can be drawn (Figure 4).

206 As oxygen penetration depth and concentration in sediment is known to rapidly evolve in response to the 207 oxygen concentration in the overlying water (Glud, 2008), the importance of aerobic process in surface 208 sediment is also expected to fluctuate at the diurnal timescale, with higher contribution during the day than 209 during the night. The fast kinetics of the reductive dissolution/oxidative precipitation of Mn and Fe oxy-210 hydroxides and the redox cycle of S chemical species (i.e., H₂S/SO₄²⁻) suggests that those chemical species 211 should evolve with a similar trend over daily timescales, with a reasonable short term (minutes-hours) delay 212 (Rigaud et al., 2018). Consequently, we expect a vertical fluctuation of those biogeochemical redox 213 processes in the sediment and related fluxes under diel oxygen fluctuation (Figure 4). The low oxygen 214 concentration at night should induce a lower oxygen penetration depth and an upward distribution of NO3-215 , Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides and $SO_{4^{2}}$ reductions. If the oxygen concentration is low enough, the reductive 216 dissolution of Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides may directly occur at the sediment-water interface, inducing their 217 release to the water column with other chemical species associated with these phases (i.e., PO₄³⁻ and most 218 trace elements). In the specific case of anoxia, the sulfate-reduction process may occur at the sediment 219 surface, releasing H₂S to the water column. It is expected that in such a condition, the release of dissolved 220 metals (Fe, Mn and trace elements), which also present a rapid kinetic for metal sulfide formation in the 221 presence of S(-II), can be reduced and likely reverted (Figure 4). In contrast, the increase of oxygen 222 concentration during the day promotes oxygen penetration in the sediment and the oxidation of reduced 223 species accumulated during the night, such as dissolved Mn, Fe, NH4+ and eventually H2S, preventing their 224 release from the sediment. The reconstitution of the Mn/Fe oxyhydroxide reservoir in surface sediment 225 favours the trapping of PO43- and trace elements associated with Fe and Mn cycles. The oxidation of NH4+ 226 induces the formation of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ that may be released from the sediment.

227 In shallow coastal areas, the light radiation may also reach the sediment surface allowing the photosynthetic 228 activity of the microphytobenthos to occur in surface sediment (Figure 4). The local source of oxygen at 229 the sediment surface occurs because photosynthesis strongly enhances the biogeochemical processes 230 described above (Denis et al., 2012; Rigaud et al., 2018). The oxygen released in the water column enhances 231 the water hyperoxia and consumes nutrients and CO_2 during photosynthesis. This creates a very peculiar 232 situation that modifies the direction and intensity of chemical fluxes at the sediment-water interface and 233 the chemical composition of water and surface sediment in coastal areas at the diurnal scale. For those rapid 234 redox-sensitive chemical species, processes and fluxes are thus expected to evolve, between such extreme 235 night/day fluctuations, with a transient response related to the reaction kinetics and transport within the 236 sediment surface.

For OM mineralization processes, the effects of short-term oxygen fluctuation are more challenging to predict. It will also be dependent on the capacity of heterotrophs to react/adapt to the changing oxygen concentrations and eventually shift between different metabolic processes (for microorganisms where variables metabolic pathways coexist) or to activate/cease the process in relation to physicochemical conditions and oxidant availability (for microorganisms with specialized metabolisms). Consequently, the dynamic response of the microbial community to short-term oxygen and chemical fluctuations needs to be
investigated in more detail in relation to microbial communities' resilience and adaptation capacity (see
section 5).

245 In productive coastal areas, the benthic organisms, including macro and meiofaunal species, adapt to large 246 and rapid daily oxygen variation by modifying their behaviour. The bioturbating activity may be favoured 247 during high oxygen concentration and lowered during conditions of low oxygen availability. We expect that, 248 during the night oxygen deficiency, the benthic organism activity is reduced, inducing a decrease in the 249 sediment reworking intensity. This is accompanied by a reduction of the biologically-mediated solute fluxes 250 at the sediment-water interface and oxygen penetration depth in the sediment. In contrast, during oxygen 251 supersaturation occurring in the day, bioturbation is intensified and may induce a short-term change in the 252 contribution of biologically-mediated reactions and transfers. Here also, a delay between the oxygen 253 fluctuation in the water column and the biogeochemical response of the sediment, related to the biological 254 activity, would depend on site characteristics (oxygen concentration and range of fluctuation, bioturbating 255 species). For instance, in areas where anoxia events are recurrent, the absence of macrofauna prevents 256 bioturbation and its influence on the benthic biogeochemistry (Nilsson and Rosenberg, 1997).

257 In response to large amplitude and diel oxygen fluctuations, the sediment' biogeochemical cycles are also 258 expected to fluctuate (Figure 4). However, as the resulting benthic biogeochemistry cycles are associated 259 with the dynamics of three interdependent compartments (i.e., geochemical composition, microbial 260 communities, bioturbating-faunal communities), each presenting its kinetics and responses to oxygen 261 fluctuations, we expect the sediment to be permanently maintained under unsteady-state conditions. This 262 makes it difficult to quantitatively predict the resulting OM mineralization rates, the proportion of involved 263 processes, and the chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface. The recent development of tools 264 which can measure the chemical composition and sediment-water fluxes over the short-term scale (i.e., 265 microsensors, eddy covariance technic, gradient-flux method), in addition to benthic microbial and 266 macrofaunal activity (e.g., improved sediment profile imaging), may be beneficial to produce experimental 267 data that will help to fill these gaps in understanding. At the same time, specific efforts should be focused 268 on assessing the isolated response to those three different compartments. Those data should then be 269 implemented to appropriately calibrate non-steady-state coupled pelagic-benthic biogeochemical models,

which can predict the resulting biogeochemical functioning of productive coastal ecosystems and, thus, topredict their fate under climatic changes.

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273 5. The interrelationship of oxygen fluctuation and aquatic microbial communities

274 Oxygen is a two-faced element that acts as the terminal electron acceptor in aerobic respiration (by far the 275 most efficient energy metabolism) and as an element of toxicity because the reduction of O₂ molecules 276 partly results in reactive oxygen species. For this reason, oxygen remains a strong evolutionary force 277 dominating functional interactions and the spatial structure of many microbial communities (Fenchel and 278 Finlay, 2008). Oxygen availability determines microbial metabolism, and many studies have been carried 279 out to elucidate the different kinds of communities and metabolisms occurring under anaerobic or aerobic 280 conditions (Sandrin et al., 2009). Marine microorganisms in productive coastal environments also 281 experience large oxygen diel fluctuations, especially at the boundary layer between sediment/primary 282 producers and water (Pacherres et al., 2022).

283 Assessing the full environmental oxygen variability in aquatic habitats using high-resolution temporal and 284 spatial scales relevant to microorganisms can reveal in detail the complexity of the patterns of community 285 dynamics and diversity in such oxygen-variable environments (Berg et al., 2022). For example, oxygen 286 largely varies during the day in tropical clear shallow waters because of the photosynthetic activity of 287 seagrasses, corals and mangroves (Giomi et al., 2019). Therefore, the microbial communities in these 288 ecosystems can experience environmental conditions ranging from hyperoxia to anoxia (see the oxygen 289 profile in Figure 2). These fluctuations imply that the microbial communities have to shift their composition 290 and function according to the oxygen availability (Fenchel and Finlay, 2008; Booth et al., 2023b, 2019). 291 Microorganisms generally have a short generation time (and high turnover) that favour timely adaptation 292 to new conditions in a changing environment (Steiner et al., 2019). During low oxygen availability at night-293 time, bacterial communities will shift their composition and function toward anaerobic function (Figure 5). 294 End products of anaerobic metabolisms such as ammonium, sulphur and methane are consumed when 295 oxygen becomes available again during the daylight and the recovery of photosynthesis, re-establishing 296 aerobic respiration as the central metabolism of the microbial communities (Fenchel and Finlay, 2008). For 297 example, in the Bohai Sea (China), under oxygen concentration lower than 4.2 mg/L the microbial

298 communities were dominated by bacteria of the Anaerolineaceae (Guo et al., 2022). In Chilean coast 299 ecosystems, the composition of the bacterial communities is regulated by the seasonality of the upwelling 300 waters, with the partitioning of community composition driven by dissolved oxygen. Bacteroidetes, SAR11, 301 SAR86 and Alphaproteobacteria dominated in waters containing dissolved oxygen concentrations higher than 302 70 µM. In contrast, taxonomic groups such as Arctic96BD-19, SUP05, SAR324 and Desulfobacterales were 303 observed at dissolved oxygen concentrations below 70 µM to undetectable levels (Aldunate et al., 2018). 304 The continuous variation of oxygen concentration enhances the diel cycling of nutrients in productive 305 coastal environments, highlighting the importance of assessing the ecologically relevant oxygen fluctuations 306 to determine the effective microbial functionality of the marine coastal ecosystem (Trowbridge et al., 2017). 307 Incorporating methods to assess the ecologically relevant variability of oxygen availability, intensity and 308 synchronicity in future experimental designs will generate a more accurate prediction of the response of 309 bacterial communities and therefore their potential for biogeochemical cycling to climate change, better 310 informing the development of management strategies to mitigate detrimental stressor impact on ecosystems 311 effectively. The current challenge in microbial ecology is to understand the widespread temporal and spatial 312 environmental oxygen variability and switch from the "mean conditions paradigm" often used for 313 investigations of microbial ecological processes to a dynamic model able to capture the microbial changing 314 and functional potential under oxygen fluctuating conditions (Fusi et al., 2022).

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316 6. Implications for marine assessment and management

317 Oxygen production is considered an ecosystem service (https://cices.eu/) because of the benefits humans 318 receive, but, to date, there is limited inclusion of the impacts of deoxygenation or oxygen fluctuation in 319 marine environmental policies. There are only few areas whose oxygen dynamics has been extensively 320 monitored like in North America (i.e., Cheaspeake bay, Gulf of Mexico, Long Island Sound) and included 321 management plans for environmental protections in (e.g., 322 https://coastalscience.noaa.gov/project/operational-gulf-of-mexico-hypoxia-monitoring/). However, 323 globally, there has been a lack of oxygen dynamics' integration into the computation of biodiversity 324 indicators that assess aquatic communities (Breitburg et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022), and in particular the 325 oxygen dynamic at a daily scale remains largely neglected is marine assessment and management. Policies

326 on pollution or nutrient control had a positive effect on the oxygen level in ocean water, however, there is 327 still a clear missing link on specific policies to monitor and manage daily oxygen variability. While attention 328 has been given to ocean warming and acidification, daily oxygen dynamics have been overlooked in 329 assessing marine habitat or species' sensitivity to climate changes and anthropogenic disturbances. 330 Including ecologically relevant variations of oxygen availability into aquatic biodiversity indicators, in 331 addition to continuous and high temporal resolution oxygen and chemical concentration measurements in 332 the sediment and water column, offers a great opportunity to refine and produce more robust predictors 333 that will be able to disentangle better the response of aquatic ecosystems to climate change and 334 anthropogenic disturbances (Dafforn et al., 2012).

335 Current hypoxic thresholds for aquatic ecosystem management are generally calculated on averages and 336 minima oxygen concentrations in water and they risk overlooking the effect of the oxygen fluctuation which 337 are more relevant for communities' physiology (Tomasetti and Gobler, 2020). Enhancing monitoring 338 programs by capturing the daily oxygen fluctuation will allow detection of when night-time low oxygen 339 content is followed by a daytime recovery period, often reaching oxygen supersaturation. This alternation 340 allows the aquatic communities to sustain their homeostasis in a fluctuating environment. Therefore, proper 341 monitoring can inform a correct management to conserve, protect, and restore coastal water mosaic 342 patterns of primary producers to ensure the ecological relevant fluctuations of dissolved oxygen.

343 In this contribution, based on recent research, we provide evidence that the fluctuating oxygen creates a 344 spatial and temporal heterogeneous aquatic oxygen landscape that we have defined here as "oxyscape". The 345 oxyscape—having an important role for aquatic animal physiology and adaptation and the ecosystem 346 biogeochemistry-should be considered in the modelling and managing policies of aquatic ecosystems to 347 capture the ecologically relevant oxygen fluctuation. Understanding the oxyscape can help to reconsider 348 the dynamics of many productive aquatic ecosystems and we, therefore, call on ecologists to rethink their 349 models and experiments in this light. This would increase understanding of variations and resilience of 350 communities to changes in environmental conditions at the scales of space and time relevant to individual 351 components.

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353 Author contributions

- 354 MF and FG conceived the study and wrote sections 1 to 3. AB, GG, SR, FG wrote section 4.1 and 4.2 and
- 355 provided data for the Mediterranean sites. MF, RM and DD wrote section 5 and provided data for the Red
- 356 Sea. MF, LP and CVH wrote section 6. All the authors discussed and reviewed the final version.
- 357

358 Competing interests

- 359 The contact author has declared that none of the authors have competing interests.
- 360

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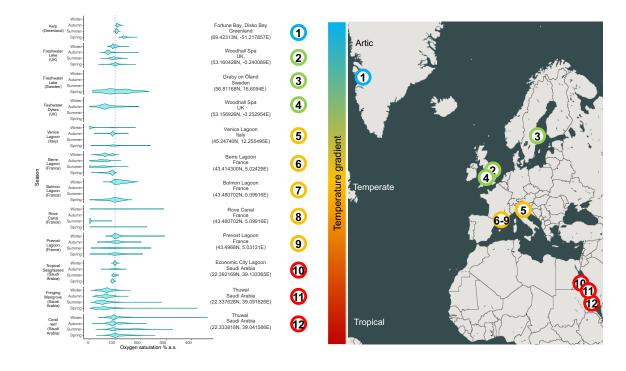
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607 Figure captions

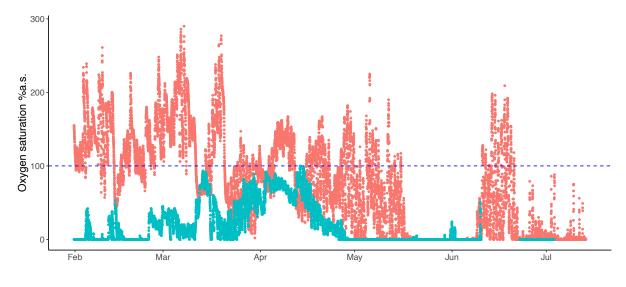
608

609 Figure 1. Range of oxygen saturations in several productive aquatic habitats. The dashed line represents 610 100% oxygen saturation. The violin plots report the densities of the frequencies of oxygen saturation 611 measured at each ecosystem across different season (based on data availability). Data source is specified for 612 each environment in the Supplementary Dataset for Figure 1 and 2.



613

615 Figure 2. Fluctuation of oxygen saturation measured at the bottom (4 m) and surface (30 cm) oxygen 616 saturation of the Rove canal in France that highlight the contrast between the two depths of eutrophicated 617 coastal environment from the winter to summer. The analysis of these case studies revealed different power 618 to predict oxygen variation.



• 1 – Surface (30cm) • 2 – Bottom (4m)

619

621 Figure 3. Nutrient concentration, dissolved oxygen and water temperature measurements made in the 622 water of a salt marsh of the Northern Venice Lagoon (Italy) on August 13th, 2015. A) Concentration of 623 different nitrogen forms in the marsh water (notice the two different vertical axes) over time in the central 624 part of the day. Measurements are made in the water entering the marsh (flood phase, left of the vertical 625 gray line which indicates the tidal peak) and quitting from the salt marsh (ebb phase, right of the vertical 626 gray line). After some time spent in the marsh, which is flooded by tide twice per day, water becomes 627 depleted in inorganic nutrients, presumably due to the uptake by primary producers, exchanges with the 628 sediments, and (in the case of ammonium) nitrification. Concurrently, water is enriched with dissolved 629 organic nitrogen related to the intense biological activity within the marsh. B) Dissolved oxygen and 630 temperature of the water entering the marsh (flood phase, left of the vertical gray line which indicates the 631 tidal peak) and quitting from the salt marsh (ebb phase, right of the vertical gray line) over time in the 632 central part of the day. While in the marsh, which is a biologically productive habitat compared to the 633 surrounding waters, the water becomes enriched with dissolved oxygen paralleled by an increase in water

634 temperature.

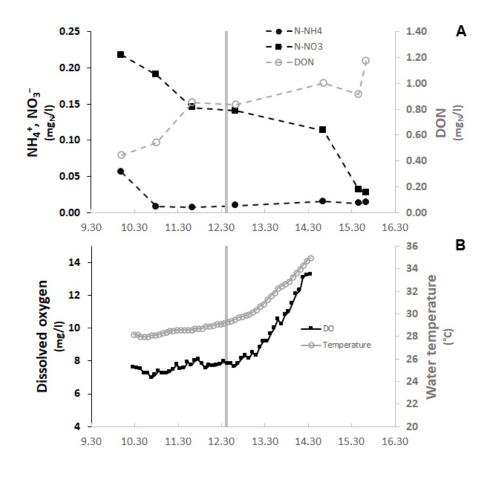
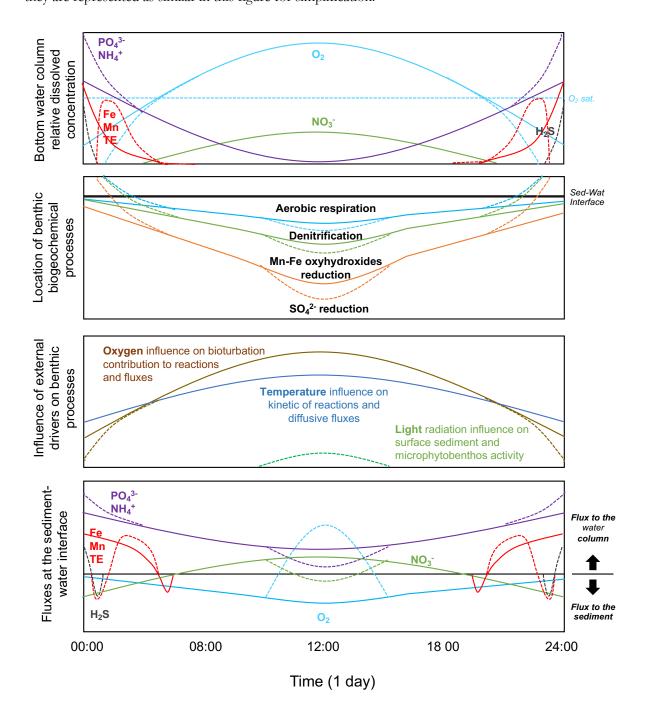
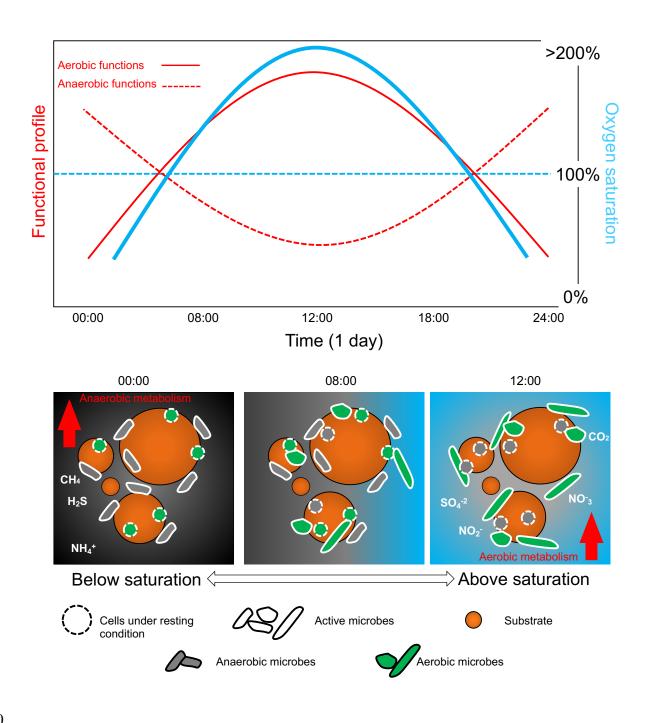


Figure 4. Scheme of the benthic biogeochemical cycle in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. (A) The relative evolution of the bottom water chemical composition, (B) evolution of the location of the most important biogeochemical processes in the benthic compartment. (C) Relative influence of external drivers on benthic processes. (D) Relative evolution of resulting flux direction and intensity. Note that the graphs are not drawn to scale. Although concentrations of $PO_{4^{3-}}$ and NH_{4^+} and of Mn and Fe may behave differently, they are represented as similar in this figure for simplification.



643

645 Figure 5. Daily bacterial community cycle scheme in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. Relative shift of 646 microbial community controlled by the oxygen availability that control the ratio between aerobic and 647 anaerobic taxa and their relative function. Oxygen fluctuation is important to determine the diel cycling of 648 the bacterial communities that in turn affect the biogeochemistry and the overall functioning of the aquatic 649 ecosystems. Note that the graphs are not drawn to scale.



650