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2

3 **Title:**

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 for aquatic habitats. Conceptual perspectives on the dynamic
30 nature of oxygen fluctuations have been raised in the scientific community to enhance the understanding
31 of the effect of oxygen on the physiology and the ecology of aquatic species and the biogeochemical
32 functioning of the ecosystems. A growing number of empirical works are outlining a novel conceptual
33 framework that considers the magnitude of oxygen fluctuation as a key variable that explains adaptation to
34 stress conditions. Oxygen in productive aquatic habitats shows large fluctuations at diel scale, exposing
35 aquatic species from conditions of extreme supersaturation to anoxia. Recent research indicates that such
36 fluctuation tunes the physiological plasticity of the animal in response to thermal stresses. In this
37 contribution, we provide compelling evidence based on current research that the fluctuating oxygen
38 landscape, here defined as “*oxyscape*”, has an important role in aquatic animal physiology and adaptation
39 and the ecosystem biogeochemistry. We propose that the oxyscape should be considered in the modelling
40 and managing policies of aquatic ecosystems.

41

42 **Keyword**

43 Biogeochemical cycles; Climate Change; Hyperoxia; Hypoxia; Marine Ecosystem Assessment; Microbial
44 processes; Oxygen Fluctuations; Supersaturation

45

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

47 The actual assembly of organism communities in a given habitat is determined by the specific environmental
48 conditions that select specific sets of species. Climate anomalies and changes raise concerns on ecosystem
49 stability and habitat preservation, with consequences ranging from species substitution to species extinction
50 (Antão et al., 2020). To model and predict such effects on community composition and stability, it is
51 necessary to learn about the limits of the environmental conditions that challenge the different species
52 (Bennett et al., 2021). However, in many cases, such conditions are resumed into averaged parameters that
53 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 upgrading eco-physiological approaches to integrate the
63 relevant environmental background (Giomi et al., 2019; Marasco et al., 2023; Bitter et al., 2018, 2021;
64 Pörtner et al., 2023).

65 Oxygen variability exerts a great 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

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

76

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 (Schmidtke
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). The 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; Schmidtke 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 occurs 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. Spatial differences in
105 oxygen saturation also occur between surface and bottom water masses because of isolation driven by water
106 stratification, the decrease of light penetration, and the coupling with increased oxygen demand close to
107 the sediments at the bottom of the water column (Figure 2). In summer, enhanced benthic respiration is
108 determined by higher water temperature, which decreases oxygen solubility and enhances oxygen demand.
109 Lower vertical mixing, higher water residence time, and higher turbidity due to higher concentration of
110 organic matter further decrease oxygen concentrations down to hypoxia in the deep water layers (Figure 2;
111 Talke et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2019). Conversely, dissolved oxygen increases in the euphotic part of the
112 water column because of the enrichment of photosynthetic communities (Spietz et al., 2015).

113

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

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

126 Oxygen availability plays an important role in the physiology of aquatic species (Pörtner, 2010; Hochachka,
127 1991; Stillman and Somero, 2000). In the design of experiments on the physiology of aquatic animals,
128 oxygen is frequently treated as a fixed factor and maintained around the water saturation. However,
129 organisms inhabiting aquatic environments experience ample diel oxygen fluctuations and are adapted to

130 endure or respond to the experienced variation (Blewett et al., 2022; Morash et al., 2018). Oxygen may be
131 systematically depleted at night and fully recovered during the day, changes that certainly have consequences
132 on the tolerance to acute stressors such as hypoxia and warming. Dependent on the intensity of the
133 photosynthetic activity, dissolved oxygen concentrations can reach levels far above the physical saturation
134 (Giomi et al., 2019; McArley et al., 2020). Under such hyperoxic conditions, aquatic organisms experience
135 oxygen availability well beyond their physiological needs, but the effects on their physiology and life history
136 are largely unknown.

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

146 Oxygen fluctuations are also appreciated as a factor contributing to the structuring of organismal networks
147 and in the synchronisation of life history dynamics such as spawning or larval recruitment (Garzke et al.,
148 2019; Viaroli and Christian, 2004).

149

150 **4. The role of oxygen fluctuation in coastal biogeochemical cycles**

151 *4.1 Biogeochemical cycles in the pelagic compartment in relation to oxygen fluctuation at daily scale*

152 In productive coastal ecosystems, the biogeochemical cycles of key chemical elements are strongly
153 interconnected with oxygen dynamics. Nitrogen and phosphorus are typically key elements which limit
154 primary production in shallow coastal-marine ecosystems, whose emissions from river basins (or other
155 sources, such as previously enriched sediments) can lead to eutrophication with detrimental effects on
156 biodiversity and human welfare (Palmeri et al., 2013). The biogeochemical cycles of nitrogen and
157 phosphorus are composed of multiple physical, chemical and biological processes, of which some are

158 accelerated by oxygen availability, such as nitrification and mineralisation, while others are enhanced by its
159 absence, such as denitrification and P release from sediments. The regular daily alternation of contrasting
160 conditions of below- and above-saturation dissolved oxygen concentrations in the water column,
161 particularly in the euphotic zone, promotes changes in the relative abundance of different nutrient forms
162 (Figure 3). This becomes clear when looking, for example, at the nitrogen cycle in the water column and its
163 complex relationship with oxygen availability: the presence of dissolved oxygen speeds up the
164 mineralisation of organic nitrogen to ammonium as well as nitrification, i.e., the microbial oxidation of
165 ammonium into nitrites and then nitrates. The absence of oxygen makes denitrification possible, i.e., the
166 reduction of nitrates into inert gaseous nitrogen is promoted by facultative aerobic bacteria that, in the
167 absence of anoxia, will prefer oxygen to nitrates as an electron acceptor (Palmeri et al., 2013). Ammonium,
168 nitrites and nitrates are important nitrogen forms that are bioavailable to primary producers, and the
169 oscillating oxygen conditions in the water column at the diel scales can promote their removal via the
170 nitrification-denitrification chain. High oxygen concentrations are also associated with high photosynthetic
171 activity (e.g., planktonic) and, therefore, with the fast removal of dissolved inorganic nutrients from water
172 through uptake by primary producers (Caron, 1994). The picture is made more complex by the typically
173 non-linear dependence of biogeochemical reactions on oxygen concentration (e.g., nitrification and
174 denitrification) and on temperature (in the case of most biogeochemical processes), which can both change
175 enormously throughout the day, especially in shallow productive ecosystems, altering reaction rates at sub-
176 daily scales in a way which cannot be appreciated if only the daily mean in dissolved oxygen is considered,
177 but which needs to be quantified if we are to predict future biogeochemical cycling mechanistically under
178 climate change (Caballero-Alfonso et al., 2015). A further source of complexity is given by the feedback
179 between abiotic and biotic components of pelagic ecosystems. The growth of primary producers, both
180 microscopic and macroscopic, is on the one hand affected by the presence of bioavailable nutrient forms,
181 and on the other hand their biomass can reduce light availability by increasing shading or turbidity, limiting
182 light penetration and, so, oxygen production and warming in deeper waters. These examples highlight the
183 importance of higher frequency measurements of oxygen fluctuations, nutrient concentrations, and
184 microbial community abundance, composition and activity in the water column at sub-daily scales to get a
185 better, more quantitative grasp of biogeochemical cycling in coastal water bodies (Meire et al., 2013). A

186 general framework to assess the short-term (hourly) oxygen fluctuations in relation to the movement and
187 related physical properties of water masses, i.e., of processes such as stratification, residence time, and
188 thermohaline flows, in addition to other processes (photosynthesis, respiration, solubility changes, etc.) is
189 important to future oxygen modelling.

190

191 ***4.2 Biogeochemical cycles in the benthic compartment in relation to oxygen fluctuation at daily scale***

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

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

202 As oxygen penetration depth and concentration in sediment is known to rapidly evolve in response to the
203 oxygen concentration in the overlying water (Glud, 2008), the importance of aerobic process in surface
204 sediment is also expected to fluctuate at the diurnal timescale, with higher contribution during the day than
205 during the night. The fast kinetics of the reductive dissolution/oxidative precipitation of Mn and Fe oxy-
206 hydroxides and the redox cycle of S chemical species (i.e., $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$) suggests that those chemical species
207 should evolve with a similar trend over daily timescales, with a reasonable short term (minutes-hours) delay
208 (Rigaud et al., 2018). Consequently, we expect a vertical fluctuation of those biogeochemical redox
209 processes in the sediment and related fluxes under diel oxygen fluctuation (Figure 4). The low oxygen
210 concentration at night should induce a lower oxygen penetration depth and an upward distribution of NO_3^-
211 , Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides and SO_4^{2-} reductions. If the oxygen concentration is low enough, the reductive
212 dissolution of Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides may directly occur at the sediment-water interface, inducing their
213 release to the water column with other chemical species associated with these phases (i.e., PO_4^{3-} and most

214 trace elements). In the specific case of anoxia, the sulfate-reduction process may occur at the sediment
215 surface, releasing H₂S to the water column. It is expected that in such a condition, the release of dissolved
216 metals (Fe, Mn and trace elements), which also present a rapid kinetic for metal sulfide formation in the
217 presence of S(-II), can be reduced and likely reverted (Figure 4). In contrast, the increase of oxygen
218 concentration during the day promotes oxygen penetration in the sediment and the oxidation of reduced
219 species accumulated during the night, such as dissolved Mn, Fe, NH₄⁺ and eventually H₂S, preventing their
220 release from the sediment. The reconstitution of the Mn/Fe oxyhydroxide reservoir in surface sediment
221 favours the trapping of PO₄³⁻ and trace elements associated with Fe and Mn cycles. The oxidation of NH₄⁺
222 induces the formation of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ that may be released from the sediment.

223 In shallow coastal areas, the light radiation may also reach the sediment surface allowing the photosynthetic
224 activity of the microphytobenthos to occur in surface sediment (Figure 4). The local source of oxygen at
225 the sediment surface occurs because photosynthesis strongly enhances the biogeochemical processes
226 described above (Denis et al., 2012; Rigaud et al., 2018). The oxygen released in the water column enhances
227 the water hyperoxia and consumes nutrients and CO₂ during photosynthesis. This creates a very peculiar
228 situation that modifies the direction and intensity of chemical fluxes at the sediment-water interface and
229 the chemical composition of water and surface sediment in coastal areas at the diurnal scale. For those rapid
230 redox-sensitive chemical species, processes and fluxes are thus expected to evolve, between such extreme
231 night/day fluctuations, with a transient response related to the reaction kinetics and transport within the
232 sediment surface.

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

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

253 In response to large amplitude and diel oxygen fluctuations, the sediment' biogeochemical cycles are also
254 expected to fluctuate (Figure 4). However, as the resulting benthic biogeochemistry cycles are associated
255 with the dynamics of three interdependent compartments (i.e., geochemical composition, microbial
256 communities, bioturbating-faunal communities), each presenting its kinetics and responses to oxygen
257 fluctuations, we expect the sediment to be permanently maintained under unsteady-state conditions. This
258 makes it difficult to quantitatively predict the resulting OM mineralisation rates, the proportion of involved
259 processes, and the chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface.

260 The recent development of tools which can measure the chemical composition and sediment-water fluxes
261 over the short-term scale (i.e., microsensors, eddy covariance technic, gradient-flux method), in addition to
262 benthic microbial and macrofaunal activity (e.g., improved sediment profile imaging), may be beneficial to
263 produce experimental data that will help to fill these gaps in understanding. At the same time, specific
264 efforts should be focused on assessing the isolated response to those three different compartments. Those
265 data should then be implemented to appropriately calibrate non-steady-state coupled pelagic-benthic
266 biogeochemical models, which can predict the resulting biogeochemical functioning of productive coastal
267 ecosystems and, thus, predict their fate under climatic changes.

268

269 **5. The interrelationship of oxygen fluctuation and aquatic microbial communities**

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

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

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

312

313 **6. Implications for marine assessment and management**

314 Oxygen production is considered an ecosystem service (<https://cices.eu/>) because of the benefits humans
315 receive, but, to date, there is limited inclusion of the impacts of deoxygenation or oxygen fluctuation in
316 marine environmental policies. There are only few areas whose oxygen dynamics have been extensively
317 monitored, like in North America (i.e., Chesapeake Bay, Gulf of Mexico, Long Island Sound) and included
318 in management plans for environmental protections (e.g.,
319 <https://coastalscience.noaa.gov/project/operational-gulf-of-mexico-hypoxia-monitoring/>). However,
320 globally, there has been a lack of oxygen dynamics’ integration into the computation of biodiversity
321 indicators that assess aquatic communities (Breitburg et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022), and in particular the
322 oxygen dynamic at a daily scale remains largely neglected in marine assessment and management. Policies
323 on pollution or nutrient control had a positive effect on the oxygen level in ocean water, however, there is
324 still a clear missing link on specific policies to monitor and manage daily oxygen variability. While attention

325 has been given to ocean warming and acidification, daily oxygen dynamics have been overlooked in
326 assessing marine habitat or species' sensitivity to climate changes and anthropogenic disturbances.
327 Including ecologically relevant variations of oxygen availability into aquatic biodiversity indicators, in
328 addition to continuous and high temporal resolution oxygen and chemical concentration measurements in
329 the sediment and water column, offers a great opportunity to refine and produce more robust predictors
330 that will be able to disentangle better the response of aquatic ecosystems to climate change and
331 anthropogenic disturbances (Dafforn et al., 2012).

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

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

349

350 **Data availability**

351 All the data are available as supplementary material.

352

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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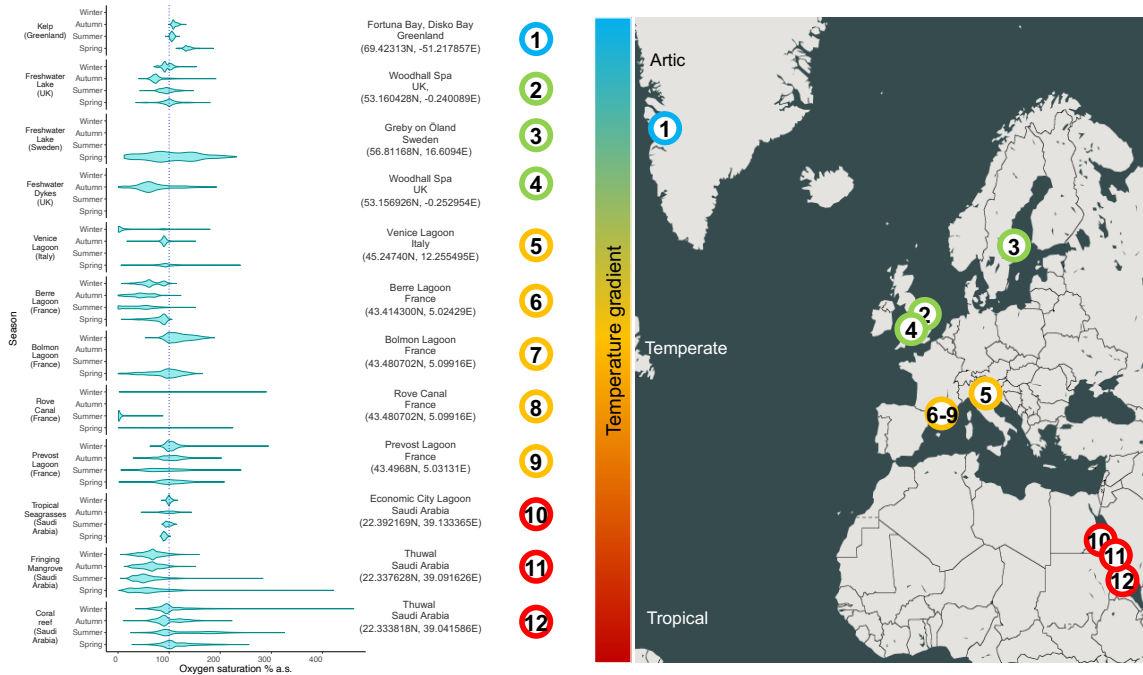
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596

597 **Figure captions**

598

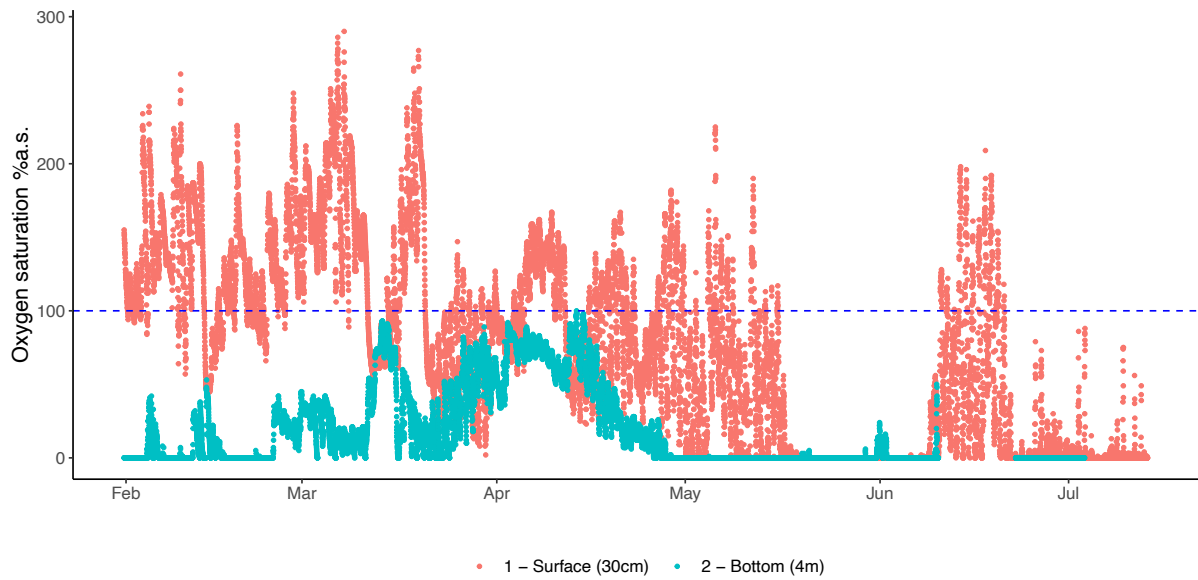
599 **Figure 1.** Range of oxygen saturations in several productive aquatic habitats. The dashed line represents
 600 100% oxygen saturation. The violin plots report the densities of the frequencies of oxygen saturation
 601 measured at each ecosystem across different seasons (based on data availability). Data source is specified
 602 for each environment in the Supplementary Dataset for Figures 1 and 2.



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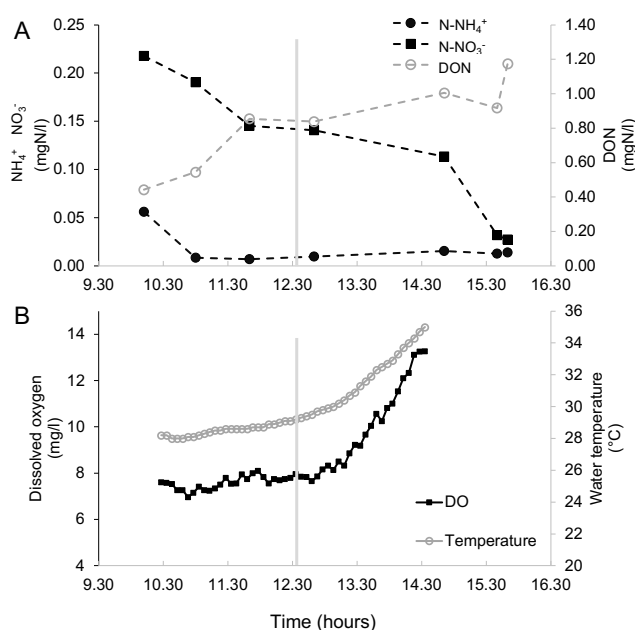
605 **Figure 2.** Fluctuations of oxygen saturation measured at the bottom (4 m) and surface (30 cm) oxygen
606 saturation of the Rove canal in France highlight the contrast between the two depths of eutrophicated
607 coastal environment from the winter to summer. The analysis of these case studies revealed different power
608 to predict oxygen variation.



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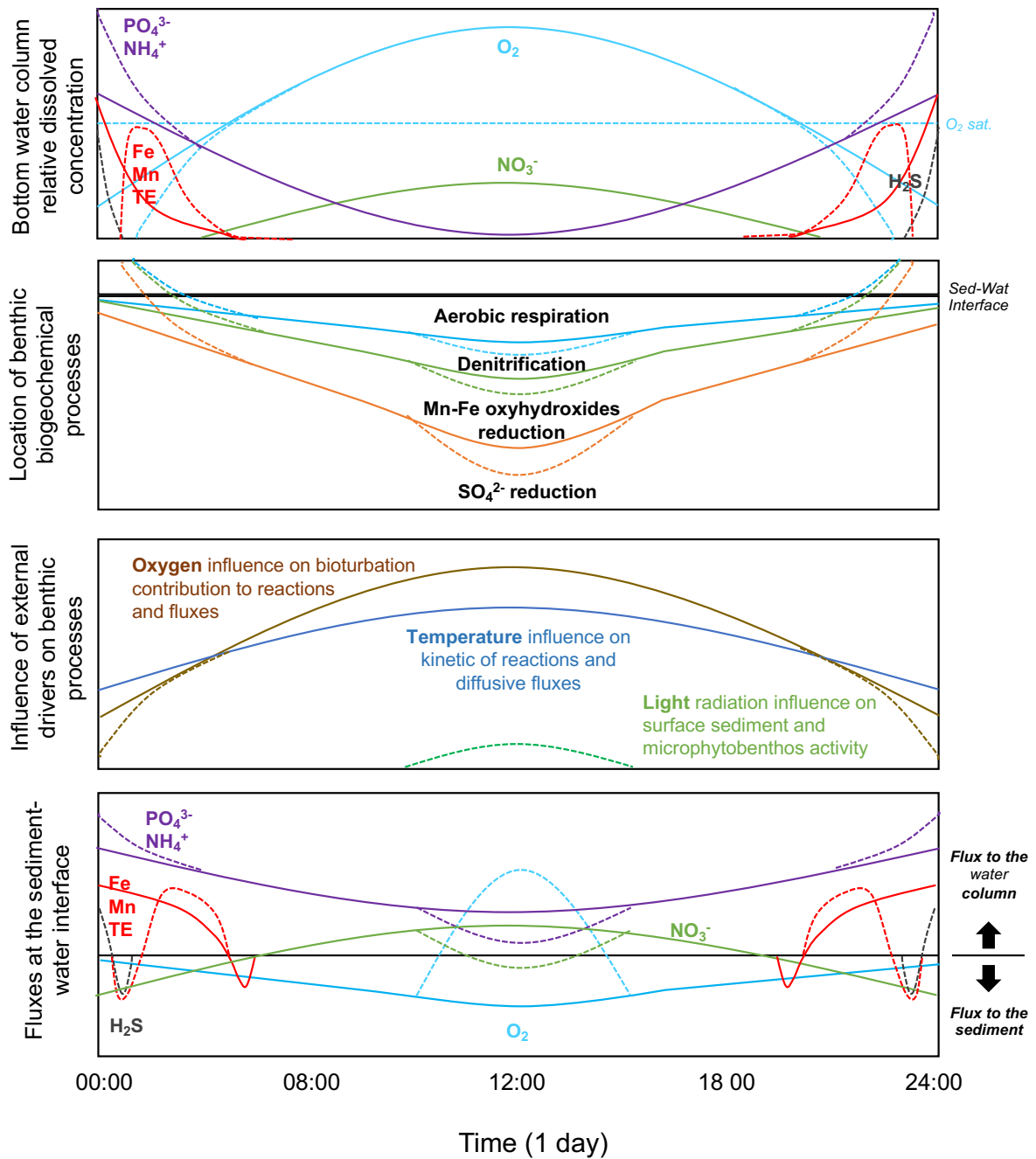
610

611 **Figure 3.** Nutrient concentration, dissolved oxygen and water temperature measurements in the water of
 612 a salt marsh of the Northern Venice Lagoon (Italy) on August 13th, 2015. **(A)** The concentration of
 613 different nitrogen forms in the marsh water (notice the two different vertical axes) over time in the central
 614 part of the day. Measurements are made in the water entering the marsh (flood phase, left of the vertical
 615 grey line, which indicates the tidal peak) and quitting from the salt marsh (ebb phase, right of the vertical
 616 grey line). After some time spent in the marsh, which is flooded by tide twice per day, water becomes
 617 depleted in inorganic nutrients, presumably due to the uptake by primary producers, exchanges with the
 618 sediments, and (in the case of ammonium) nitrification. Concurrently, water is enriched with dissolved
 619 organic nitrogen related to the intense biological activity within the marsh. **(B)** Dissolved oxygen and
 620 temperature of the water entering the marsh (flood phase, left of the vertical grey line, which indicates the
 621 tidal peak) and water quitting from the salt marsh (ebb phase, right of the vertical grey line) over time in
 622 the central part of the day. Notably, in the biologically productive habitat of the marsh enriches in dissolved
 623 oxygen the water, paralleled by an increase in water temperature.
 624



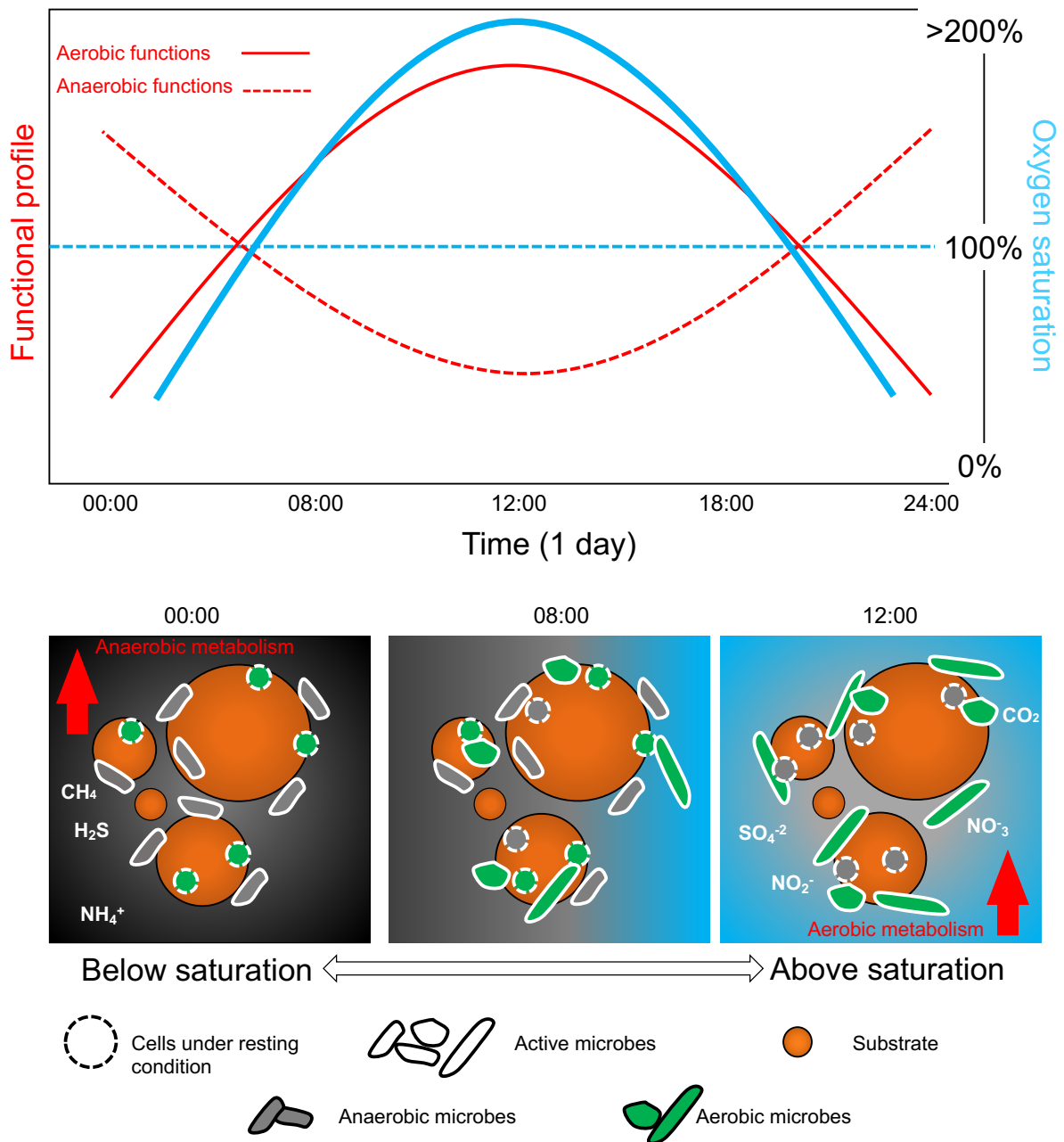
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626 **Figure 4.** Scheme of the benthic biogeochemical cycle in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. Relative
 627 evolution of the bottom water chemical composition and evolution of the location of the most important
 628 biogeochemical processes in the benthic compartment. Relative influence of external drivers on benthic
 629 processes. Relative evolution of resulting flux direction and intensity. Note that the graphs are not drawn
 630 to scale. Although concentrations of PO_4^{3-} and NH_4^+ and of Mn and Fe may behave differently, they are
 631 represented as similar in this figure for simplification.



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634 **Figure 5.** Daily bacterial community cycle scheme in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. Relative shift of
 635 microbial community controlled by the oxygen availability that controls the ratio between aerobic and
 636 anaerobic taxa and their relative function. Oxygen fluctuation is important to determine the diel cycling of
 637 the bacterial communities that, in turn, affect the biogeochemistry and the overall functioning of the aquatic
 638 ecosystems. Note that the graphs are not drawn to scale.



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