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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

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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 and seasonal scales, exposing aquatic
35 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., 2023). The perception of
59 such knowledge gap is progressively moving the research interest on species' ecophysiological response to
60 chemico-physical parameters, such as temperature, salinity or pH, and the associated biogeochemical cycles,
61 toward more accurate assessments of their natural variability (Antão et al., 2020; Bernhardt et al., 2020).
62 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).

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



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

75

76 **2. Oxygen trends and stochastic variations**

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

87 The gradual decrease of total oxygen in oceans has been reported in several studies that analyse long time
88 trends (Keeling et al., 2010; Schmidtko et al., 2017; Breitburg et al., 2018) and from reports at the global
89 geographical scale (Laffoley and Baxter, 2016). However, unexpected oxygen profiles have also been
90 reported in several specific habitats and at different time scales suggesting that different abiotic and biotic
91 drivers modulate oxygen dynamics (Craig and Hayward, 1983). For instance, the alternation of oxygen
92 biological production and consumption determines massive fluctuation of its availability in highly
93 productive aquatic habitats, such as mangrove forests, salt marshes, coral reefs (Giomi et al., 2019; Fusi et
94 al., 2021; Booth et al., 2021), kelp forests (Krause-Jensen et al., 2016), plankton blooms in the open oceans
95 (Riser and Johnson, 2008; Benoiston et al., 2017), freshwater lakes (Andersen et al., 2017) or even in
96 agricultural drainage channels (Booth et al., 2023). Stochastic variation of oxygen availability principally
97 depends upon abiotic factors and may determine extensive conditions of uneven oxygenation on small and
98 large spatial and temporal scales. Changes in wind, irradiance, temperature, and atmospheric pressure
99 influence dissolved oxygen concentrations at the air-water interface (Emerson et al., 2002; Hull et al., 2008).
100 The upwelling of nutrient-rich-poorly oxygenated waters affects oxygen concentrations in the ocean water



101 column, ranging from undersaturation in the deep seawater to supersaturation in the mixing front,
102 determined by an intensified biological activity (Emerson et al., 2002).

103

104 **3. Seasonal and diel oxygen fluctuations**

105 Technological advances in environmental monitoring by high-frequency logging allow capturing the
106 seasonal and even the diel oxygen fluctuations (Bates et al., 2018). Seasonal diel oxygen variations are
107 increasingly reported at all latitudes and habitats and occur in a vast range of water bodies independently
108 of the scale, the hydrological features and the local biotic components (Figure 1). For example, fluctuations
109 of 150% in spring and 30% in winter occur in the Venice lagoon (Figure 1, Location 5), and even more
110 pronounced fluctuations occur in mangroves, corals and seagrasses (Figure 1, systems 10-12; Giomi et al.,
111 2019). The magnitude of oxygen fluctuations is site-specific and depends, among other factors, on the solar
112 radiation and water temperature and their effect on primary producers' photosynthetic and respiration
113 activity, the cycles of water column stratification and mixing, and the nutrient loads. In highly productive
114 marine environments, increased dissolved oxygen concentration may occur in spring due to the
115 intensification of photosynthetic activity, followed by a decrease of available oxygen during the warmest
116 months and a progressive recovery in autumn and winter (Cowan et al., 1996; Bartoli et al., 2001; Kim et
117 al., 2019). Spatial differences in oxygen saturation occur between surface and bottom water masses because
118 of isolation driven by water stratification, the decrease of light penetration, and the coupling with increased
119 oxygen demand close to the sediments at the bottom of the water column (Figure 2). In summer, enhanced
120 benthic respiration is determined by higher water temperature, which decreases oxygen solubility and
121 enhances oxygen demand. Lower vertical mixing and higher water residence time, and higher turbidity due
122 to higher concentration of organic matter, further decrease oxygen concentrations down to hypoxia in the
123 deep water layers (Figure 2; Talke et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2019). Conversely, dissolved oxygen increases
124 in the euphotic part of the water column because of the enrichment of photosynthetic communities (Spietz
125 et al., 2015). The annual cycle of the ice cover regulates the seawater oxygen regime in polar environments,
126 with depletion in winter and re-oxygenation during the spring (Deshpande et al., 2017; Zhan et al., 2014).
127 Marked oxygen variations also occur at a diel scale driven by temperature and light diel cycles and by the
128 balance between photosynthesis and respiration (Winter et al., 2019). The amplitude of diel oxygen variation



129 can exceed the average seasonal variation, thus being variable with higher explanatory power for the
130 physiology of aquatic life (Giomi et al., 2019). While water temperature is only linked to meteorological
131 changes, the oxygen concentration in productive aquatic environments is also regulated by the biota
132 component (Chapman, 2021). Community composition of primary producers (Power and Cardinale, 2009),
133 rainfall level (Mallin et al., 1993), nutrients' runoff (Kinney and Roman, 1998), biotic networks (Graham et
134 al., 2018; Breen and Mann, 1976), and bacterial community dynamics (Guo et al., 2022), govern, at a small
135 scale, high spatial and temporal change in the concentrations of dissolved oxygen. The interaction of all
136 these factors strongly affects dissolved oxygen fluctuations beyond the levels that can be predicted from
137 just the meteorological trends.

138

139 **4. The oxygen variation in the day-life of aquatic organisms**

140 Oxygen availability plays an important role in the physiology of aquatic species (Pörtner, 2010; Hochachka,
141 1991; Stillman and Somero, 2000). In the design of experiments on the physiology of aquatic animals,
142 oxygen is frequently treated as a fixed factor and maintained around the water saturation. However,
143 organisms inhabiting aquatic environments experience ample diel oxygen fluctuations and are adapted to
144 endure or respond to the experienced variation (Blewett et al., 2022; Morash et al., 2018). Oxygen may be
145 systematically depleted at night and fully recovered during the day, changes that certainly have consequences
146 on the tolerance to acute stressors such as hypoxia and warming. Dependent on the intensity of the
147 photosynthetic activity, dissolved oxygen concentrations can reach levels far above the physical saturation
148 (Giomi et al., 2019; McArley et al., 2020). Under such hyperoxic conditions, aquatic organisms experience
149 oxygen availability well beyond their physiological needs, but the effects on their physiology and life history
150 are largely unknown.

151 Hyperoxia benefits the metabolic performance of fishes and invertebrates, especially under acute warming
152 that may be very intense in tidal ponds or shallow coastal habitats (Fusi et al., 2021; Booth et al., 2021;
153 Giomi et al., 2019; McArley et al., 2020; Booth et al., 2023). It extends the upper thermal tolerance of
154 aquatic animals during acute events of daily warming and their survival to anomalous heat waves (McArley
155 et al., 2022). Within the current trend of climate change, the beneficial effect of hyperoxia against extreme
156 heating events can have underestimated positive consequences on the survival of the animals. For instance,



157 an important consequence of exposure to the hyperoxic conditions experienced during the daytime under
158 high heating regimes is the enhanced capability to extract oxygen from the poorly oxygenated water during
159 the night and endure hypoxic or even anoxic periods (Giomi et al., 2019; Booth et al., 2021).

160 Oxygen fluctuations are also appreciated as a factor contributing to the structuring of organismal networks
161 and in the synchronization of life history dynamics such as spawning or larval recruitment (Garzke et al.,
162 2019; Viaroli and Christian, 2004).

163

164 **5. The role of oxygen fluctuation in coastal biogeochemical cycles**

165 *5.1 Biogeochemical cycles in the pelagic compartment in relation to oxygen fluctuation*

166 Fixation of CO₂ and nutrients and the consequent accumulation of organic matter is the main natural
167 process that occurs along coastal areas and transfer excess carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous from the
168 surface layers to the sediment, atmosphere, and open ocean (Rabouille et al., 2001). The transfer of carbon,
169 nitrogen and phosphorous are regulated by multiple processes involving a smaller space-time scale where
170 oxygen availability is the strongest driver (Figure 3). The concentration of oxygen and the horizontal surface
171 distribution of nutrients together with surface phytoplankton and zooplankton are influenced by currents
172 which are affected by the winds combined with the Earth's rotation, *i.e.*, the Coriolis effect, and by inputs
173 from coastal zones (Legendre, 2014; Lévy et al., 2018; Rabouille et al., 2001). The daily and/or seasonal
174 water column stratification, determined by the vertical gradient of the chemical-physical parameters,
175 influences primary production. In the euphotic zone (global average depth, 65 m), phytoplankton is
176 responsible for carbon fixation and the biogeochemical cycles of nitrogen, phosphorus, and silicates and
177 modulates the daily fluctuations of dissolved oxygen in the superficial layers (Litchman et al., 2015; Le
178 Quéré et al., 2016). The concentration of sinking organic material is influenced by the activity of the
179 autotrophic components (production of oxygen and sinking of organic material in the form of
180 phytoplankton) and of the heterotrophic components (faster sinking of marine snow and single cells with
181 higher density and consumption of organic material with consequent reduction of dissolved oxygen)
182 (Falkowski, 1994; Litchman et al., 2015; Howarth et al., 2011). This varies on a daily and/or seasonal scale,
183 depending on the stratification of the water column and the dissolved oxygen fluctuations that influence
184 the nycthemeral displacement, the permanence of zooplankton and the consumption of organic matter.



185 On a global scale, the difference in density of the water column caused by the chemical-physical vertical
186 gradient induces the thermohaline circulation of the water mass and consequently may enrich the
187 concentrations of dissolved oxygen and nutrients on the seabed (Legendre, 2014; Ulloa and Pantoja, 2009).
188 Some areas do not have a temporal regularity, such as upwelling areas (Eastern Boundary Upwelling
189 Systems EBUS) and/or areas characterized by weak currents (*e.g.*, lagoons) in which the increase in primary
190 productivity that follows nutrient increase, favours an oxygen increase followed by hypoxic and anoxic
191 conditions of the waters. Algal blooms combined with stratification of the water column inhibit daily
192 dissolved oxygen fluctuations and favour the permanence of anoxic conditions of the more superficial
193 layers of the OMZs (Ulloa and Pantoja, 2009). As a result, the uptake of nutrients by the autotrophic
194 component is inhibited, and the rate of oxygen production and consumption and the consumption of
195 organic matter are reduced, thus affecting the biogeochemical feedback, especially in coastal ecosystems.

196

197 ***5.2 Biogeochemical cycles in the benthic environments in relation to oxygen fluctuation***

198 *5.2.1. General aspect of the coastal benthic biogeochemistry.* Coastal areas are generally characterized by relatively
199 limited water column height and biogeochemical cycles in these environments are tightly coupled to benthic
200 processes and associated chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface (Soetaert et al., 2000). The
201 physico-chemistry of the water column strongly impacts the biogeochemical reactions occurring in surface
202 sediment and chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface, which in return impacts the water column
203 biogeochemistry. In coastal environments, sediment is the main reservoir of organic matter (OM) from
204 pelagic productivity. Most sedimentary OM is re-mineralized by biogeochemical pathways depending on
205 the availability of electron acceptors, from the most to the least energetically favourable: oxygen, nitrate,
206 Mn oxides, Fe oxides and sulfate (Burdige, 2005). These reactions are biologically mediated by
207 heterotrophic organisms, which promotes aerobic respiration when oxygen is present, anaerobic respiration
208 by denitrification in the presence of nitrate, particulate Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides reduction when they are
209 available, and sulphate reduction (see also section 6). Those reactions consume OM and oxidants to release
210 chemicals from the degradation of OM (CO_2 , NH_4^+ , PO_4^{3-}) and by-products of each reaction (N_2 , Mn and
211 Fe, H_2S) that accumulate in porewaters. Because the availability of oxidants decreases in the sediment during
212 burial, the biogeochemical reactions are vertically zoned in the sediment, with concentration gradients



213 occurring between the water column and the different layers of the sediment (Konhauser, 2007). These
214 gradients govern the direction of the dissolved chemical species migration (Schulz, 2006). Oxygen
215 availability also affects the structure and composition of the benthic macrofauna community and related
216 bioturbation processes that, by sediment reworking, impact the efficiency of biogeochemical reactions and
217 the nature and the intensity of the chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface by bio-irrigation
218 process (Sturdivant et al., 2012). In the sediments exposed to the tidal range, such as those where mangroves
219 thrive, the burrowing and sediment reworking activity of crabs and other animals expose the deeper parts
220 of the sediment to oxygen, creating a “halo effect” where the redox potential is increased respect to the
221 undisturbed sediments and the availability of energetically favourable electron acceptors, such as oxygen
222 and nitrate, is higher (Booth et al., 2019a, b). As oxygen is the most energetically favourable oxidant
223 involved in the mineralization pathways and directly involved in the micro- and macro-biological
224 communities and activities in surface sediment, its availability in overlying water thus appears as the most
225 important driver of the biogeochemical cycles and transfer in the benthic environment.

226

227 *5.2.2. Impact on benthic environment biogeochemistry at the seasonal steady-state scale.* At the seasonal scale, it is well
228 known that the decrease of oxygen concentrations in the water column lower the oxygen penetration depth
229 in the sediment and the relative contribution of aerobic processes in the OM mineralization (Middelburg
230 and Levin, 2009). It induces an upward migration of anaerobic processes and release of Mn, Fe and
231 nutrients (PO_4^{3-} and NH_4^+ and other redox-sensitive trace elements) to the water column (Konhauser,
232 2007). The occurrence of long and strong O_2 depletion (*i.e.*, anoxia) in the water column may induce the
233 release of toxic H_2S (Rigaud et al., 2013). Under low oxygen conditions, macrofauna density, diversity and
234 activity are also generally reduced, along with reworking processes, affecting negatively O_2 penetration
235 depth and solute transfer (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995). In contrast, when the water column is well
236 oxygenated, aerobic processes are favoured in the surface sediment and anaerobic processes remain deeper
237 in sediment, preventing the release of reduced chemical species to the water column (Middelburg and Levin,
238 2009). When oxygen is non-limiting, high macrofauna diversity and activity are favoured, promoting oxygen
239 penetration in the sediment and the associated aerobic processes. In such situations, higher oxygen
240 concentrations enhance OM remineralization rates and chemical release rates. At the seasonal scale, high



241 oxygen concentrations are generally encountered in winter with lower temperatures, while the lowest
242 oxygen concentrations occur in summer with high temperatures (Figure 2). Temperature not only governs
243 biogeochemical reaction kinetics, molecular diffusive transport rates and biological activity, but in synergy
244 with oxygen concentration in the water column, it also drives the nature and intensity of the biogeochemical
245 reactions at the seasonal scale.

246

247 *5.2.3. Impact on benthic environment biogeochemistry at diurnal scale.* When temperature and oxygen concentration
248 in the water column fluctuate at short daily time scale, yet with very large amplitude (from anoxia/hypoxia
249 to hyperoxia), the impact on biogeochemical cycles and chemical transfers is mostly unknown. Based on
250 the trends observed at seasonal “steady-state” conditions, a conceptual model on the location of the major
251 benthic processes in the sediment and the resulting fluxes at the sediment-water interface within the diurnal
252 temporal scale can be drawn (Figure 4).

253 As oxygen penetration depth and concentration in sediment is known to rapidly evolve in response to the
254 oxygen concentration in the overlying water (Glud, 2008), the importance of aerobic process in surface
255 sediment is also expected to fluctuate at the diurnal timescale, with higher contribution during the day than
256 during the night. The fast kinetics of the reductive dissolution/oxidative precipitation of Mn and Fe oxy-
257 hydroxides and the redox cycle of S chemical species (*i.e.*, H₂S/SO₄²⁻) suggests that those chemical species
258 should evolve with a similar trend over daily timescales, with a reasonable short term (minutes-hours) delay
259 (Rigaud et al., 2018). Consequently, we expect a vertical fluctuation of those biogeochemical redox
260 processes in the sediment and related fluxes under diel oxygen fluctuation (Figure 4). The low oxygen
261 concentration at night should induce a lower oxygen penetration depth and an upward distribution of NO₃⁻,
262 Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides and SO₄²⁻ reductions. If the oxygen concentration is low enough, the reductive
263 dissolution of Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides may directly occur at the sediment-water interface, inducing their
264 release to the water column with other chemical species associated with these phases (*i.e.*, PO₄³⁻ and most
265 trace elements). In the specific case of anoxia, the sulfate-reduction process may occur at the sediment
266 surface, releasing H₂S to the water column. It is expected that in such a condition, the release of dissolved
267 metals (Fe, Mn and trace elements), which also present a rapid kinetic for metal sulfide formation in the
268 presence of S(-II), can be reduced and likely reverted (Figure 4). In contrast, the increase of oxygen



269 concentration during the day promotes oxygen penetration in the sediment and the oxidation of reduced
270 species accumulated during the night, such as dissolved Mn, Fe, NH_4^+ and eventually H_2S , preventing their
271 release from the sediment. The reconstitution of the Mn/Fe oxyhydroxide reservoir in surface sediment
272 favours the trapping of PO_4^{3-} and trace elements associated with Fe and Mn cycles. The oxidation of NH_4^+
273 induces the formation of NO_2^- and NO_3^- that may be released from the sediment.

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

284 For OM mineralization processes, the effects of short-term oxygen fluctuation are more challenging to
285 predict. It will also be dependent on the capacity of heterotrophs to react/adapt to the changing oxygen
286 concentrations and eventually shift between different metabolic processes (for microorganisms where
287 variables metabolic pathways coexist) or to activate/cease the process in relation to physicochemical
288 conditions and oxidant availability (for microorganisms with specialized metabolisms). Consequently, the
289 dynamic response of the microbial community to short-term oxygen and chemical fluctuations needs to be
290 investigated in more detail in relation to microbial communities' resilience and adaptation capacity (see
291 section 6).

292 In productive coastal areas, the benthic organisms, including macro and meiofaunal species, adapt to large
293 and rapid daily oxygen variation by modifying their behaviour. The bioturbating activity may be favoured
294 during high oxygen concentration and lowered during conditions of low oxygen availability. We expect that,
295 during the night oxygen deficiency, the benthic organism activity is reduced, inducing a decrease in the
296 sediment reworking intensity. This is accompanied by a reduction of the biologically-mediated solute fluxes



297 at the sediment-water interface and oxygen penetration depth in the sediment. In contrast, during oxygen
298 supersaturation occurring in the day, bioturbation is intensified and may induce a short-term change in the
299 contribution of biologically-mediated reactions and transfers. Here also, a delay between the oxygen
300 fluctuation in the water column and the biogeochemical response of the sediment, related to the biological
301 activity, would depend on site characteristics (oxygen concentration and range of fluctuation, bioturbating
302 species). For instance, in areas where anoxia events are recurrent, the absence of macrofauna prevents
303 bioturbation and its influence on the benthic biogeochemistry (Nilsson and Rosenberg, 1997).
304 In response to large amplitude and diel oxygen fluctuations, the sediment' biogeochemical cycles are also
305 expected to fluctuate (Figure 4). However, as the resulting benthic biogeochemistry cycles are associated
306 with the dynamics of three interdependent compartments (*i.e.*, geochemical composition, microbial
307 communities, bioturbating-faunal communities), each presenting its kinetics and responses to oxygen
308 fluctuations, we expect the sediment to be permanently maintained under unsteady-state conditions. This
309 makes it difficult to quantitatively predict the resulting OM mineralization rates, the proportion of involved
310 processes, and the chemical transfers at the sediment-water interface. The recent development of tools
311 which can measure the chemical composition and sediment-water fluxes over the short-term scale (*i.e.*,
312 microsensors, eddy covariance technic, gradient-flux method), in addition to benthic microbial and
313 macrofaunal activity (*e.g.*, improved sediment profile imaging), may be beneficial to produce experimental
314 data that will help to fill these gaps in understanding. At the same time, specific efforts should be focused
315 on assessing the isolated response to those three different compartments. Those data should then be
316 implemented to appropriately calibrate non-steady-state coupled pelagic-benthic biogeochemical models,
317 which can predict the resulting biogeochemical functioning of productive coastal ecosystems and, thus, to
318 predict their fate under climatic changes.

319

320 **6. The interrelationship of oxygen fluctuation and aquatic microbial communities**

321 Oxygen is a two-faced element that acts as the terminal electron acceptor in aerobic respiration (by far the
322 most efficient energy metabolism) and as an element of toxicity because the reduction of O₂ molecules
323 partly results in reactive oxygen species. For this reason, oxygen remains a strong evolutionary force
324 dominating functional interactions and the spatial structure of many microbial communities (Fenchel and



325 Finlay, 2008). Oxygen availability determines microbial metabolism, and many studies have been carried
326 out to elucidate the different kinds of communities and metabolisms occurring under anaerobic or aerobic
327 conditions (Sandrin et al., 2009). Marine microorganisms in productive coastal environments also
328 experience large oxygen diel fluctuations, especially at the boundary layer between sediment/primary
329 producers and water (Pacherres et al., 2022).

330 Assessing the full environmental oxygen variability in aquatic habitats using high-resolution temporal and
331 spatial scales relevant to microorganisms can reveal in detail the complexity of the patterns of community
332 dynamics and diversity in such oxygen-variable environments (Berg et al., 2022). For example, oxygen
333 largely varies during the day in tropical clear shallow waters because of the photosynthetic activity of
334 seagrasses, corals and mangroves (Giomi et al., 2019). Therefore, the microbial communities in these
335 ecosystems can experience environmental conditions ranging from hyperoxia to anoxia (see the oxygen
336 profile in Figure 2). These fluctuations imply that the microbial communities have to shift their composition
337 and function according to the oxygen availability (Fenchel and Finlay, 2008). Microorganisms generally
338 have a short generation time (and high turnover) that favour timely adaptation to new conditions in a
339 changing environment (Steiner et al., 2019). During low oxygen availability at night-time, bacterial
340 communities will shift their composition and function toward anaerobic function. End products of
341 anaerobic metabolisms such as ammonium, sulphur and methane are consumed when oxygen becomes
342 available again during the daylight and the recovery of photosynthesis, re-establishing aerobic respiration
343 as the central metabolism of the microbial communities (Fenchel and Finlay, 2008). For example, in the
344 Bohai Sea (China), under oxygen concentration lower than 4.2 mg/L the microbial communities were
345 dominated by bacteria of the *Anaerolineaceae* (Guo et al., 2022). In Chilean coast ecosystems, the composition
346 of the bacterial communities is regulated by the seasonality of the upwelling waters, with the partitioning
347 of community composition driven by dissolved oxygen. *Bacteroidetes*, SAR11, SAR86 and *Alphaproteobacteria*
348 dominated in waters containing dissolved oxygen concentrations higher than 70 μM . In contrast, taxonomic
349 groups such as Arctic96BD-19, SUP05, SAR324 and *Desulfobacterales* were observed at dissolved oxygen
350 concentrations below 70 μM to undetectable levels (Aldunate et al., 2018). The continuous variation of
351 oxygen concentration enhances the diel cycling of nutrients in productive coastal environments,



352 highlighting the importance of assessing the ecologically relevant oxygen fluctuations to determine the
353 effective microbial functionality of the marine coastal ecosystem (Trowbridge et al., 2017).
354 The heterogeneity of oxygen availability that drives microbial communities' composition is not only
355 temporal but also spatial. In shallow-productive marine environments, animal bioturbation is one of the
356 main forces that allows oxygen to penetrate in waterlogged anoxic sediment and change the physico-
357 chemical conditions, reshaping the microbial community assembly and functionality. Local accumulations
358 of particulate OM and ventilated animal burrows mimic a mosaic of anaerobic and aerobic patches at a
359 centimetre to sub-millimetre scale that changes the composition of the microbial assemblages, determining
360 a significant consistent zonation around the burrow (Booth et al., 2019a, b). Incorporating methods to
361 assess the ecologically relevant variability of oxygen availability, intensity and synchronicity in future
362 experimental designs will generate a more accurate prediction of the response of bacterial communities and
363 therefore their potential for biogeochemical cycling to climate change, better informing the development
364 of management strategies to mitigate detrimental stressor impact on ecosystems effectively.
365 The current challenge in microbial ecology is to understand the widespread temporal and spatial
366 environmental oxygen variability and switch from the “mean conditions paradigm” often used for
367 investigations of microbial ecological processes to a dynamic model able to capture the microbial changing
368 and functional potential under oxygen fluctuating conditions (Fusi et al., 2022).

369

370 **7. Implications for marine assessment and management**

371 Oxygen production is considered an ecosystem service (<https://cices.eu/>) because of the benefits humans
372 receive, but, to date, there is limited inclusion of the impacts of deoxygenation or oxygen fluctuation in
373 marine environmental policies. As such, there has been a lack of oxygen dynamics' integration into the
374 computation of biodiversity indicators that assess aquatic communities (Breitburg et al., 2019; Chen et al.,
375 2022).

376 Policies on pollution or nutrient control had a positive effect on the oxygen level in ocean water, however,
377 there is still a clear missing link on specific policies to monitor and manage oxygen. While attention has
378 been given to ocean warming and acidification, oxygen dynamics have been overlooked in assessing marine
379 habitat or species' sensitivity to climate changes and anthropogenic disturbances. Including ecologically



380 relevant variations of oxygen availability into aquatic biodiversity indicators, in addition to continuous and
381 high temporal resolution oxygen and chemical concentration measurements in the sediment and water
382 column, offers a great opportunity to refine and produce more robust predictors that will be able to
383 disentangle better the response of aquatic ecosystems to climate change and anthropogenic disturbances
384 (Dafforn et al., 2012). This would allow changes to be detected and identify areas where climate change's
385 effects are (will) likely more severe. Managing or addressing the impacts of deoxygenation could also help
386 to enhance biodiversity.

387 Understanding the rules that govern primary producers and their role in controlling the diel oxygen
388 provision in aquatic habitats becomes pivotal to protect or restore the oxygen regime that can benefit
389 aquatic ecosystems. Accurate investigation of oxygen cycles can have direct implications for management.
390 For example, it can help early detection of oxygen disruption and therefore understand the vulnerability of
391 many aerobic species. It can also help to understand the probability of shifts to anaerobic metabolisms that
392 can significantly affect many components of marine ecosystems. For example, it could provide information
393 on how to engineer anthropogenic structures (for example, offshore energy power plants; *e.g.*, Inger et al.,
394 2009) to increase the growth of primary producers. Off-shore facilities are proliferating in high-energy
395 environments, like the North Sea, following the huge demand for renewable energy. Beyond energy
396 production platforms, they can serve as artificial habitats for marine fauna by cultivating marine
397 macrophytes (Duarte et al., 2022; Koschorreck et al., 2020). They can attract marine fauna by providing
398 shelter, but at the same time, they can provide thermal resistance by enhancing the oxygen level of the
399 adjacent waters. Primary producers can provide habitat protection; for example, Maerl beds are important
400 spawning grounds for anchovies in cold water and Maerl photosynthetic activity can benefit the
401 development of the anchovy embryos (Berg et al., 2022). Along with other important functional roles, such
402 as providing a pH buffer Field (Duarte et al., 2013) and pathogen protection Field (Lamb et al., 2017),
403 aquatic primary producers can enrich the oxygen and be used to ameliorate and also protect aquatic
404 biodiversity. Moreover, the value of oxygen production can be aggregated with carbon sequestration by
405 blue carbon ecosystems, one of the most important buffers against climate change (Macreadie et al., 2021).
406 Monitoring oxygen dynamics will need the effective implementation of a data management system, with



407 rigorous quality control and leadership by a globally recognized oceanography data centre that provides
408 open access for use in science and policy.
409 Moving forward, ecological research incorporating the role of oxygen variation in aquatic habitats will offer
410 valuable progress, bringing together scientists and stakeholders to develop natural-based solutions to
411 human impact (Gattuso et al., 2018). In this contribution, based on recent research, we provide evidence
412 that the fluctuating oxygen creates a spatial and temporal heterogeneous aquatic oxygen landscape that we
413 have defined here as “oxyscape”. The oxyscape—having an important role for aquatic animal physiology
414 and adaptation and the ecosystem biogeochemistry—should be considered in the modelling and managing
415 policies of aquatic ecosystems to capture the ecologically relevant oxygen fluctuation. Understanding the
416 oxyscape can help to reconsider the dynamics of many productive aquatic ecosystems and we, therefore,
417 call on ecologists to rethink their models and experiments in this light. This would increase understanding
418 of variations and resilience of communities to changes in environmental conditions at the scales of space
419 and time relevant to individual components.

420

421 **Author contributions**

422 MF and FG conceived the study and wrote sections 1 to 4. AB, GG, SR, FG wrote section 5.1 and 5.2 and
423 provided data for the Mediterranean sites. MF, RM and DD wrote section 6 and provided data for the Red
424 Sea. MF, LP and CVH wrote section 7. All the authors discussed and reviewed the final version.

425

426 **Competing interests**

427 The contact author has declared that none of the authors have competing interests.

428

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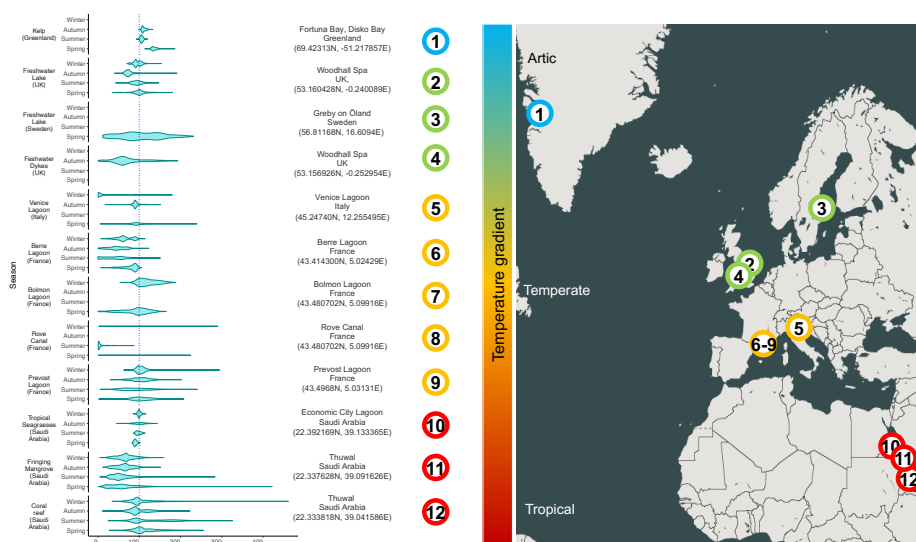
714 **Figure captions**

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716 **Figure 1.** Range of oxygen saturations in several productive aquatic habitats. The dashed line represents
 717 100% oxygen saturation. The violin plots report the densities of the frequencies of oxygen saturation
 718 measured at each ecosystem across different season (based on data availability). Data source is specified for
 719 each environment in the Supplementary Dataset for Figure 1 and 2.

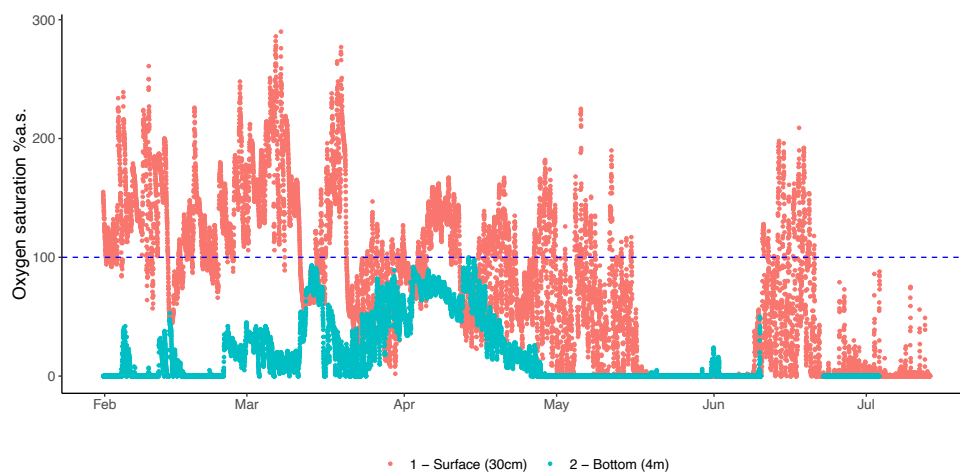
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722 **Figure 2.** Fluctuation of oxygen saturation measured at the bottom (4 m) and surface (30 cm) oxygen
723 saturation of the Rove canal in France that highlight the contrast between the two depths of eutrophicated
724 coastal environment from the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

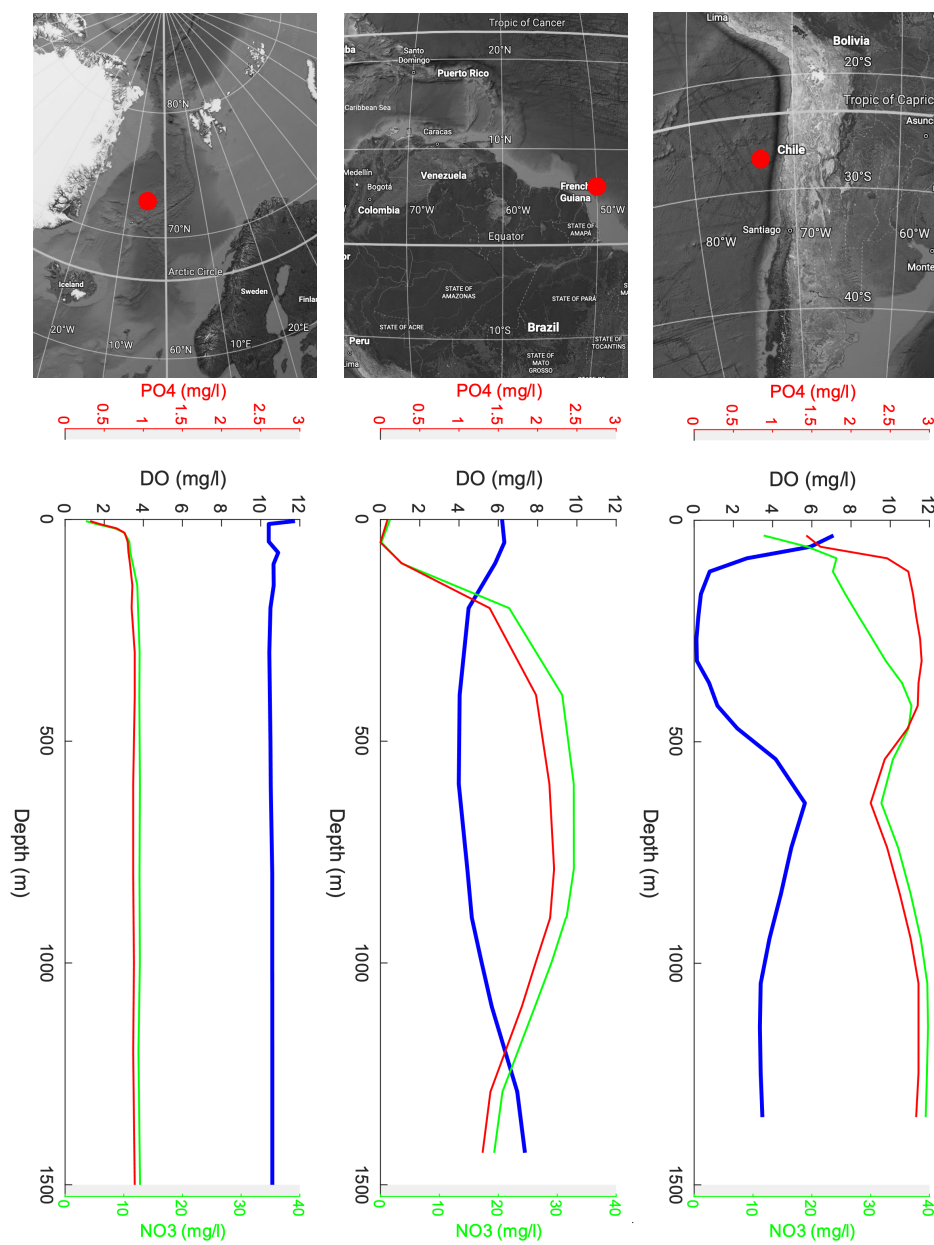


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728 **Figure 3.** Concentration of nitrate and phosphate and their interdependence correlation with oxygen
729 concentration in the water column at three latitudes, polar, tropical and temperate. At the three latitudes
730 three different regimes of dissolved oxygen/nutrient concentration occur. Data analysis was performed
731 from the CCHDO dataset. Each point on the map represents a single bottle closure from the same cruise
732 that sampled water quality at increasing depths. We consider data from the warmer seasons: polar data were
733 sampled in May 2009 (polar), tropical data in January 2002 (tropical) and temperate data in September 2014
734 (temperate). Polar water has higher concentrations of oxygen and less pronounced fluctuations. The denser
735 water sinks to the ocean floor and enters the thermohaline circulation. The deep waters of the temperate
736 zone show the passage of this circulation with oxygen concentrations in the bathypelagic water (depth >
737 1000 m) higher than in mesopelagic water. In the euphotic zone of the coastal area (temperate and tropical
738 water on the map) there is a greater variability and reduction of oxygen with the increase of nutrients
739 assimilated by autotrophs and consequently by the heterotrophs. The temperate zone of the Pacific Ocean
740 shows a strong correlation between dissolved oxygen and nutrients that increases the productivity of these
741 areas which may lead to eutrophication. The maps has been generated using © Google Earth (2023) accessed
742 the 22nd February 2023).

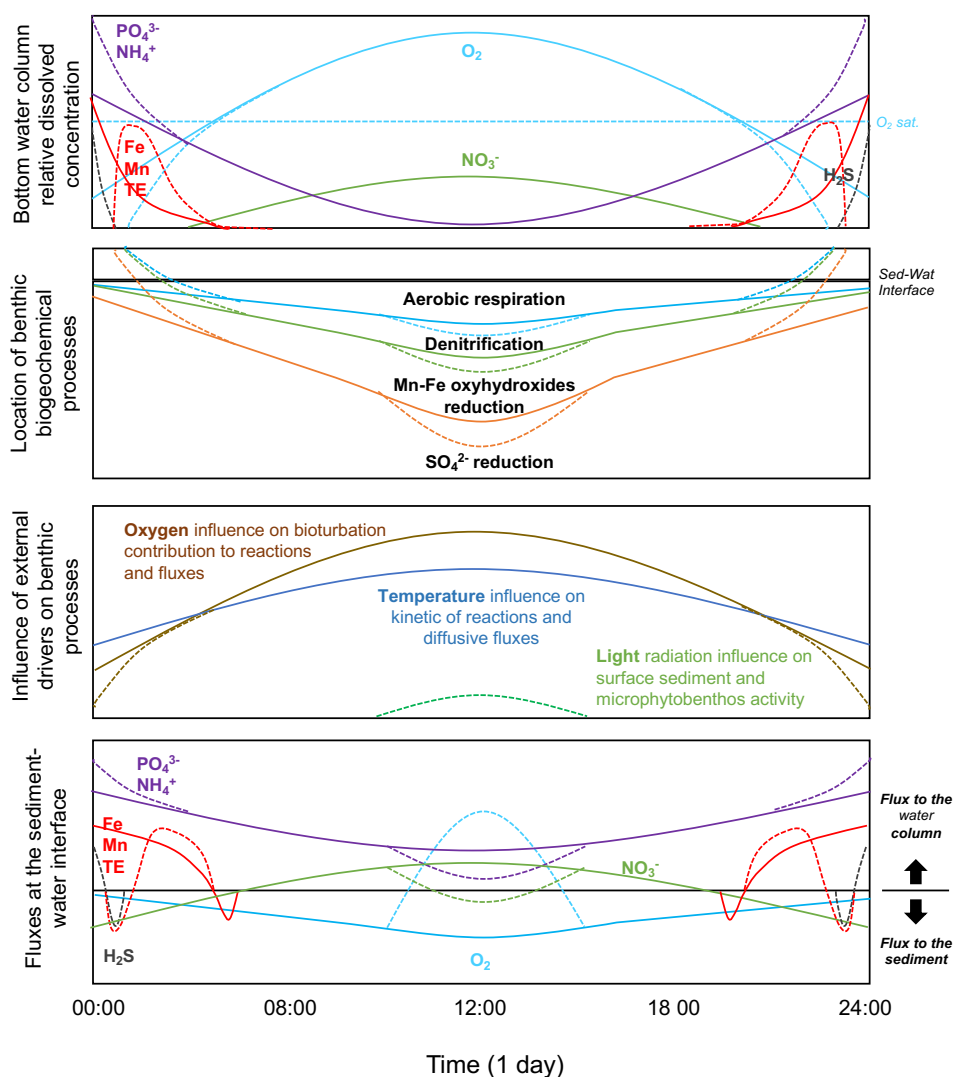


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745 **Figure 4.** Scheme of the benthic biogeochemical cycle in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. (A) The relative
 746 evolution of the bottom water chemical composition, (B) evolution of the location of the most important
 747 biogeochemical processes in the benthic compartment. (C) Relative influence of external drivers on benthic
 748 processes. (D) Relative evolution of resulting flux direction and intensity. Note that the graphs are not
 749 drawn to scale. Although concentrations of PO_4^{3-} and NH_4^+ and of Mn and Fe may behave differently,
 750 they are represented as similar in this figure for simplification.

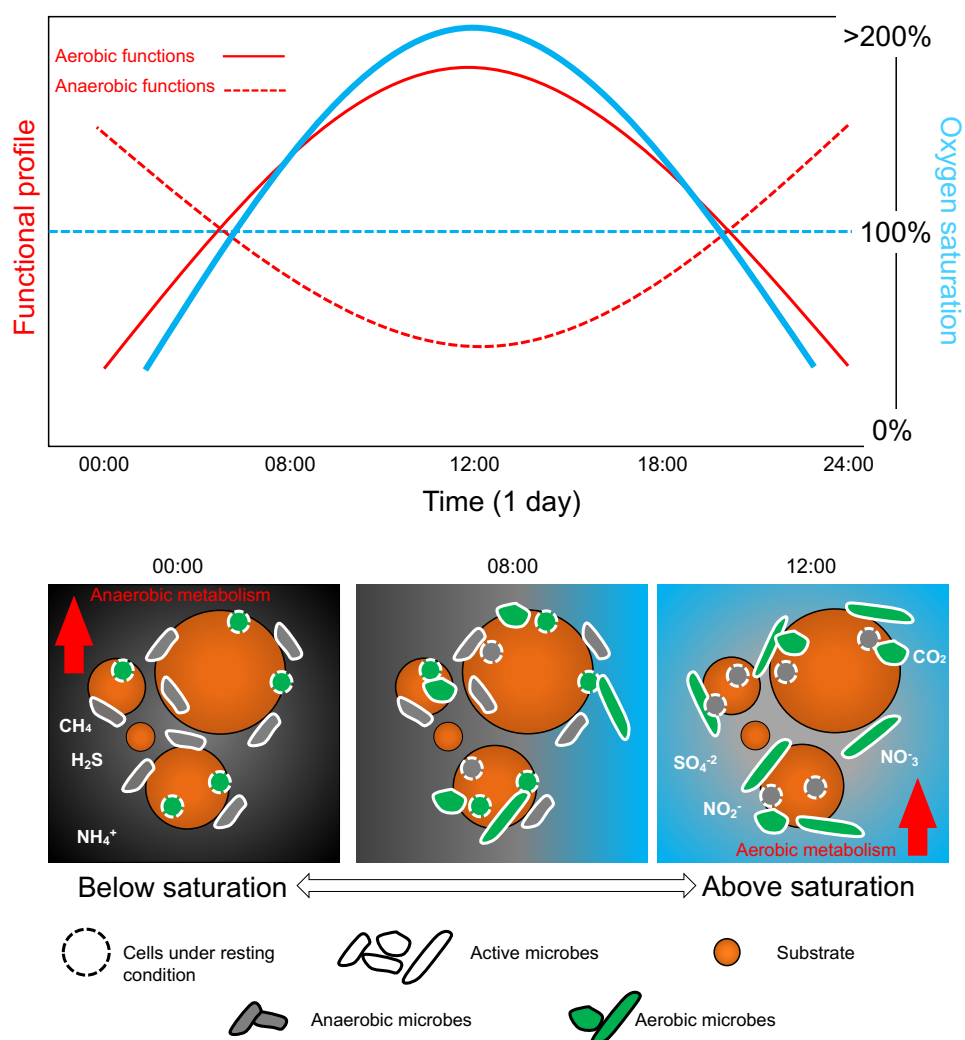


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753 **Figure 5.** Daily bacterial community cycle scheme in relation to diel oxygen fluctuation. Relative shift of
 754 microbial community controlled by the oxygen availability that control the ratio between aerobic and
 755 anaerobic taxa and their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



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