

An underwater photograph showing a large school of small, silvery fish swimming in clear blue water. The fish are concentrated in the middle ground, with some swimming towards the camera. In the foreground, there is a large, dark, rocky structure covered in green algae or coral. The background shows more of the seabed and the water extending to the surface where sunlight is visible.

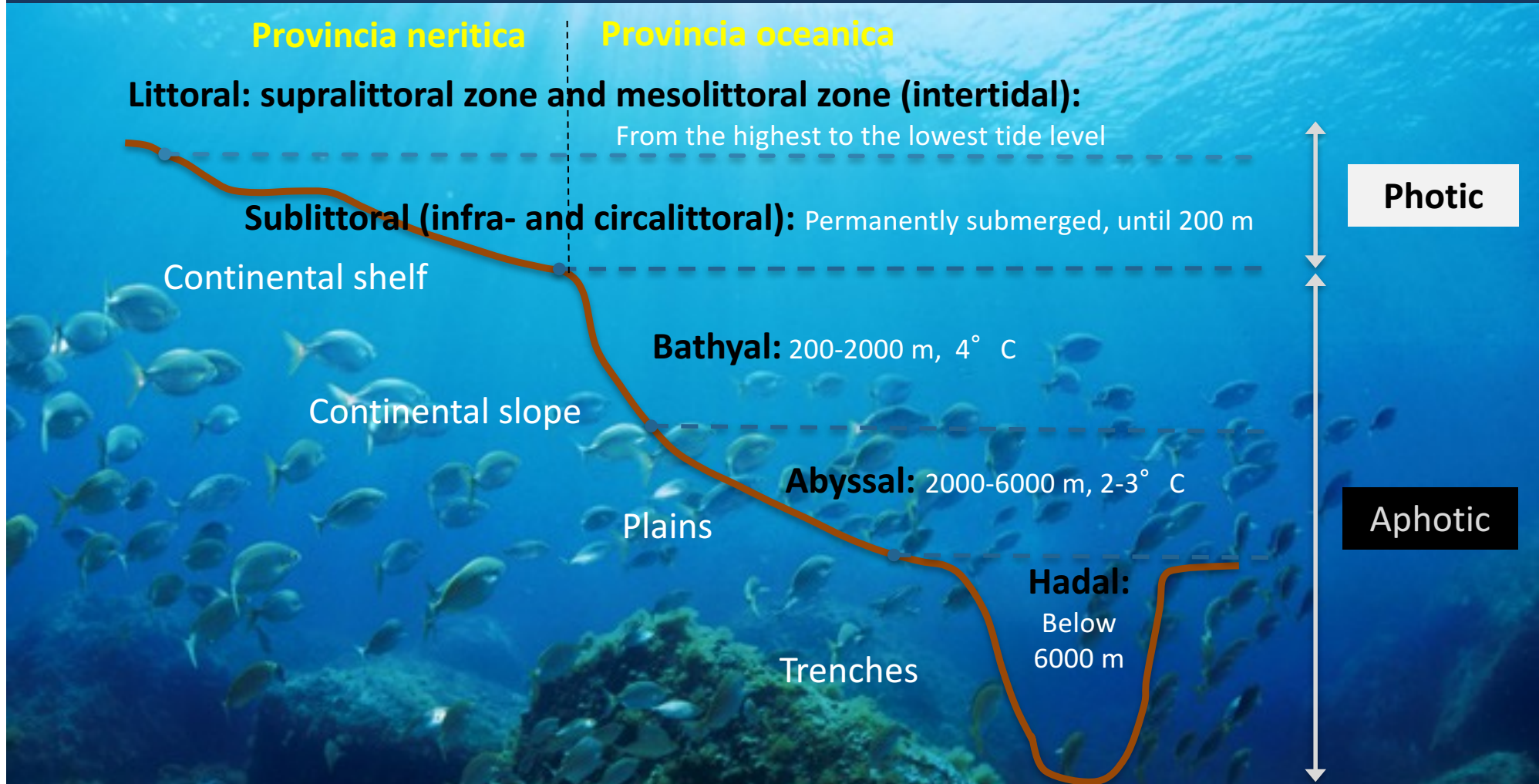
**University of Trieste: GLOBAL CHANGE
ECOLOGY a.a. 2020-2021**

**Marine biology – Biodiversity and ecosystem
Functioning**

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Deep sea ecosystems

The deep sea



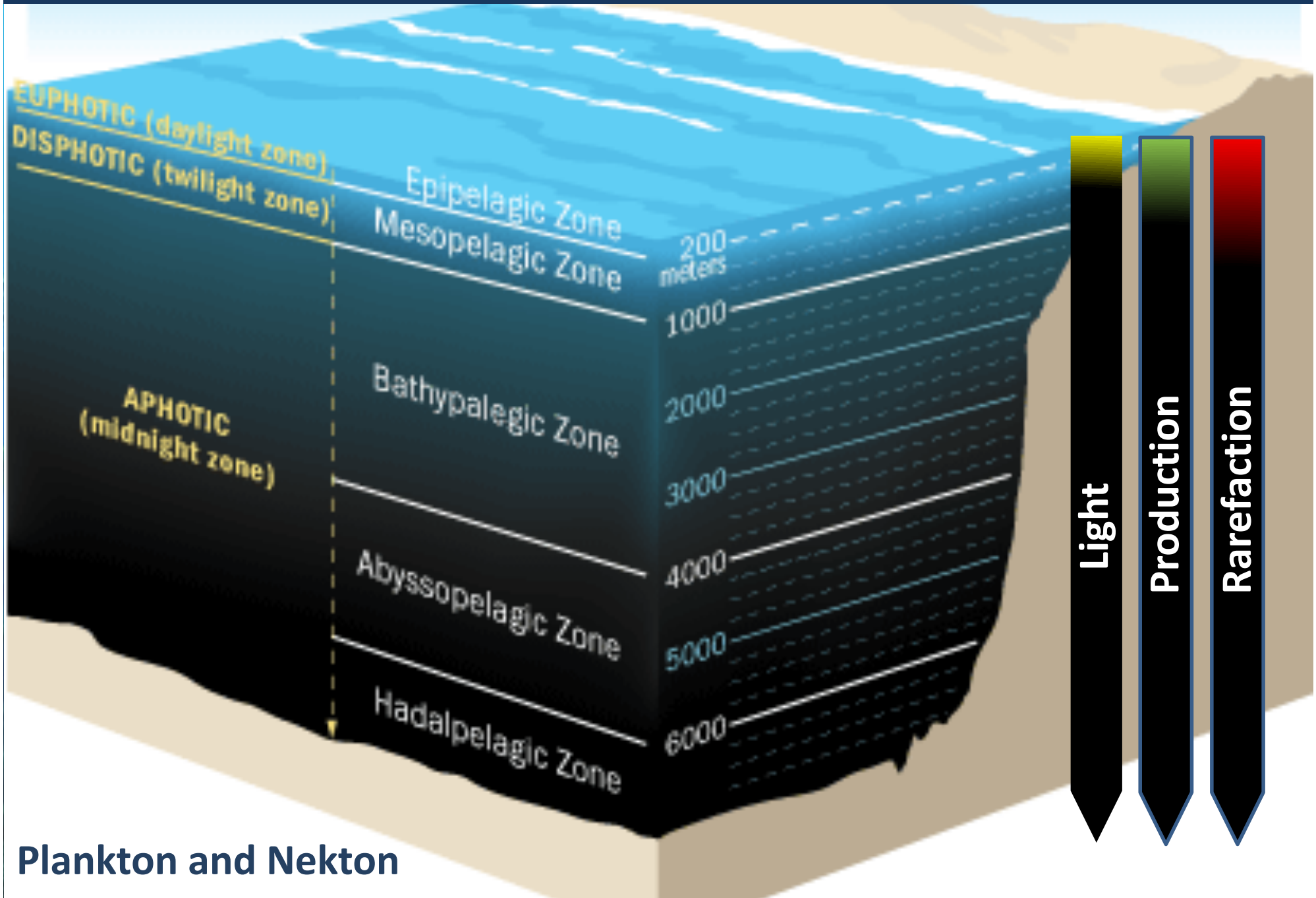
Waters and sea bottoms under 200 m are considered as deep sea environments

Average depth of oceans is 3850 m

Oceans cover the 71% of the Earth and > 50% of sea bottom is under 3000 m depth

> 84% of surface and 98% of volume are under 2000 m depth

The pelagic domain

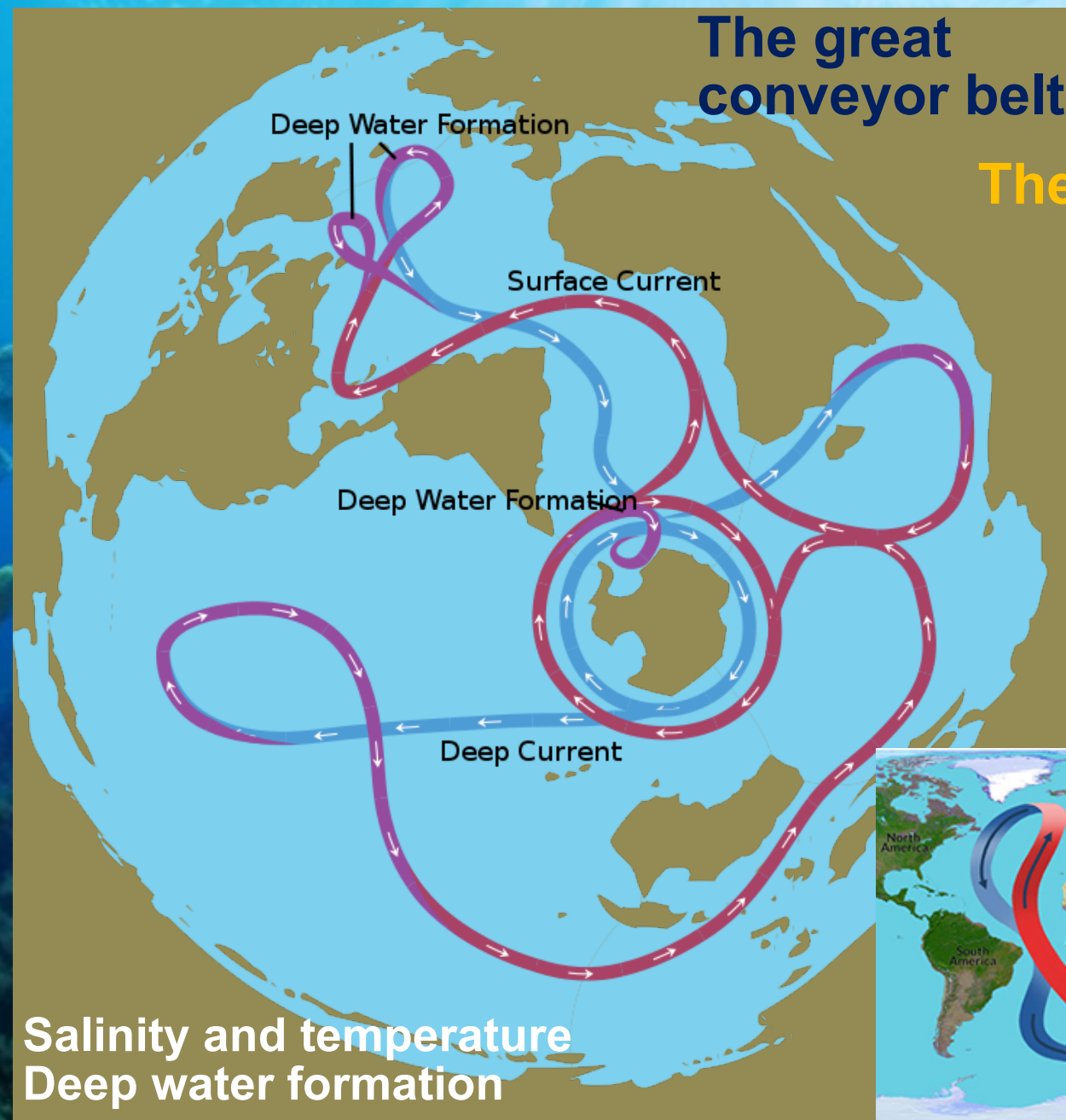


Deep sea circulation

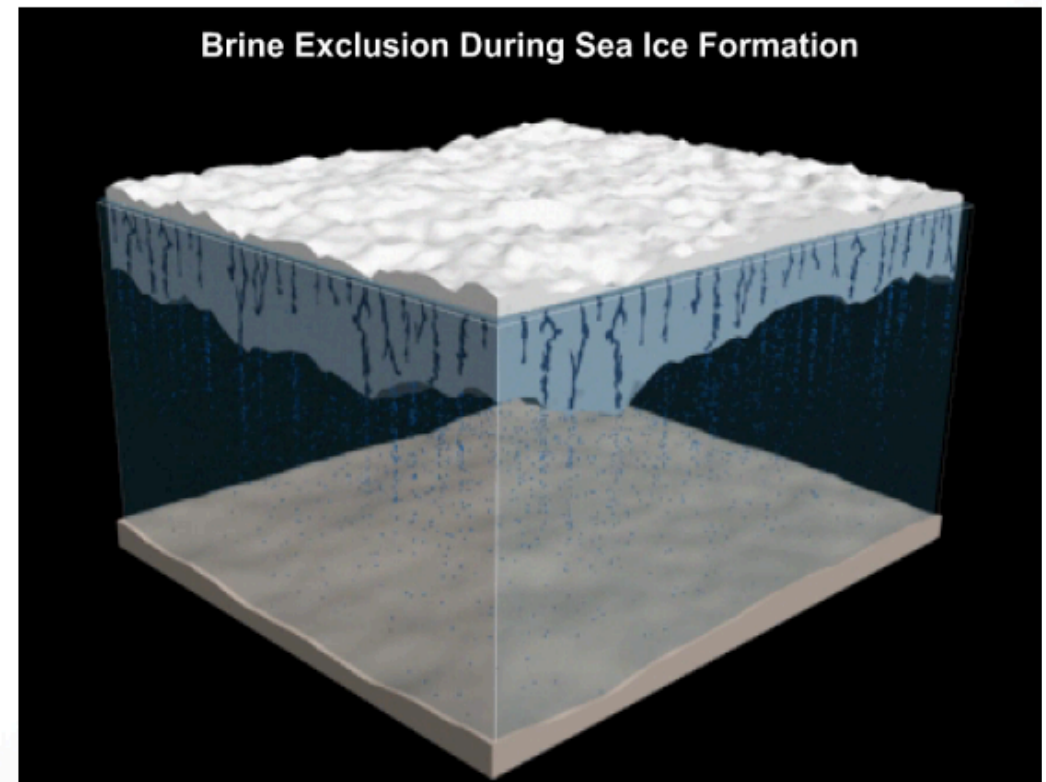
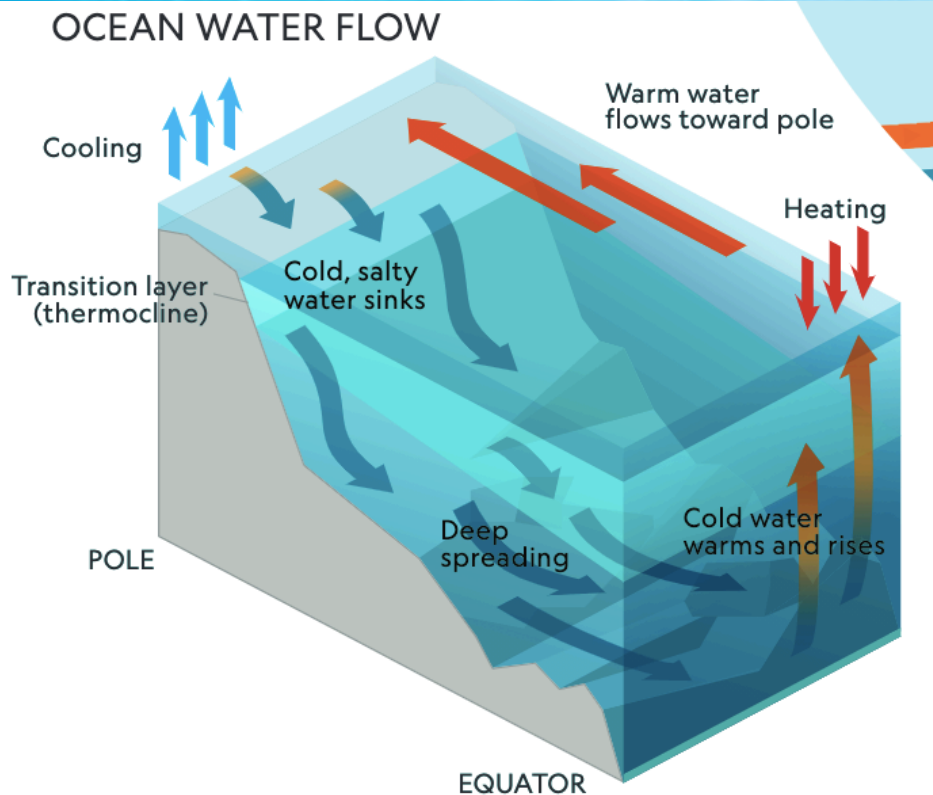
The great conveyor belt

Thermohaline circulation
(few cm s^{-1})

In the Atlantic ocean higher mixing between the surface and the deep waters with respect to the Pacific Ocean, where deep water formation lacks. This lead to lower oxigenation and exchange



Deep water formation



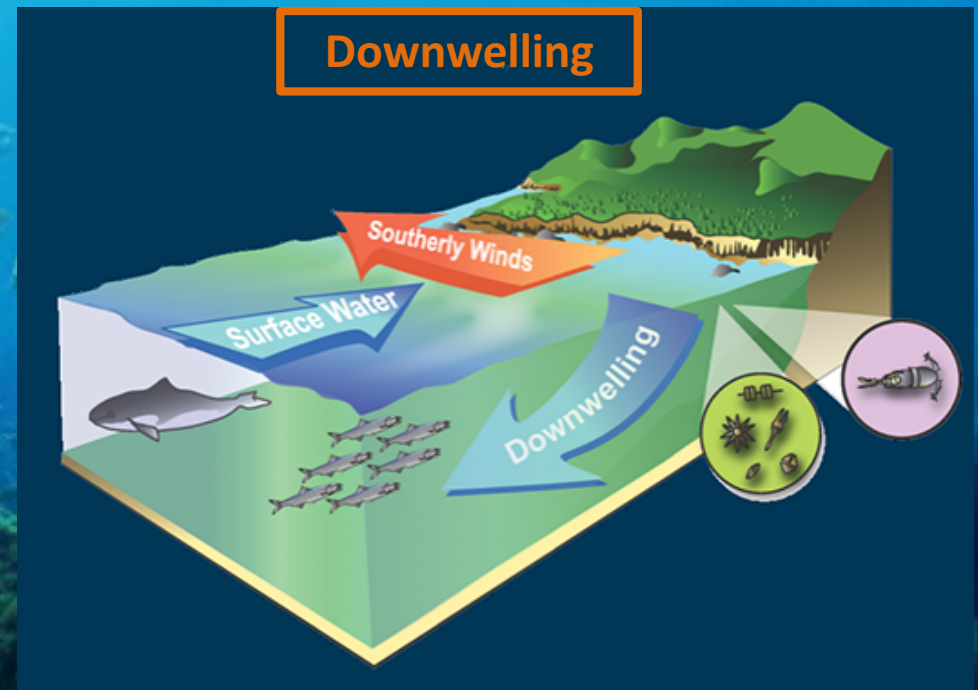
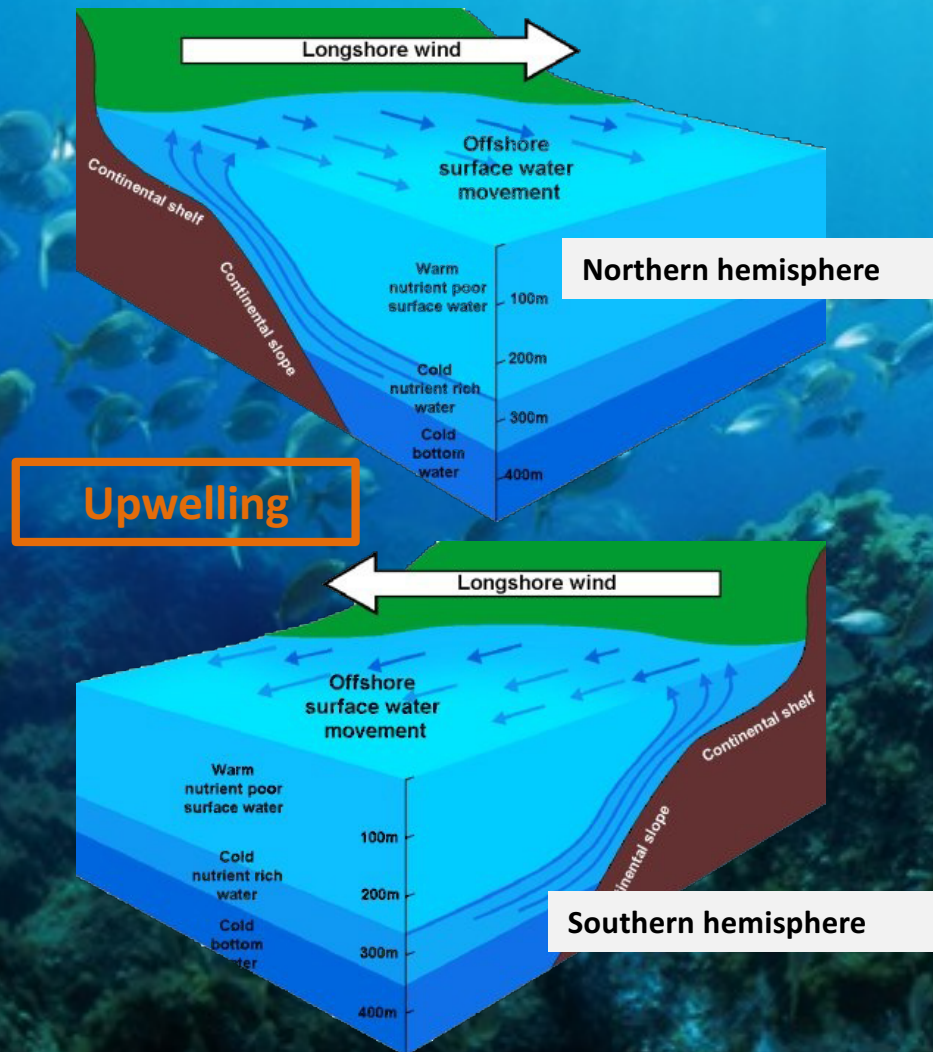
Cold polar winds cause evaporative cooling of seawater, and increase of salinity

Ice formation further increase salinity through brine exclusion

Increased salinity and cooling of waters lead to dense water masses that sink, moving towards the deep ocean, representing the cold engine of the ocean circulation

Distribution, factors and processes

Vertical circulation is also important for the functioning of marine ecosystems. It allows replacing warm and nutrient-poor surface waters with cold and nutrient-rich waters from the bottom, and to transport oxygen towards the bottom



Winds and Earth's rotation generate water movements from the surface to the bottom and vice versa along the coast, but also in open waters

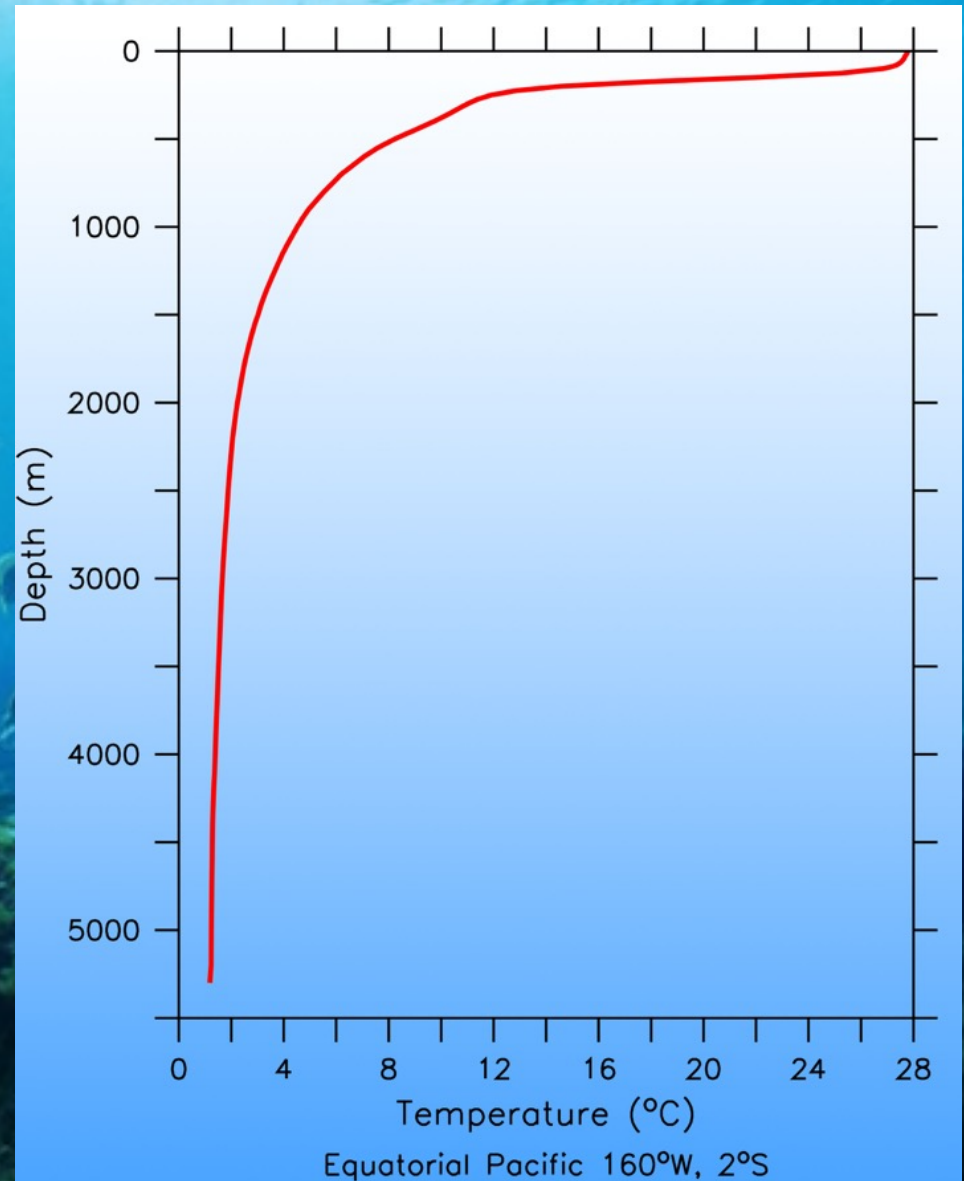
Main environmental features

Temperature $< 4^{\circ}\text{C}$ (-1.9°C)
Temperature $>$ in the
Mediterranean Sea (about
 12°C)

Salinity: constant 34.8 (2000 m)
34.65 (> 6000 m)

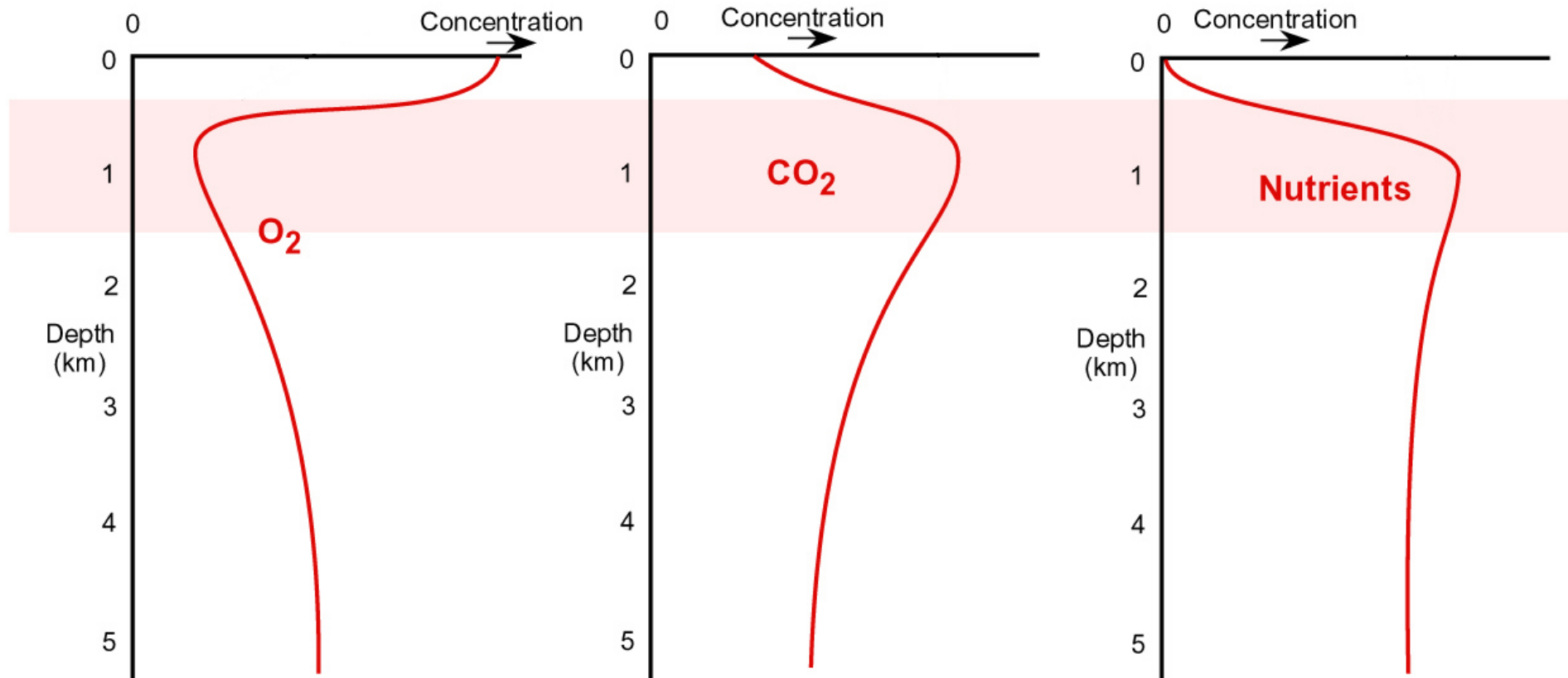
Hydrostatic pressure: very
high, influence on metabolism
(> 400 atm)

Substrate: hard bottoms
uncommon, mostly incoherent



Main environmental features

In the photic zones oxygen is produced by macroalgae and plants, that consume carbon dioxide and nutrients. O_2 decreases with depth due to decline of photosynthetic activity and oxidation of organic matter, whereas CO_2 and nutrients increase due to respiration and increased solubility (high P and low T). Min of O_2 and max of CO_2 and nutrients is achieved at about 1000 m. Below this threshold, nutrients remain stable, O_2 slightly increases due to oxygenation from the surface through currents, and CO_2 slightly decreases due to reduced respiration rates (rarefaction of organisms)



Matter and energy

Falling animal carcasses

1. Marine mammals (e.g., whales)
2. Fish
3. Large invertebrates (e.g., cephalopods)

Falling detritus from plants

1. Macroalgae (e.g., *Sargassum*)
2. Marine plants
3. Terrestrial plants

Currents

1. Particulate organic matter (POM)
2. Dissolved organic matter (DOM)

POM falling from the photic zone

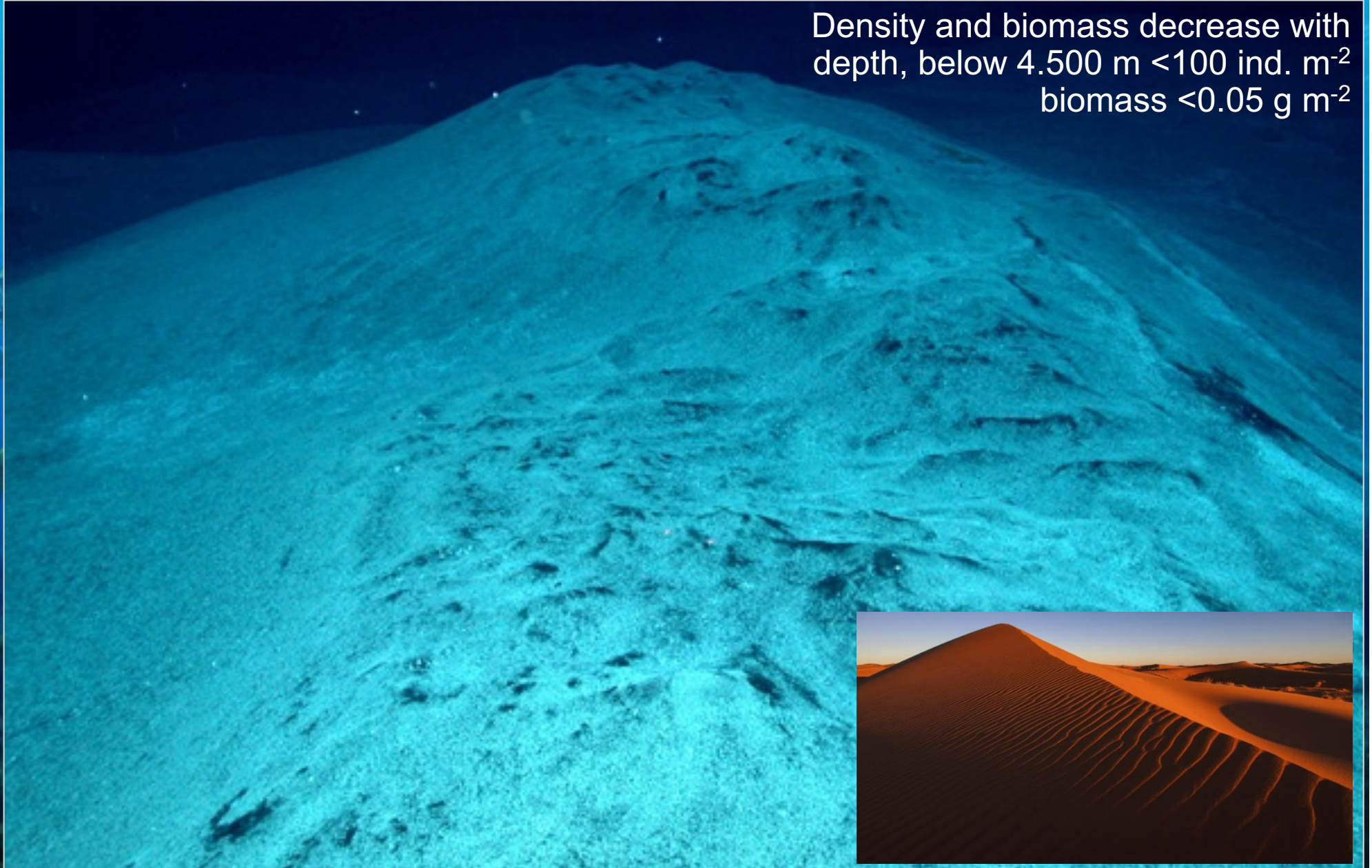
1. Dead or dying small organisms
2. Fecal pellets
3. Moults (hard structures of zooplankton)

Marine snow

Marine snow is mostly organic matter, with some inorganic components. It is made up of aggregates of particles held together polysaccharid matrices (originated from decay of organic matter and exudations of marine organisms). Aggregates grow when falling, until several cms, and could take days or weeks before reaching the ocean floor, depending on their size.

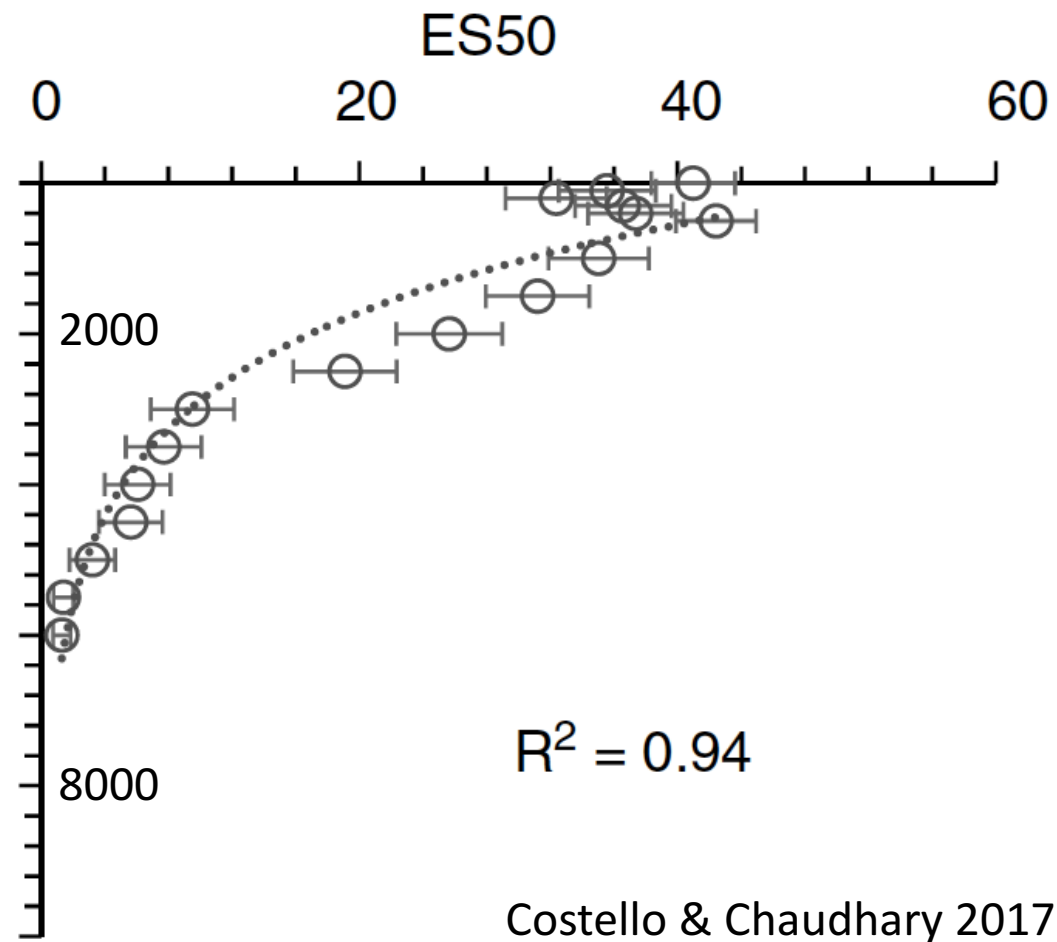
A desert?

Density and biomass decrease with depth, below 4.500 m <100 ind. m^{-2}
biomass <0.05 g m^{-2}



Azoic theory of Forbes, half of 19th century

Stability-Time hypothesis



Sanders (1968) proposed a general model which he called the Stability-Time Hypothesis. This model says that physical instability in an environment prevents the establishment of diverse communities. However, if physically stable conditions persist for a long period of time, speciation and immigration will cause species diversity to increase gradually. Thus, high diversity in the deep sea is a result of the great long-term stability of that environment. Basic to his view is the idea that each species must occupy an increasingly narrow, specialized niche.

However...

- 1) Feeding behaviour are quite general: many are detritivorous, or filter-feeders, and some predator
- 2) In most cases species rely on different type of food
- 3) Low densities imply individuals to interact with many different species
- 4) Large areas and rarefaction decrease competition (Dayton and Hessler, 1972)

Heterogeneity

Habitat

mud flats, sea mounts, volcanos, trenches, canyons

Hydrodynamism

Currents: there are areas of intense hydrodynamism

Eddies: cyclones 50-200 km with high energy flow

Variability:

interannual variations in conditions

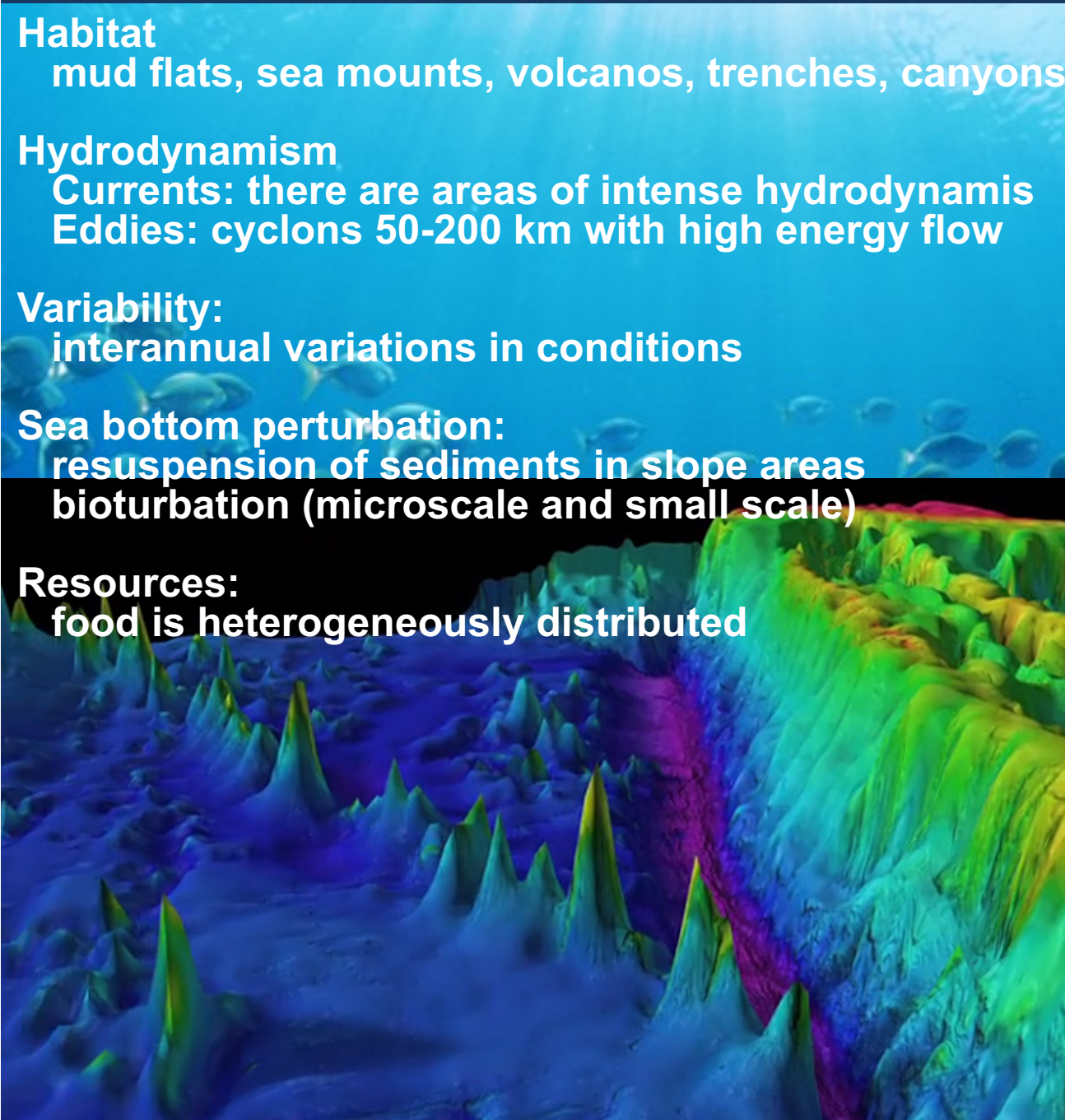
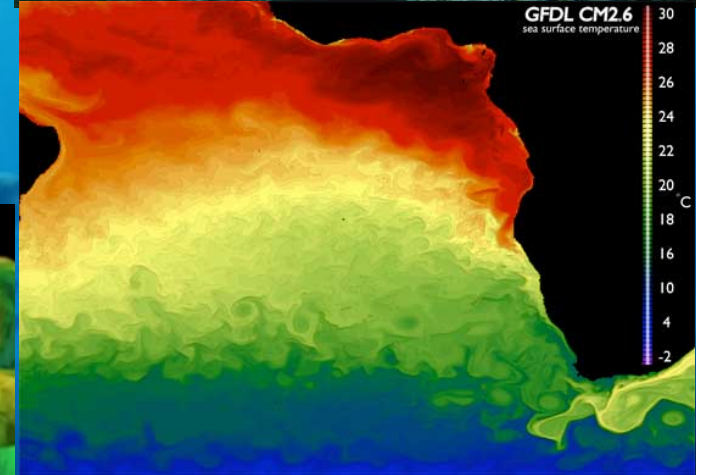
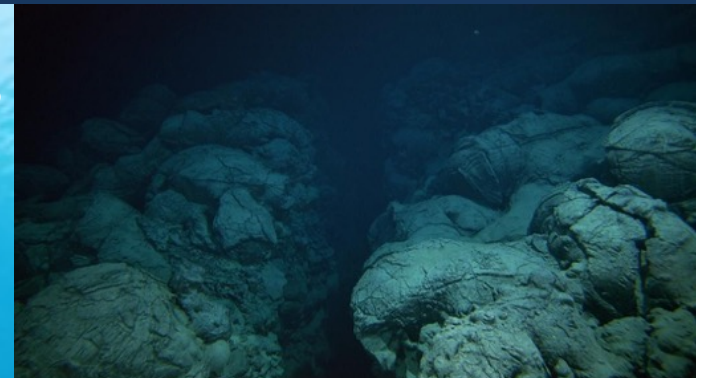
Sea bottom perturbation:

resuspension of sediments in slope areas

bioturbation (microscale and small scale)

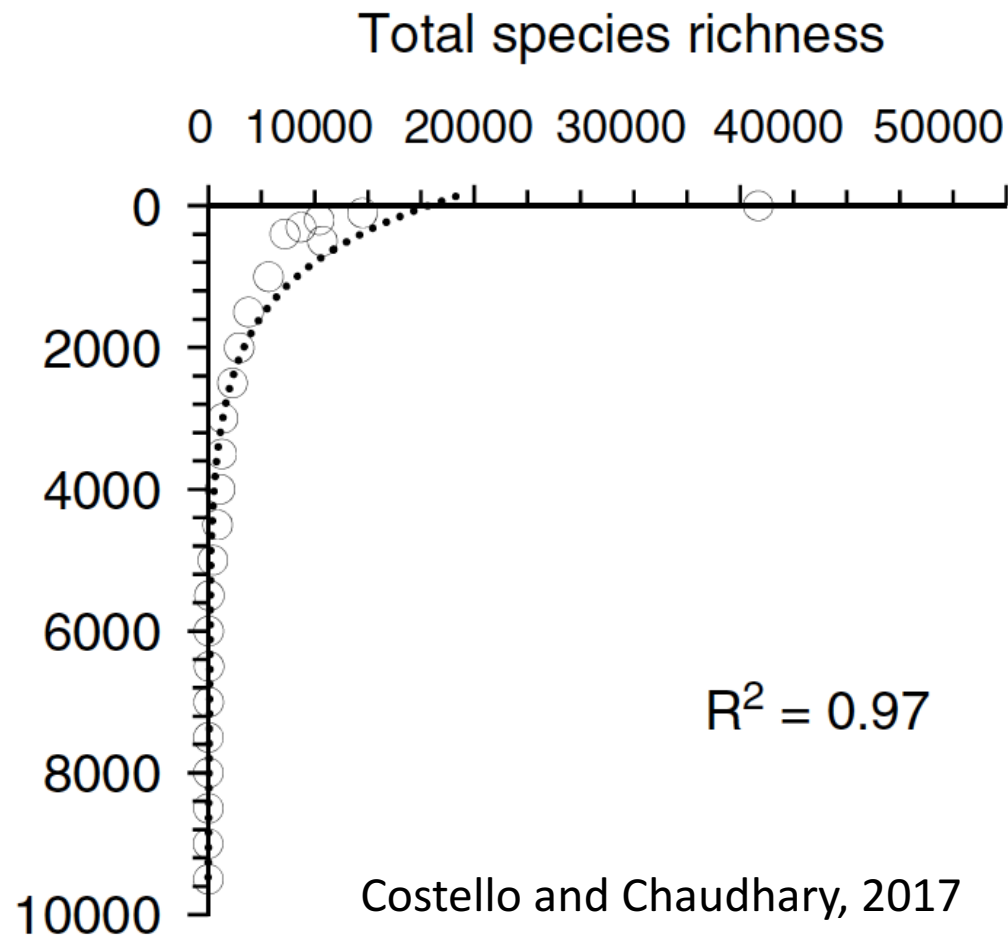
Resources:

food is heterogeneously distributed



Biodiversity

Biodiversity in the deep sea is lower than in shallower environments. However, we explored only the 1% of this system, and there could be many species still to be discovered.



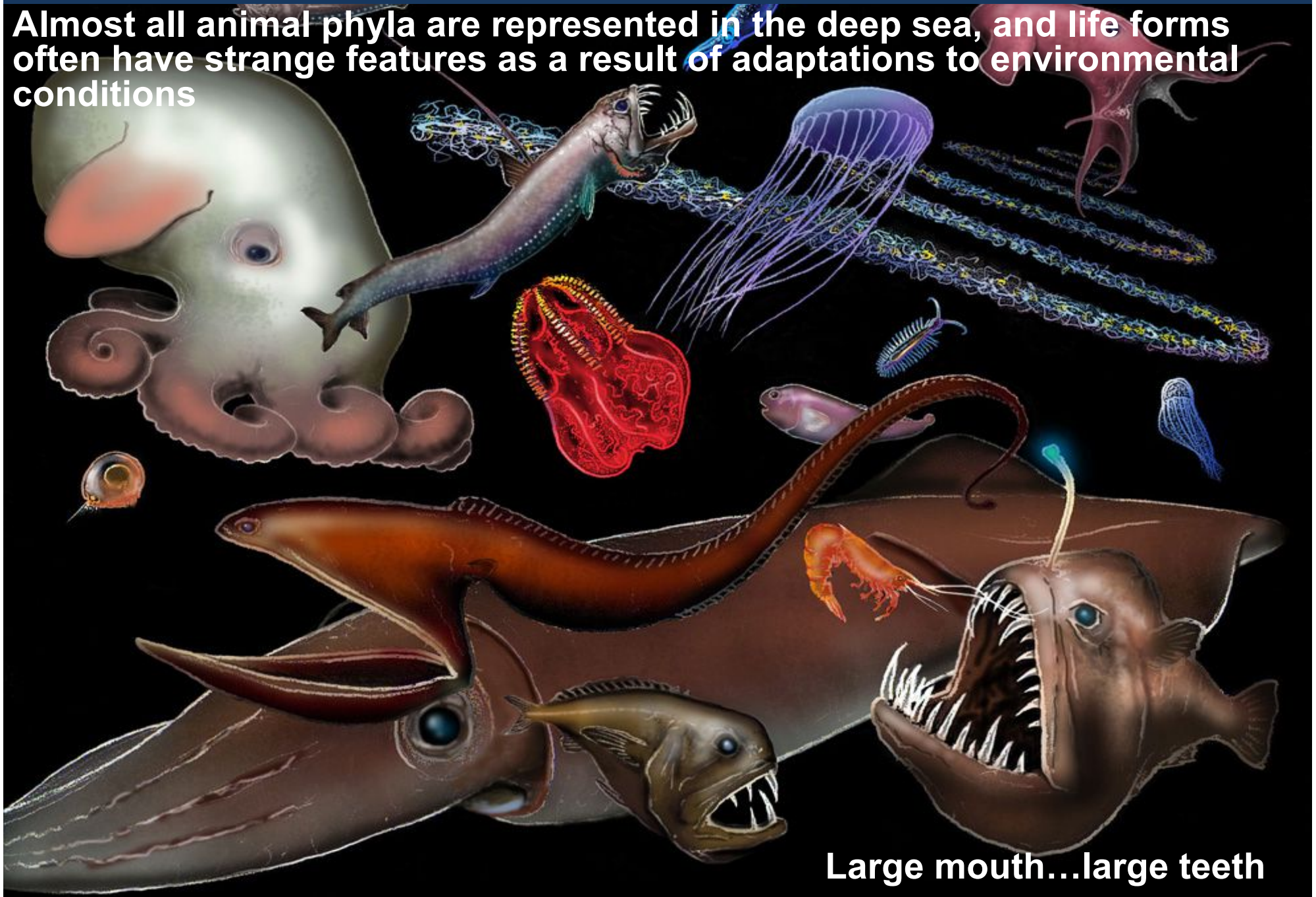
Species richness decline from the surface to the deeper areas. However, information is geographically restricted to some areas of the Atlantic, Pacific and Southern Ocean. Very few studies in the Mediterranean

Dominant macrobenthic taxa: polychaetes, cumaceans, tanaidacea, amphipods, isopods, gastropods, bivalves, scaphopods, oligochaetes, pogonophora, chitons, aplacophora

Dominant meiofauna: nematods, harpacticoid copepods, ostracods

Strange guys

Almost all animal phyla are represented in the deep sea, and life forms often have strange features as a result of adaptations to environmental conditions



Large mouth...large teeth

Further adaptations

Melanocetus (Lophiiformes)
100-4500 m (18 cm)

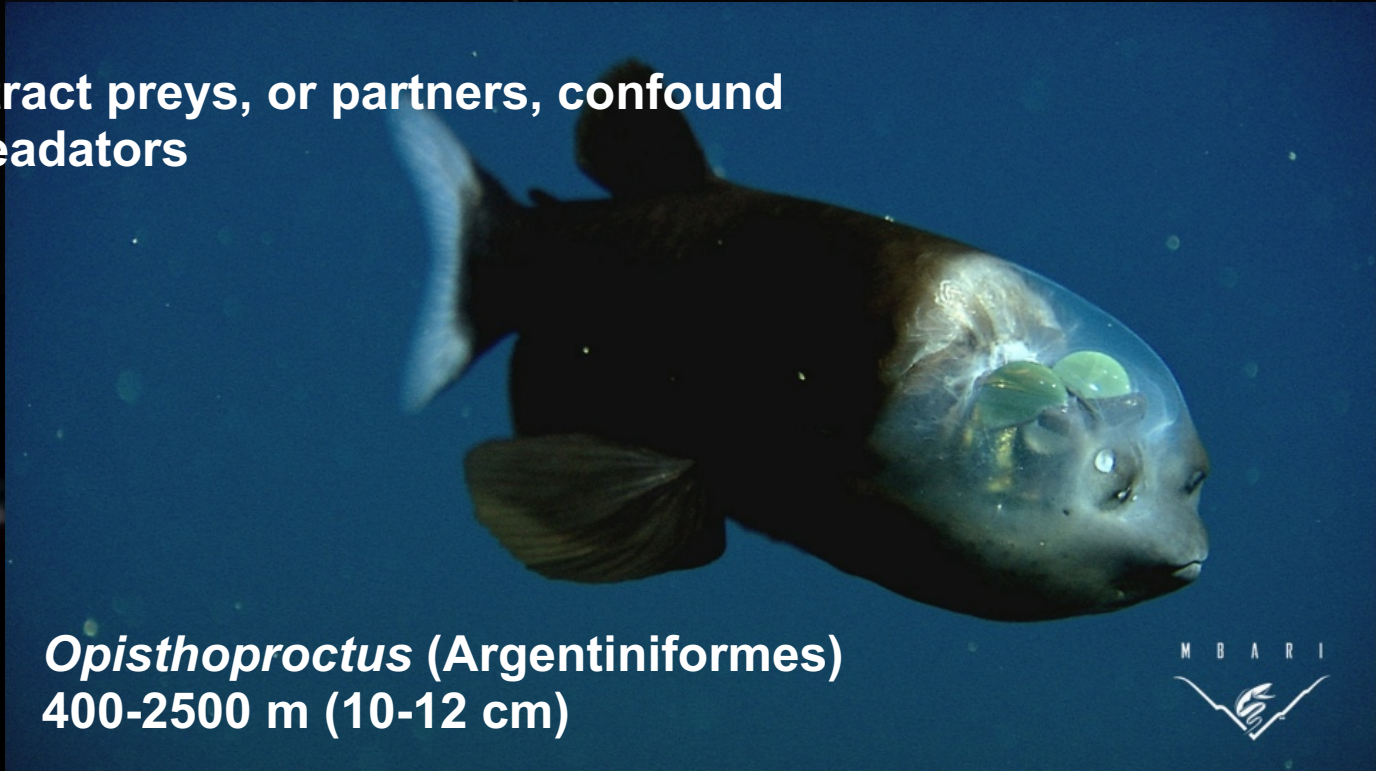


Cyclothone (Stomiiformes)
1000-4000 m (6-7 cm)



Attract preys, or partners, confound predators

Opisthoproctus (Argentiniformes)
400-2500 m (10-12 cm)



Living fossils

Latimeria chalumnae (Coelacanthiformes)
150-700m (140-165 cm)



Believed extinct since 65 millions years ago
(Madascar 1938)

Visitors from the surface



Physeter macrocephalus (0-2200 m, 18 m)



Somniosus microcephalus (0-2000 m, 7 m)

In some cases, animal living in shallow waters may visit deep sea for feeding

Others prefer conditions of deeper waters, but could occasionally frequent the surface or going more deeper

Big...strange guys

Xenophyophores (>6 km, 10 cm)



Architeuthis dux (200-1000 m, 10-13 m)



Macrocheira (150-300 m, 5 m)



Bathynomus (300-2500 m, 15 cm)



Regalecus glesne (20-1000 m, 11 m)

Abyssal gigantism

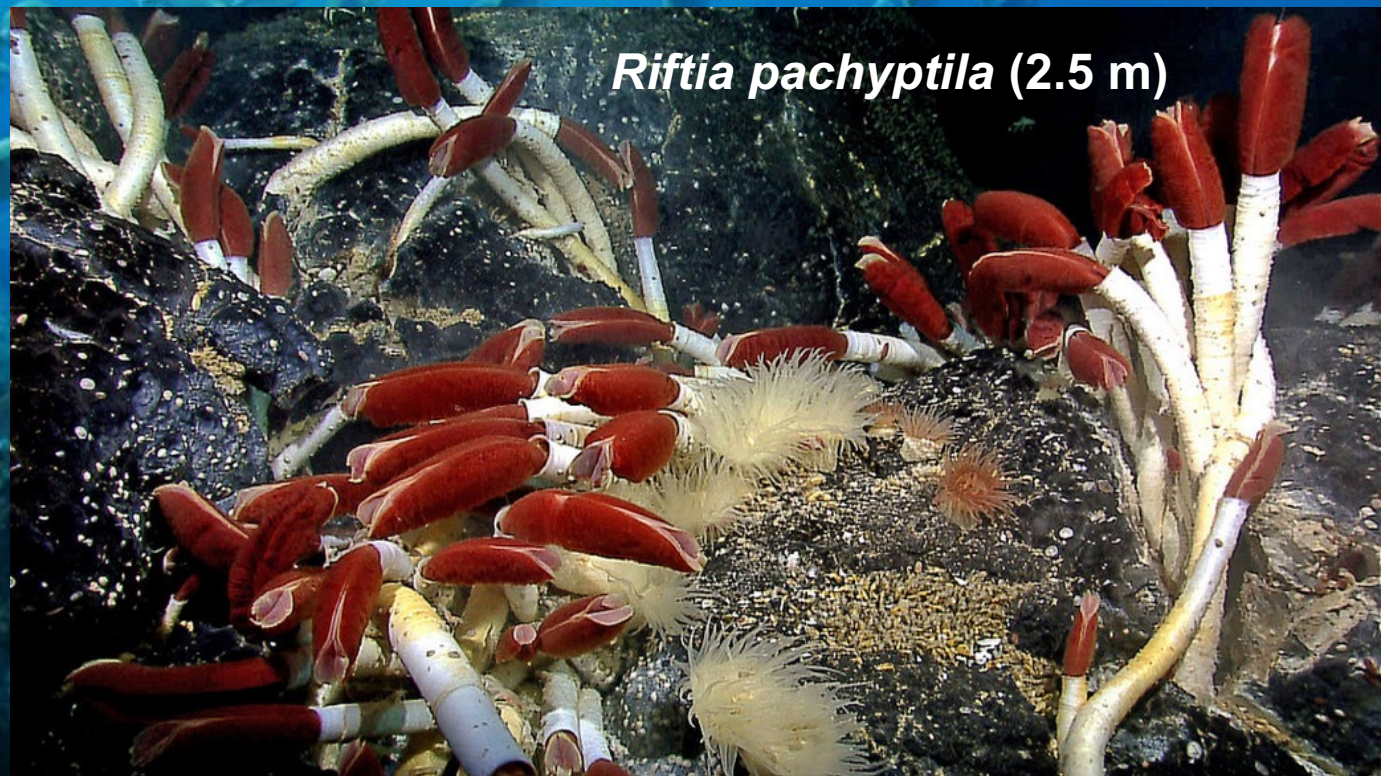
Late sexual development and continuous growth

Escaping predation through increasing size

Kleiber's rule: basal metabolism is proportional to body mass. Metabolism (and therefore energy consumption) slows down as body mass increase. So large organisms are more energetically efficient. This depends on heat dissipation, circulation, and proportion of structural and reserve mass.

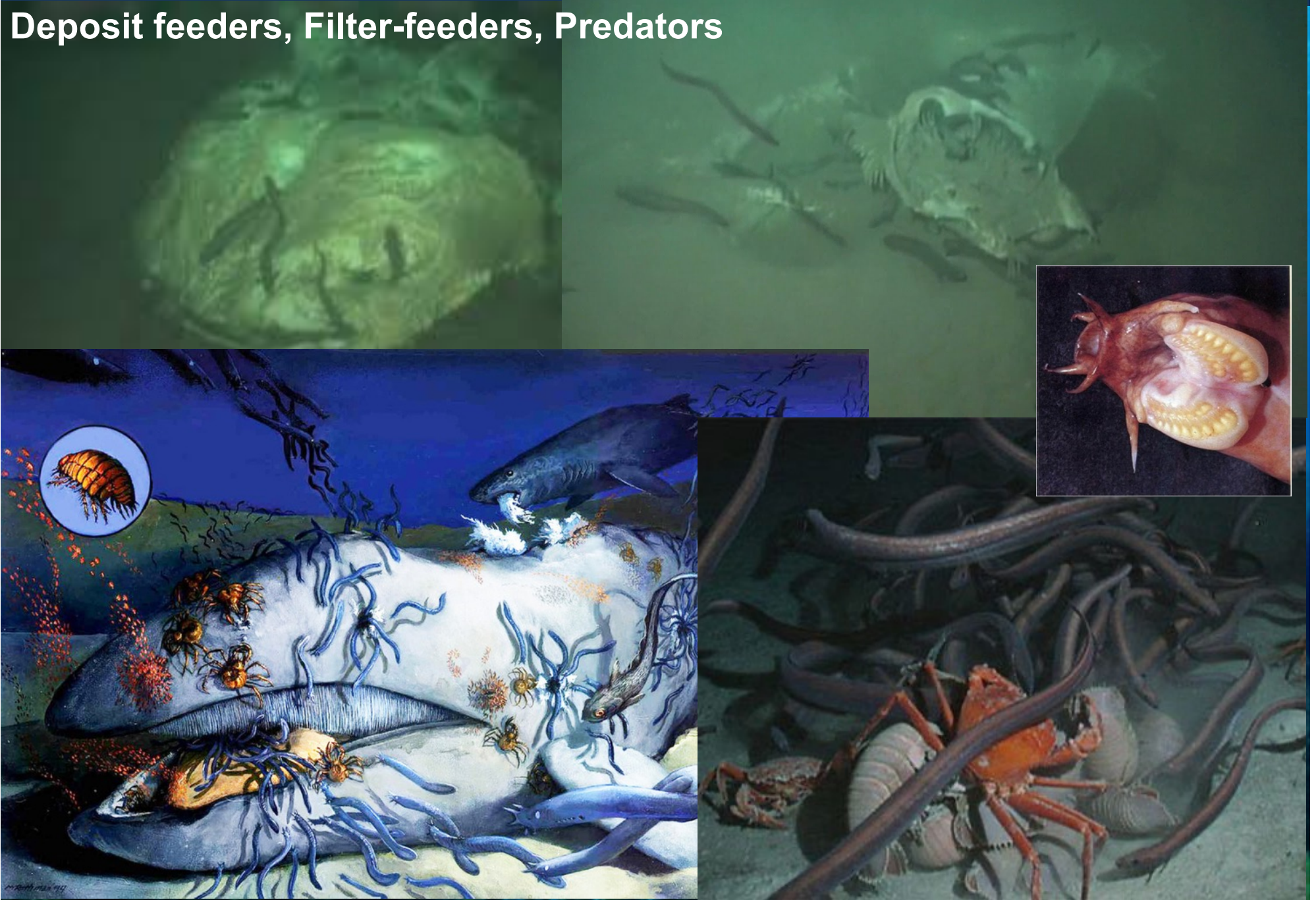
Bergmann's rule: species of larger size are found in colder environments, and species of smaller size are found in warmer regions. This due to low surface area-to-volume ratio, which decrease heat dissipation.

Trophic reasons
(optimal foraging,
higher productivity of
endosymbionts)



Scavengers

Deposit feeders, Filter-feeders, Predators

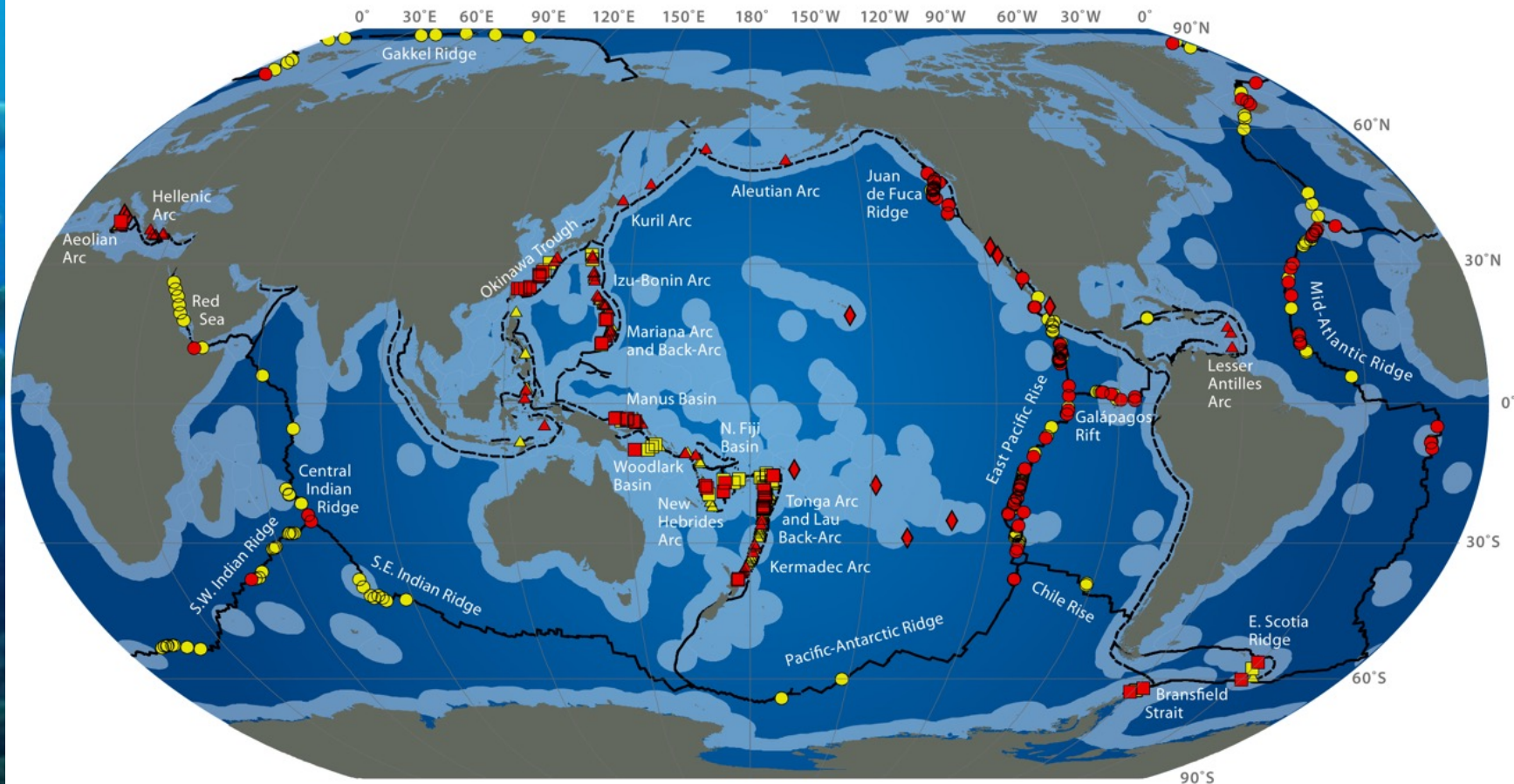


Hydrothermal vents

First discovered at Galapagos in 1977

Typical of areas of intense tectonic activity. High temperature (100-350° C), often at 2500 m depth

Global Distribution of Hydrothermal Vent Fields



Mid-ocean ridge

● Active
○ Unconfirmed

Arc volcano

▲ Active
△ Unconfirmed

Back-arc spreading center

■ Active
□ Unconfirmed

Intra-plate volcano
& Other

◆ Active

— Ridge & Transform

- - - Trench

● Exclusive Economic Zones



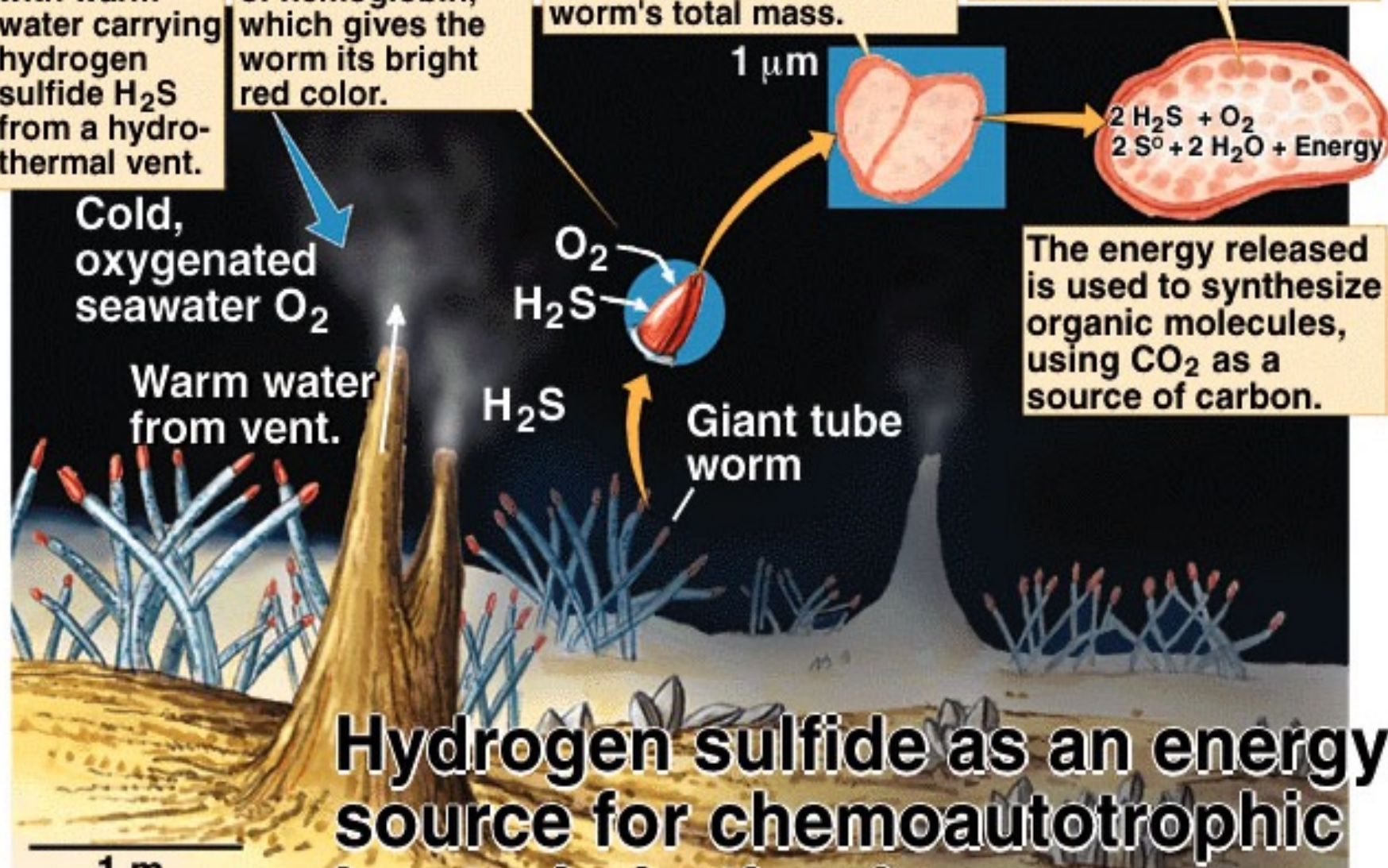
How they work

Cold, oxygen-bearing seawater mixes with warm water carrying hydrogen sulfide H_2S from a hydrothermal vent.

A giant tube worm takes up O_2 and H_2S with the aid of hemoglobin, which gives the worm its bright red color.

Chemoautotrophic sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in the tissues of the worm can make up to 60% of the worm's total mass.

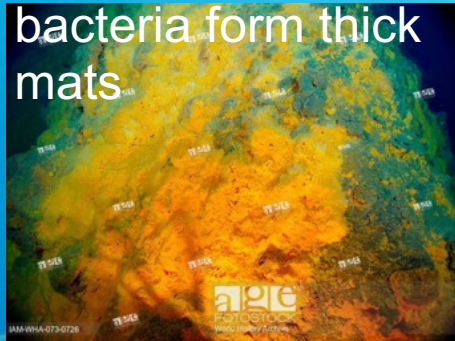
Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria oxidize H_2S to elemental sulfur, an energy-yielding reaction.



Hydrogen sulfide as an energy source for chemoautotrophic bacteria in the deep sea.

Mesocosm ecosystems

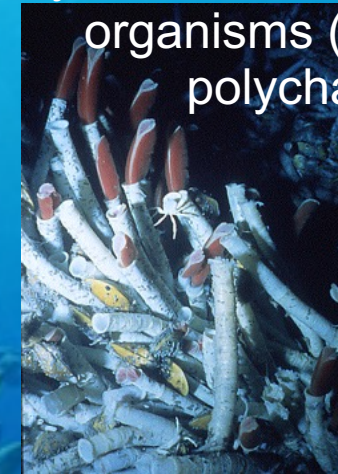
Chemosynthetic bacteria form thick mats



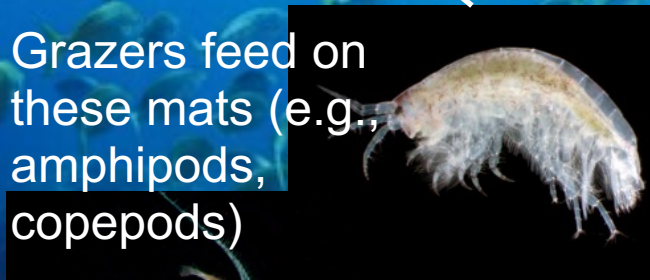
Snails, crabs, fish, cephalopods prey on vent organisms



Chemosynthetic bacteria are also symbionts of many organisms (e.g., polychaetes)



Grazers feed on these mats (e.g., amphipods, copepods)



Filter-feeders exploit plankton and POM (some have also symbionts)



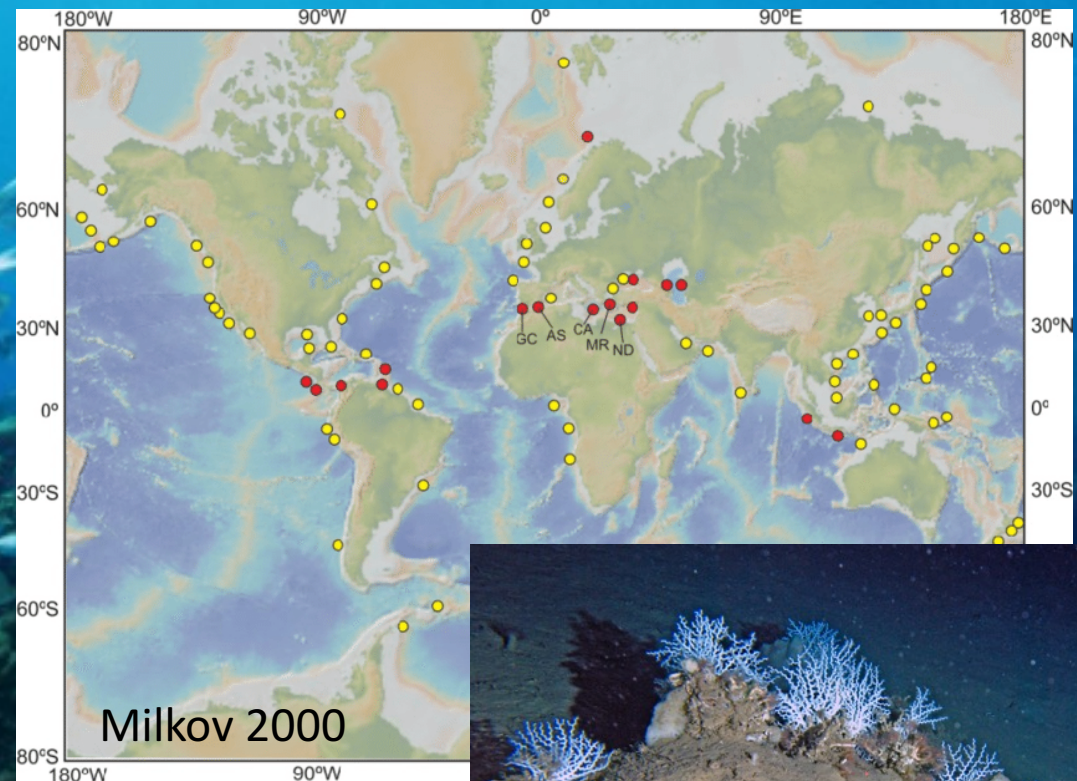
Hotspots of biodiversity, with population densities >>> higher than neighbouring areas, high primary productivity from chemosynthesis and secondary productivity from associated fauna

Cold seeps

They are places where hydrocarbons – mostly methane but also ethane, propane, or even oil – seep from the sediment. From few to 1000s m, often near continental margins. In contrast to vents, fluids are not at a high temperature (so “cold”). Methanotrophic bacteria oxidise CH_4 and sulphate-reducing bacteria produce H_2S . A community could develop. Also, H_2S sustain chemosynthetic bacteria and further increase colonization of seeps.



Brine pools



Carbonate deposition forms hard substrate for sessile organisms (worms and corals)

CO₂ seeps

