

Global change in the ocean

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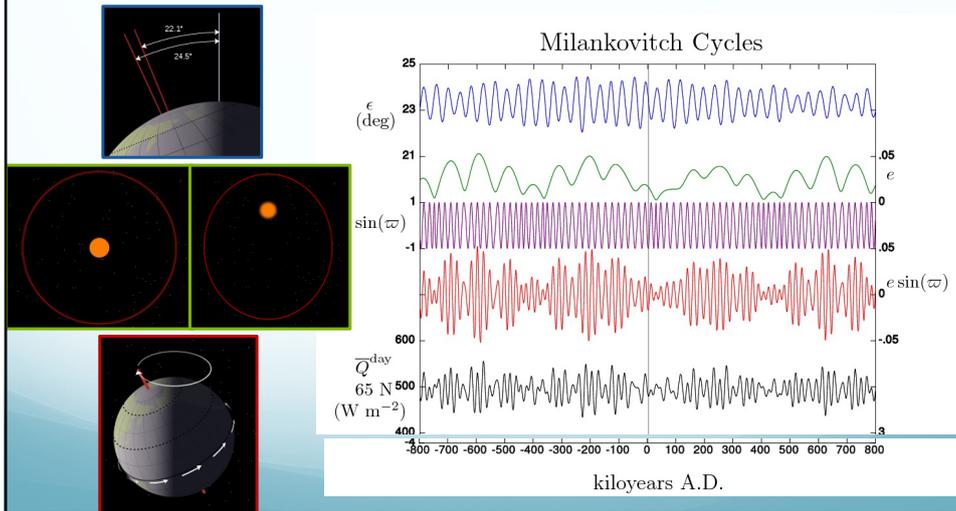
Greenhouse effect

- 1824 Joseph Fourier
- 1856 Eunice Foote
- 1859, John Tyndall
- 1896 Svante Arrhenius

2

Milankovitch cycle

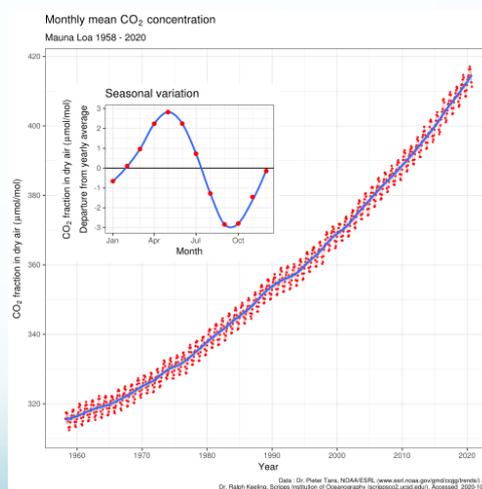
- 1920s



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Keeling Curve

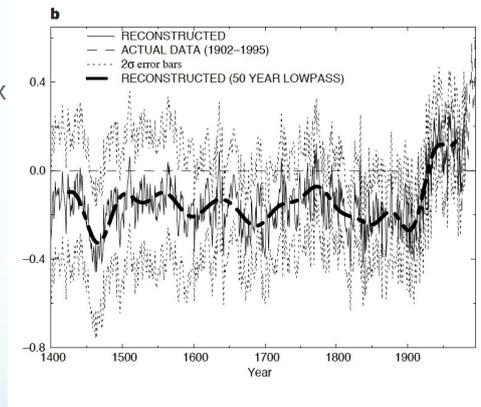
- 1960
- Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii
- 1958 to the present day



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hockey stick

- Original “hockey stick” temperature graph in *Nature*, 1998. The Y ax shows the Northern hemisphere mean temperature, in degrees Celsius; the zero line corresponds to the 1902-1980 mean.



"Global-scale Temperature Patterns and Climate Forcing over the Past Six Centuries," by Michael E. Mann et al. *in Nature*, Vol. 392, April 23, 1998

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Historic temperature records

Temperature		
1978 - PRESENT DAY	satellite	global
1880 - PRESENT DAY	Thermometers Lake and ocean sediments, ice cores, stalagmites	global
2,000 YEARS AGO - 1880	Sediment and Ice cores tree-rings series	global
20,000 - 2,000 YEARS AGO	Ocean margin sediment cores lake and ice cores on land.	Global
800,000 - 20,000 YEARS AGO	proxy sea surface temperature records	Global

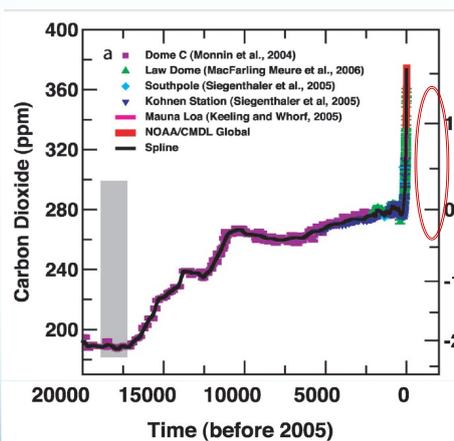
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Historic CO₂ concentrations

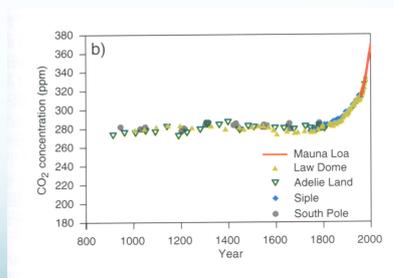
CO ₂		
1958 - PRESENT DAY	in situ air	Mauna Loa, Observatory, Hawaii
1000 YEARS AGO - 1958	Ice cores	Law Dome, Wilkes Land Antarctica
800,000 YEARS AGO - 1000 YEARS AGO	Ice cores	Antarctic Vostok and EPICA Dome C ice

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Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is increasing

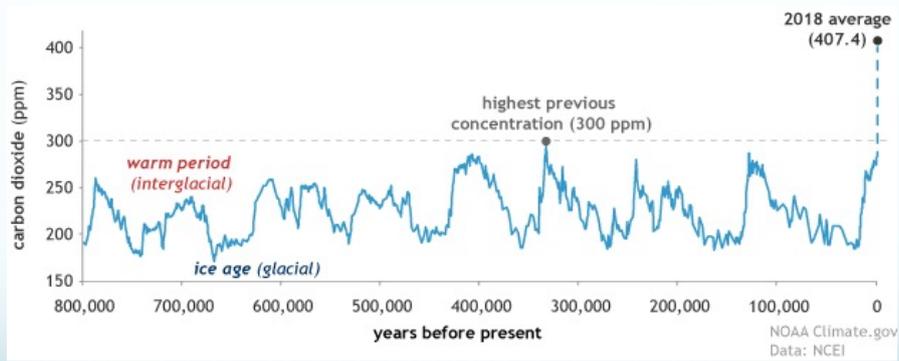


- The fastest ↑ of [CO₂]_{atm} ever observed (Zeebe 2012)



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Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is increasing



- The fastest ↑ of $[CO_2]_{atm}$ ever observed (Zeebe 2012)

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Looking Further back



December 2021

© Beyond Epica (1.5 million years...)

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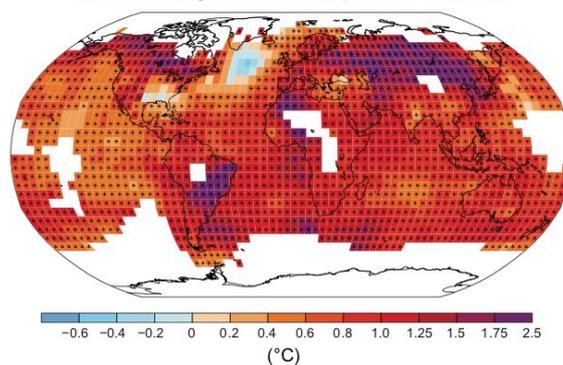
IPCC

- IPCC First Assessment Report, 1990
- IPCC Second Assessment Report, 1996
 - Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES) , 2000
- IPCC Third Assessment Report, 2001
- IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, 2007
- IPCC Fifth Assessment Report, 2014
 - Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (SROCC), 2019
- Sixth assessment report (2021/2022)

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Consequences in the atmosphere: Global warming

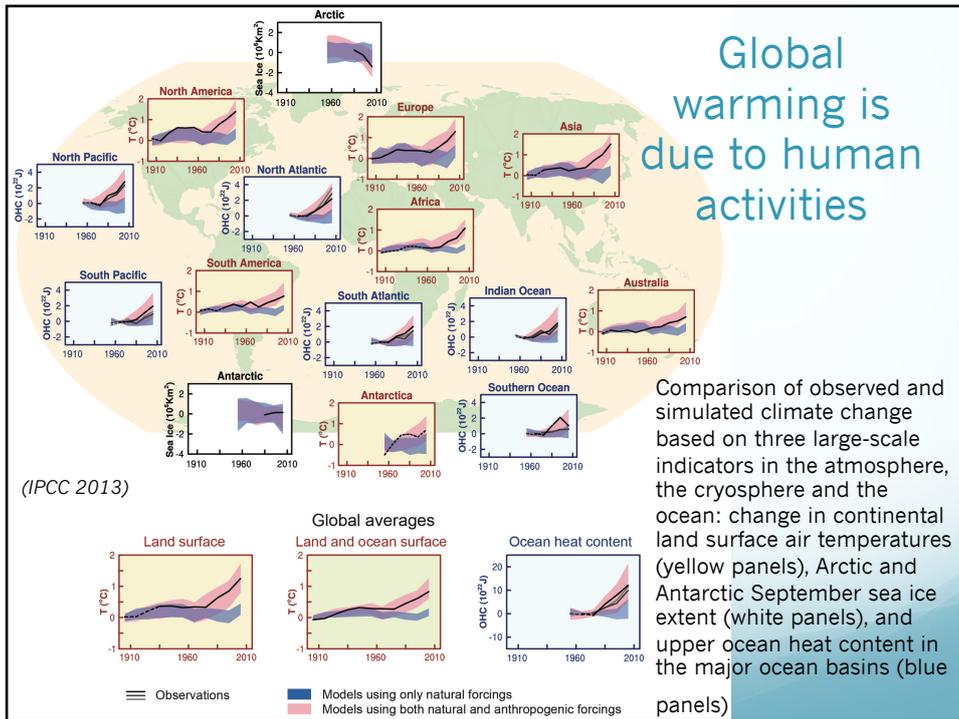
Observed change in surface temperature 1901–2012



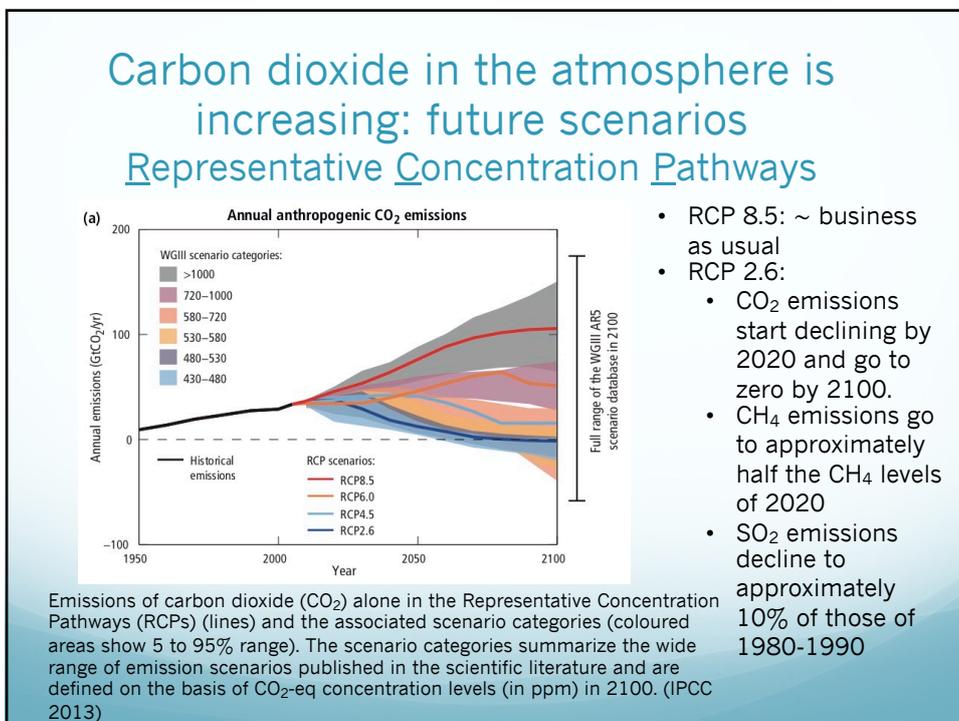
(IPCC 2013)

Global warming of surface atmosphere: $0.65 - 1.06^{\circ} \text{C}$
(mean trend)

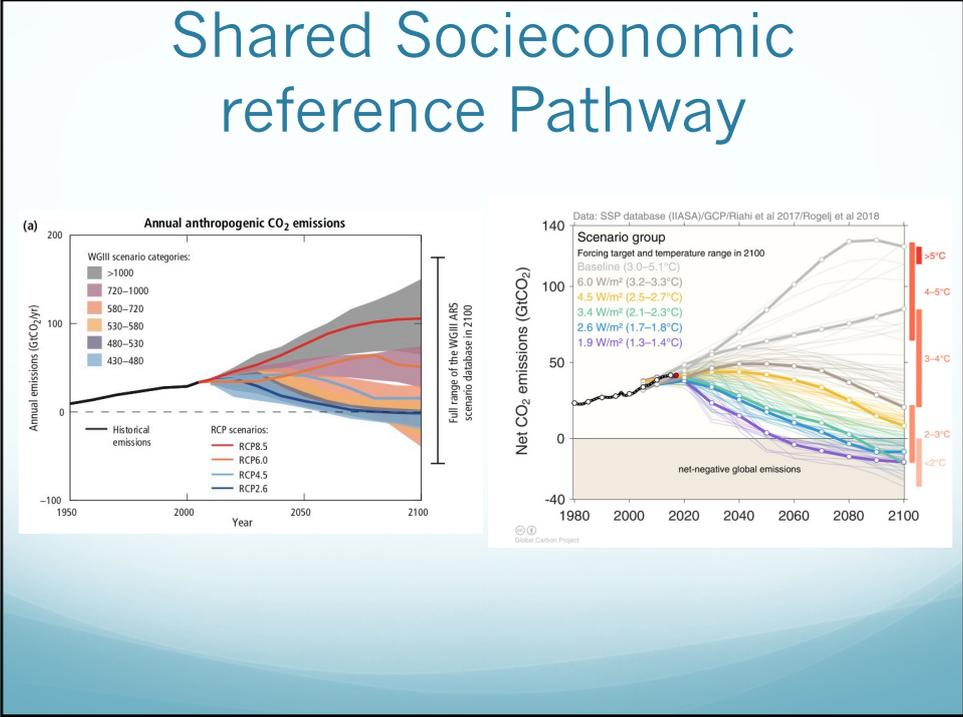
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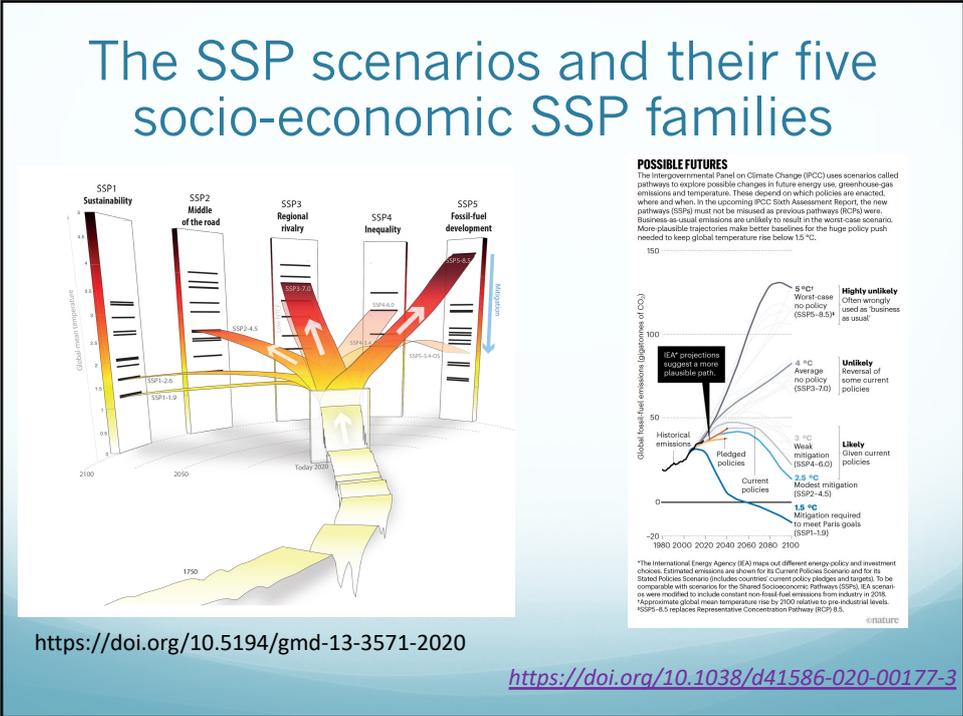
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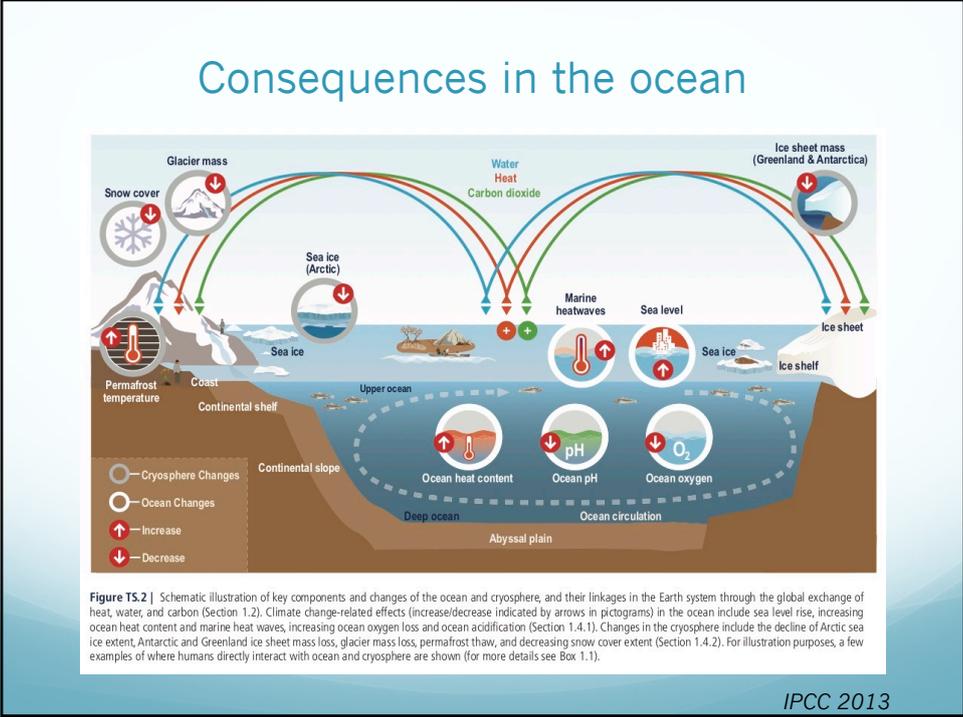
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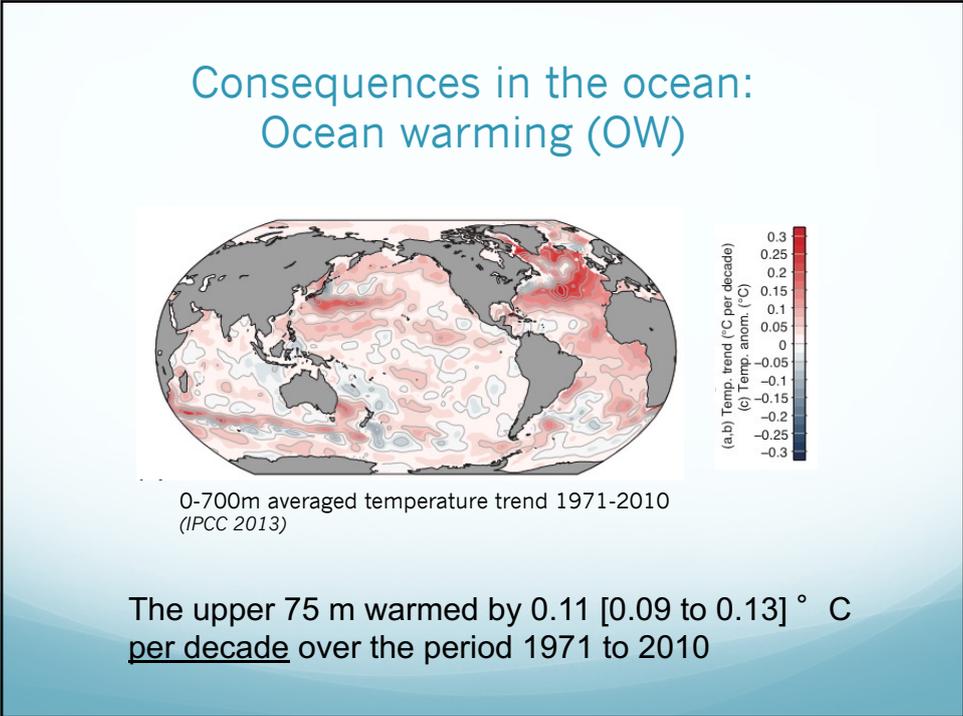
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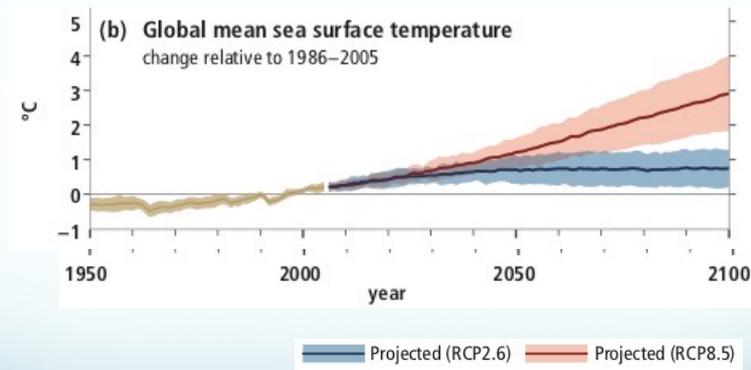


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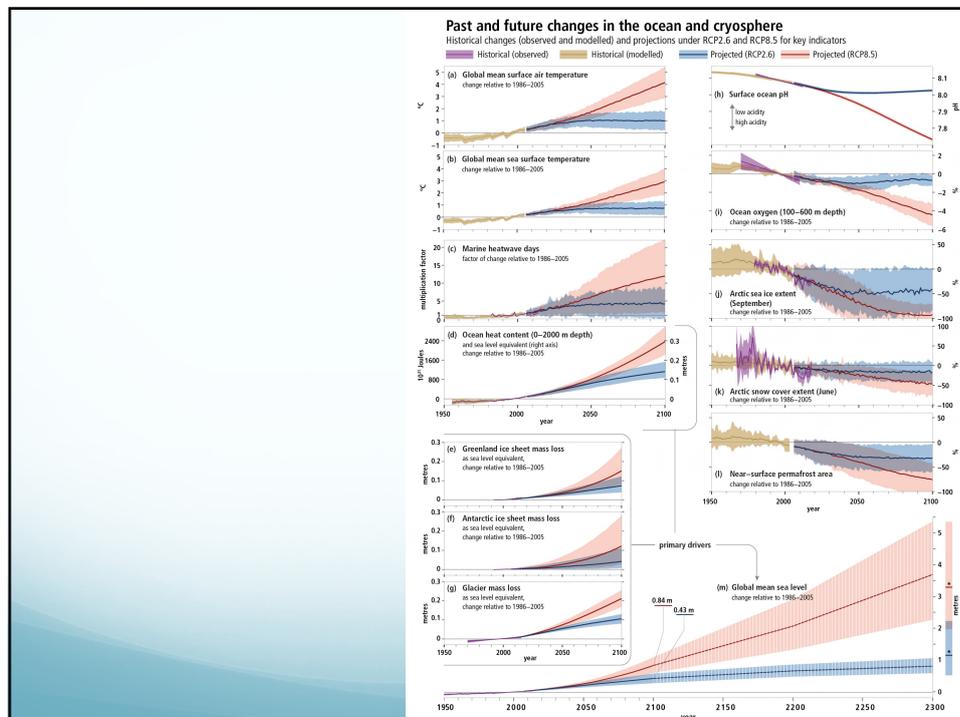
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Consequences in the ocean: Ocean warming future scenarios



IPCC 2013

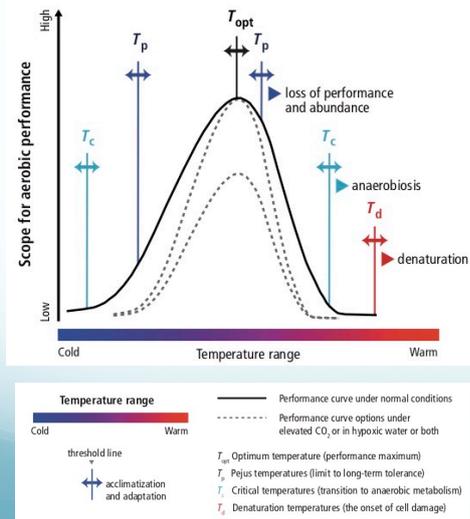
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OW: why does it matter?

(A) Thermal windows for animals: limits and acclimatization

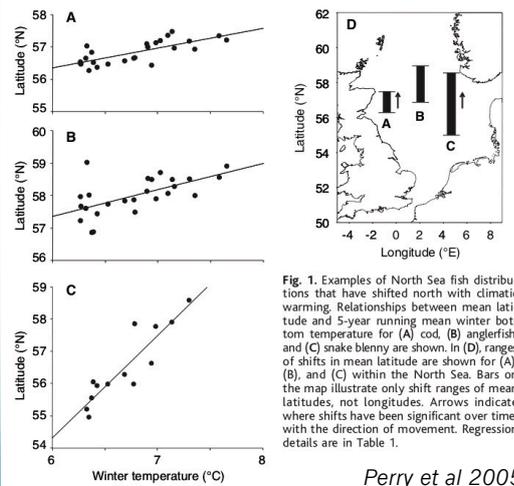


- Most marine organisms do not control their temperature
- Metabolism ↑ with temperature (energetic cost) until a threshold
- Beyond threshold: deleterious effects

→ Vulnerability of most marine organisms to warming is set by their physiology, which defines their limited temperature ranges and hence their thermal sensitivity (IPCC 2013)

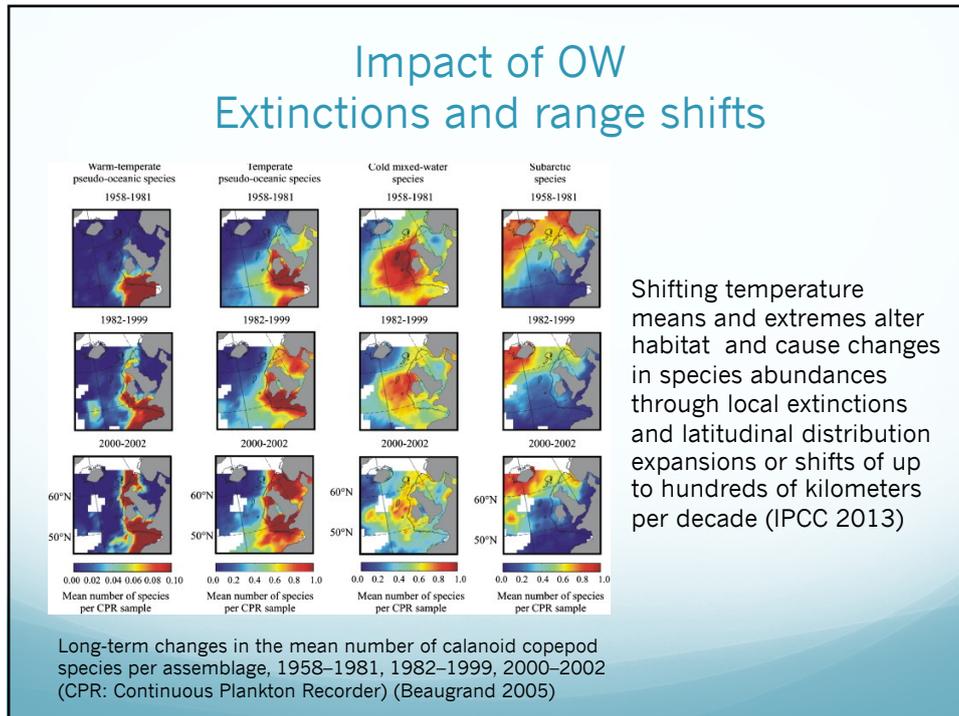
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Impact of OW Extinctions and range shifts

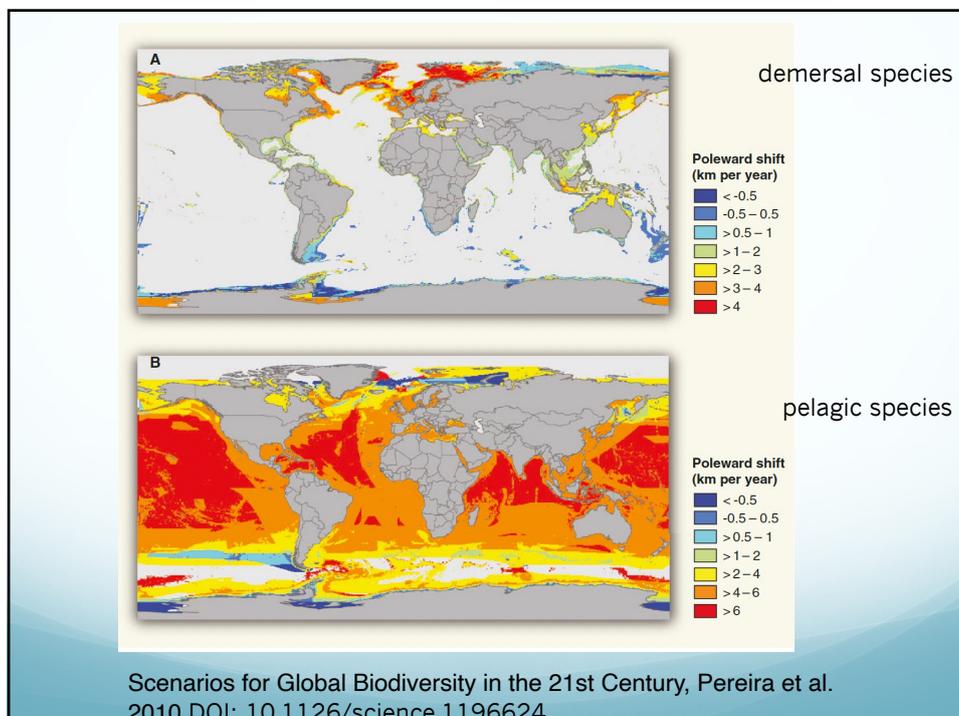


Shifting temperature means and extremes alter habitat and cause changes in species abundances through local extinctions and latitudinal distribution expansions or shifts of up to hundreds of kilometers per decade (IPCC 2013)

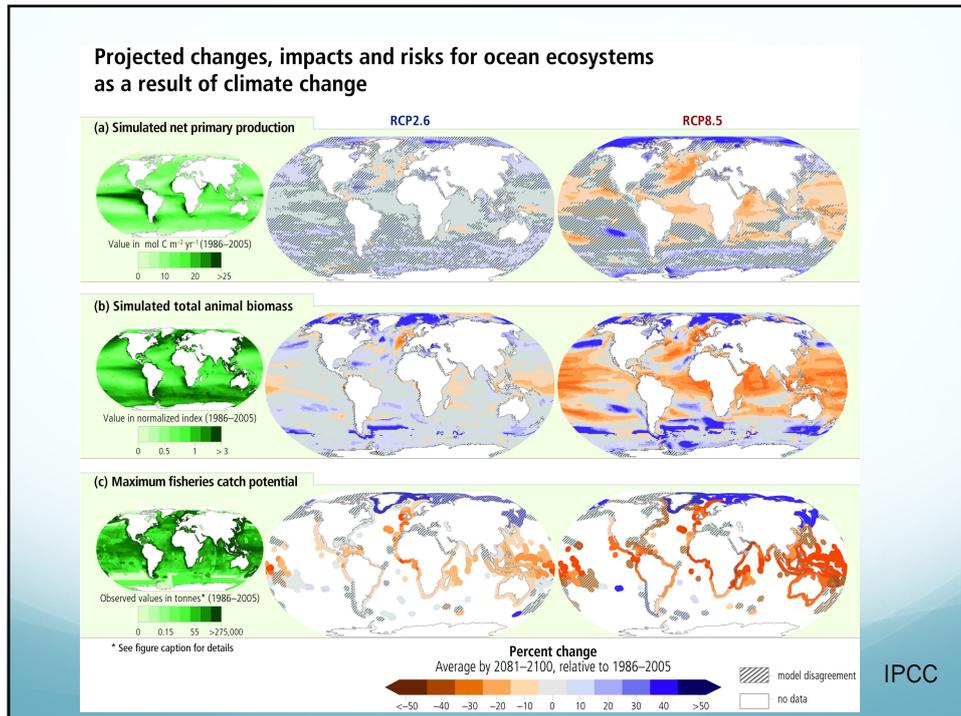
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Impact of OW

Extinctions and range shifts

CORAL BLEACHING

Have you ever wondered how a coral becomes bleached?

HEALTHY CORAL
1 Coral and algae depend on each other to survive.

Corals have a symbiotic relationship with microscopic algae called zooxanthellae that live in their tissues. These algae are the coral's primary food source and give them their color.

STRESSED CORAL
2 If stressed, algae leaves the coral.

When the symbiotic relationship becomes stressed due to increased ocean temperature or pollution, the algae leave the coral's tissue.

BLEACHED CORAL
3 Coral is left bleached and vulnerable.

Without the algae, the coral loses its major source of food, turns white or very pale, and is more susceptible to disease.

WHAT CAUSES CORAL BLEACHING?

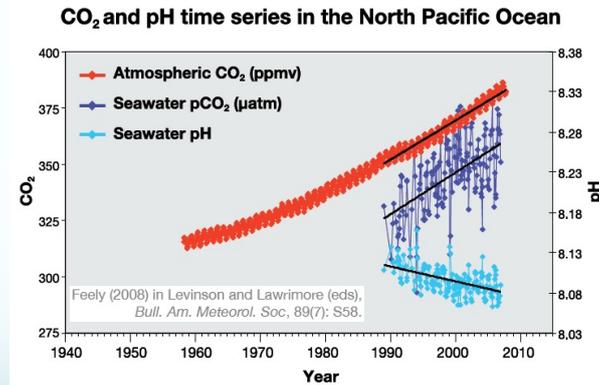
- Change in ocean temperature:** Increased ocean temperatures caused by climate change is the leading cause of coral bleaching.
- Runoff and pollution:** Storm generated precipitation can rapidly dilute ocean water and runoff can carry pollutants — these can bleach near-shore corals.
- Overexposure to sunlight:** When temperatures are high, high solar irradiance contributes to bleaching in shallow-water corals.
- Extreme low tides:** Exposure to the air during extreme low tides can cause bleaching in shallow corals.

NMFS's Coral Reef Conservation Program <http://coralreef.noaa.gov/>

See lecture on coral reefs

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Consequences in the ocean: Ocean acidification

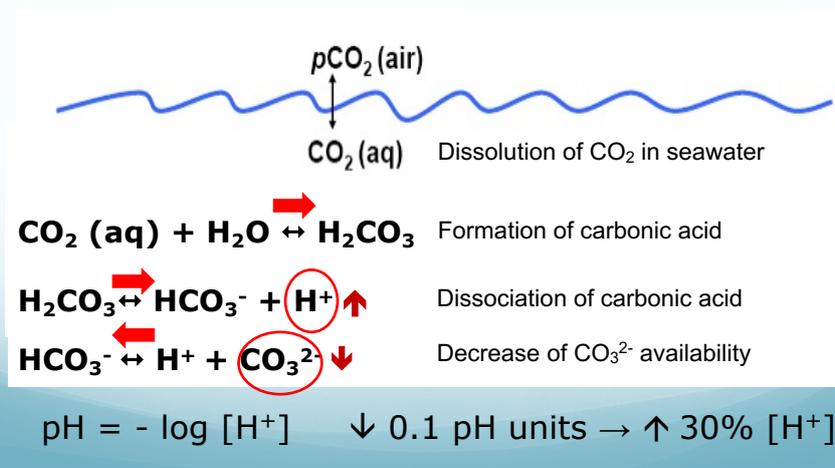


0.1 unit decrease since the Industrial Revolution

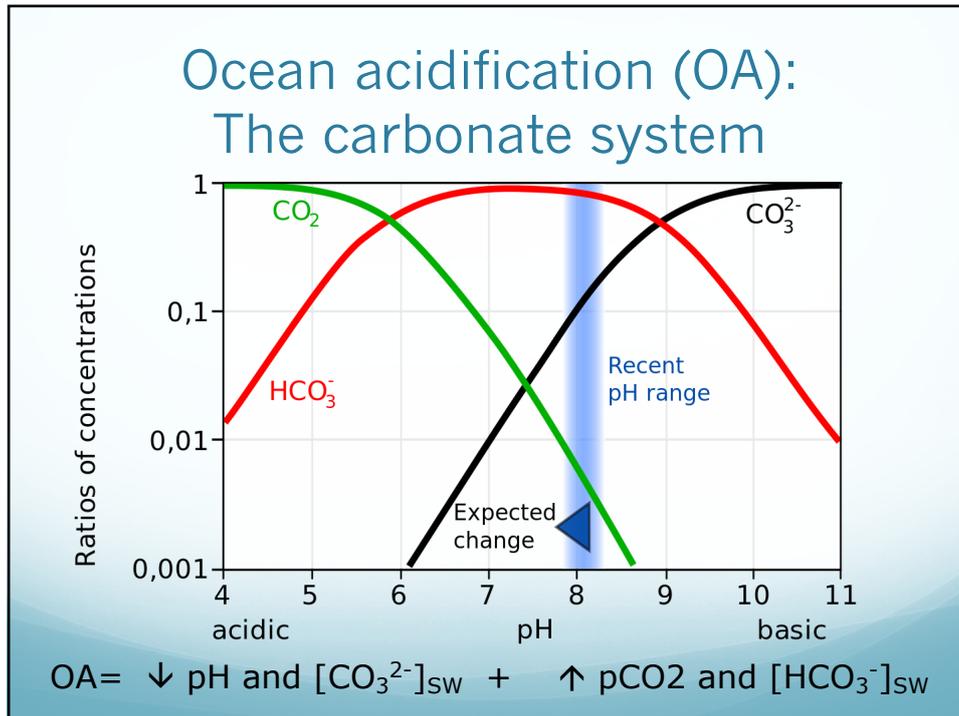
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Ocean acidification (OA): The carbonate system

The ocean has taken up between 20–30% of total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions since the 1980s



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Ocean acidification (OA) The carbonate system: Saturation state of calcium carbonate (Ω)

$$\Omega = \frac{[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{SW}} [\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{SW}}}{K_{\text{sp}}^*}$$

For inorganic CaCO_3 , in sea water, if

- $\Omega < 1$: dissolution
- $\Omega = 1$: equilibrium
- $\Omega > 1$: precipitation

- K_{sp}^* : apparent solubility constant of the considered CaCO_3
- $K_{\text{sp}}^* = [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sat}} [\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{sat}}$
- $K_{\text{sp}}^* \text{ calcite} < K_{\text{sp}}^* \text{ aragonite}$
- Aragonite is more soluble than calcite: $\Omega_{\text{ar}} < \Omega_{\text{cal}}$

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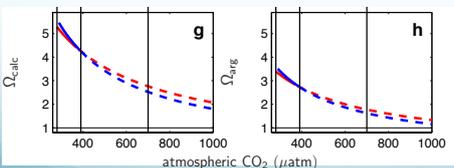
Ocean acidification (OA) The carbonate system: Saturation state of calcium carbonate (Ω)

$$\Omega = \frac{[Ca^{2+}]_{sw} [CO_3^{2-}]_{sw}}{K^*_{sp}}$$

For inorganic $CaCO_3$, in sea water, if

- $\Omega < 1$: dissolution
- $\Omega = 1$: equilibrium
- $\Omega > 1$: precipitation

• OA: $[CO_3^{2-}]_{sw} \downarrow \rightarrow \Omega \downarrow$

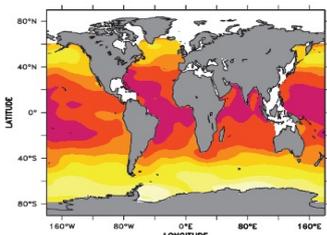


(Schulz et al 2009)

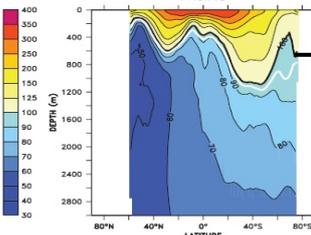
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Ocean acidification (OA) The carbonate system: Shoaling of the saturation horizon of calcium carbonate

2011-2030



PACIFIC

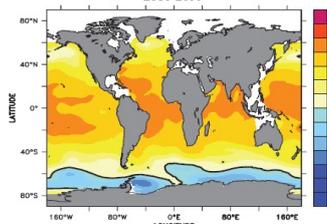


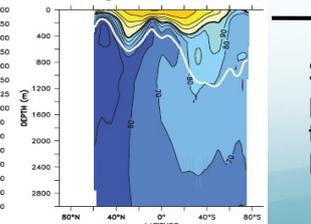
→ $\Omega=1$

Saturation horizon is the depth at which $\Omega=1$

Scale: % saturation aragonite

2080-2099





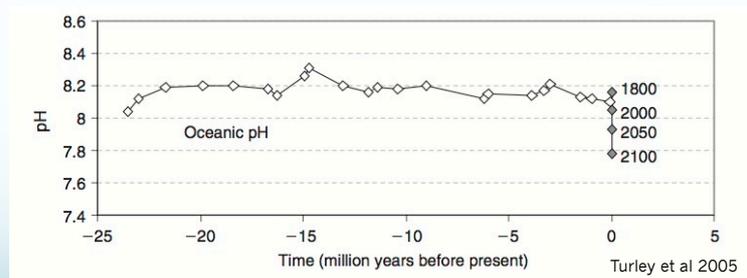
→ $\Omega=1$

Saturation horizon is predicted to reach the surface at high latitudes by 2100

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Consequences in the ocean: Ocean acidification

The fastest SW pH \downarrow ever
observed (Zeebe 2012)



A decrease in pH of 0.3-0.4 units by 2100 and 0.8 units by 2300

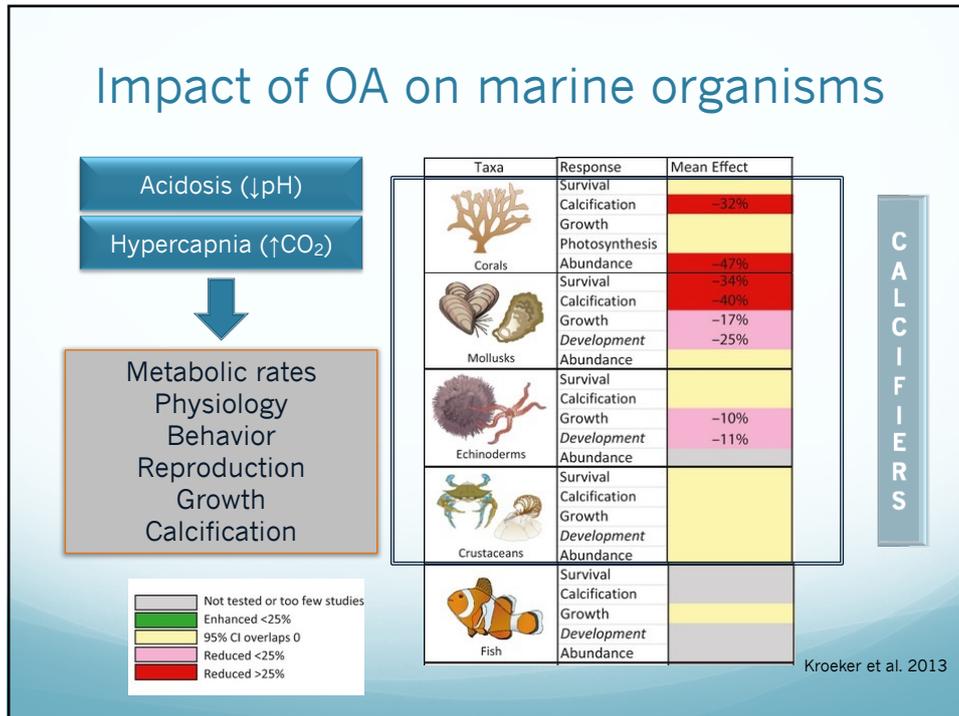
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OA: Why does it matter?

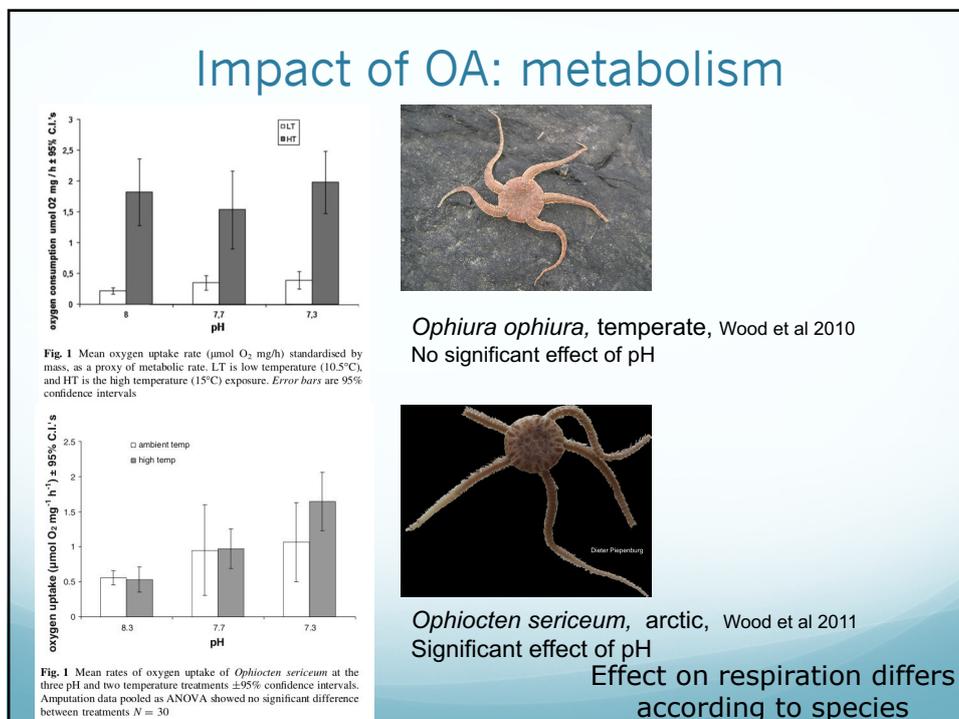
- Most water breathing marine organisms rely on the gradient in $p\text{CO}_2$ between their extracellular inner fluids and sea water to eliminate respiratory CO_2
 - \rightarrow if SW $p\text{CO}_2 \uparrow$, $p\text{CO}_2$ of extracellular fluids \uparrow until the gradient is reestablished (hypercapnia) and, consequently, pH \downarrow (acidosis)
 - \rightarrow deleterious effects, e.g. lower enzyme activities



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Impact of OA: reproduction

Larval stages are very sensitive to OA:

Early development of *Mytilus galloprovincialis*. Morphology of larvae incubated for 120h and 144h control (380ppm; pH=8.13) or in CO₂ seawater (2000ppm; pH=7.42).

Dupont et al. 2008

Early larvae of the brittlestar *Ophiothrix fragilis* reared in control seawater (pH 8.1, left), and water acidified with CO₂ (pH 7.7 right), with a reduced skeleton as an effect.

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Impact of OA: reproduction

Larvae cultured at different pH (control 8.1, 7.9 and 7.7) show a developmental delay with decreasing pH (Dupont & Thorndyke 2008)

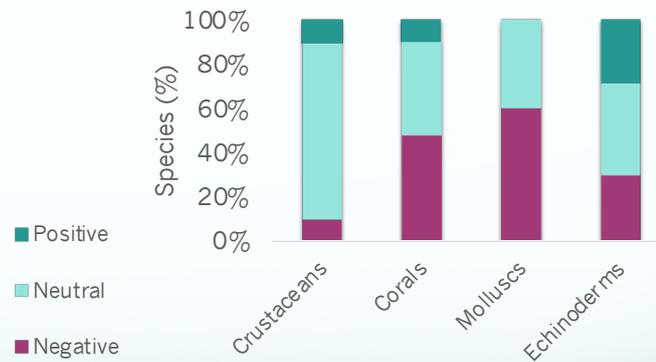
A) Late pluteus larvae - 21 days
B) Juveniles - 50 days

Relation between time and stage of development

CONCLUSION:
Control > Treatment

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification



Impact differs according to taxon, with species able to compensate their extracellular pH doing better

Wittman & Pörtner 2013

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

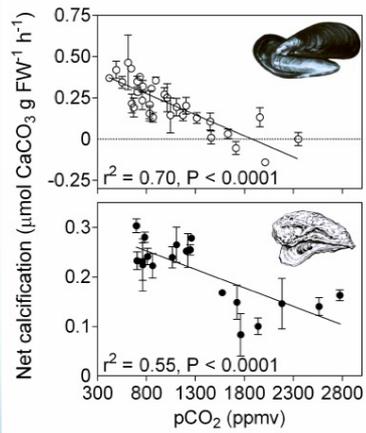
The main calcifiers in marine environments:

- Coccolithophoridae* (calcite)
- Foraminifera* (Mg-calcite: $Mg_xCa_{1-x}CO_3$; aragonite)
- Corals (aragonite)
- Calcareous algae (aragonite; calcite)
- Pteropods* (aragonite)
- Other molluscs (calcite; aragonite), echinoderms (Mg-calcite), sponges (aragonite; calcite; Mg-calcite), arthropods (calcite; aragonite)

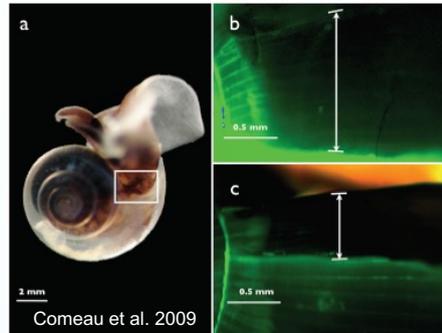
* Produce most of biogenic carbonate precipitated in the open oceans

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification



Gazeau et al. 2007



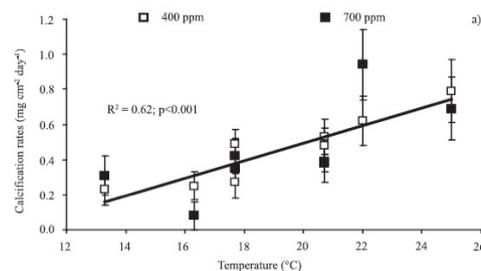
Decrease of calcification rates of *Mytilus edulis*, *Crassostrea gigas* and arctic pteropods under high pCO_2

Most bivalves and gastropods show a decrease of their calcification rates when exposed to lower pH seawaters (i.e. higher pCO_2 and lower Ω)

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

Temperate corals



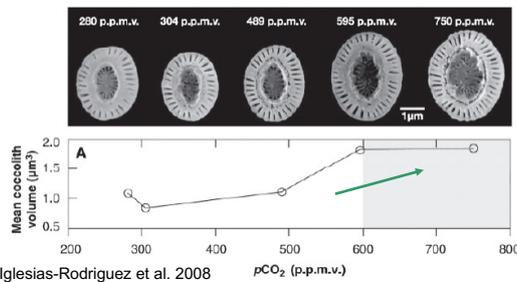
The lack of sensitivity of **temperate corals** to high- pCO_2 levels might be due to their **slow growth rates**, which seem to be more dependent on temperature than on the saturation state of calcium carbonate (in the range predicted for the end of the century)

Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2009

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

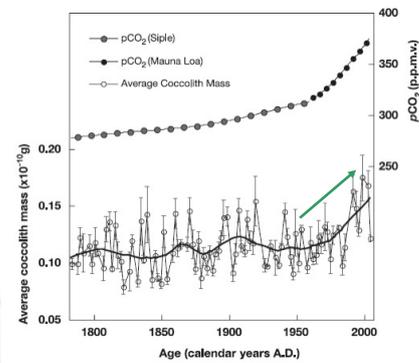
Coccolithophores



Iglesias-Rodriguez et al. 2008

Calcification increment of *Emiliana huxleyi* at higher CO₂ conditions

Related with the fact that coccolithophores are autotrophic and their calcification is intracellular?



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Impact of OA

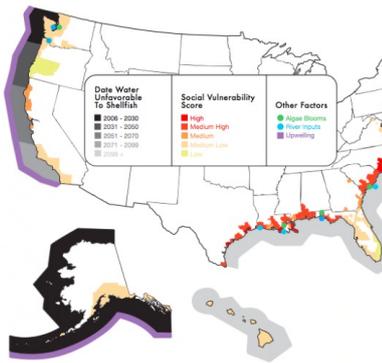
Calcifiers present different responses toward OA because:

- the organisms are autotrophic or heterotrophic
- biocalcification mechanisms differ (extracellular, intracellular, intercellular)
- metabolic strategies differ
- of acid base regulation abilities differ

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Impact of OA: fisheries

OA can also have social and economic consequences, as, for example, fishery stocks might be affected



Impacts of OA and climate change on fisheries can be indirect as a species loss causes great instability on the ecosystem.

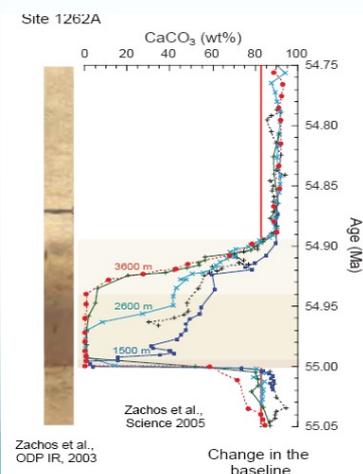
Furthermore, some species of seafood (shellfish) might be at direct risk.



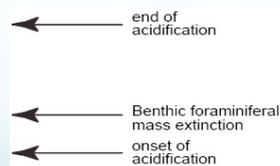
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Impact of OA: Lessons from the past

The Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM)



- Mass extinctions linked to much slower than present OA events
- It took millions of years to recover



% of CaCO_3 in the sediment is used as a proxy of foraminifera density

Adapted from Turley 2008

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Impact of OA: summary

- Reduced calcification rates, growth, production and life span of adults, juveniles and larvae
- Reduced tolerance to other environmental fluctuations
- Combined impacts of OA and temperature increase
- Changes in fitness and survival
- Changes in species biodiversity, biogeography and food webs
- Shifts in ecosystems: some species will “win” and some will “lose”

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Impact of global change in the ocean

Will organisms be able to **acclimate**
and/or **adapt** to these changes?

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Impact of OA

Acclimation - the progressive adjustments of an organism to any change in the environment that subjects it to physiological stress. It occurs in a **short period of time (days/weeks-months) and within one organism lifetime**

≠

Adaptation - structural, physiological or behavioural characteristics of a population that allows it to be better suited for a certain environment. This process takes place over **many generations through natural selection**

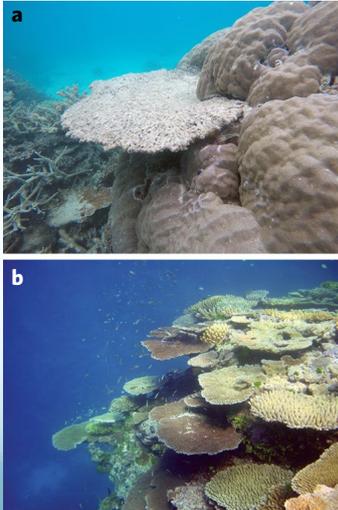
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Impact of global change in the ocean: Acclimation and adaptation

- Only preliminary evidence
- Past history of a population may have selected resistant/resilient genotypes
- Recent experimental work has shown that range-limiting traits can evolve rapidly over decadal time-scales (*Diamond 2018*)
- Surely not for all species (losers and winners) → community changes/shifts

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Impact of global change in the ocean: Acclimation and adaptation



Legacy effects of multiple disturbance.

a, Disproportionate loss of abundant, susceptible tabular and branching *Acropora* corals on northern reefs in 2016, compared with more resistant mound-shaped *Porites*, increased community resistance to recurrent bleaching in 2017.

b, Corals in the southern Great Barrier Reef remained unbleached and dominated by *Acropora* in 2017, despite higher levels of heat exposure than in 2016.

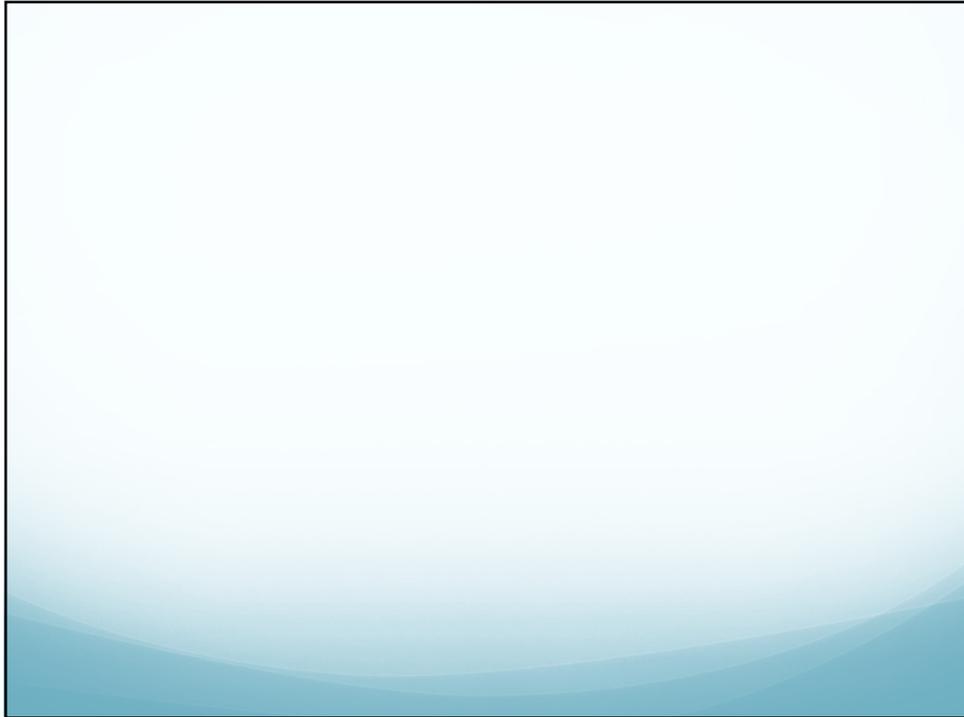
(Hughes et al 2019)

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Impact of global change in the ocean: Further readings

- IPCC reports:
<https://www.ipcc.ch/reports/>
- In particular for the ocean
<https://www.ipcc.ch/srocc/>

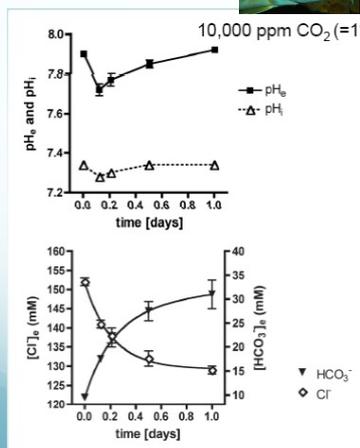
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How do organisms cope with OA?

Gadus morhua
Larsen et al. 1997



- Some are able to compensate their extracellular pH
- Non-bicarbonate buffering (proteins principally): most organisms but very different magnitudes
- Bicarbonate accumulation: fishes, crustaceans, cephalopods, some sea urchins
- Energetic cost! (active transport: ATPase HCO₃⁻/Cl⁻)

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

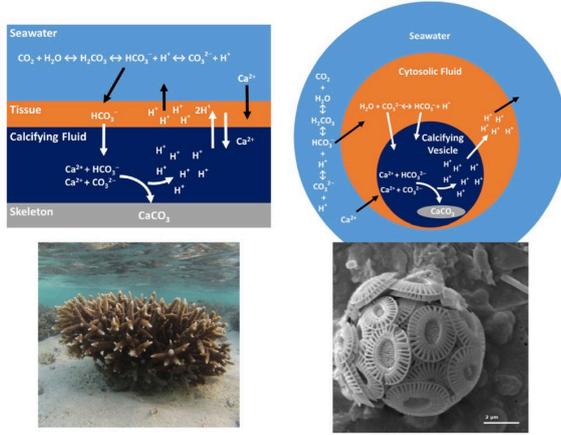


Figure 1. A simplified schematic demonstrating the internal build-up of protons during the calcification process in corals and coccillithophores. Corals (left panel) must dissipate excess protons produced by calcification through a boundary layer and into the water column as proposed by Jokiel (2011b). Internally, corals most likely actively pump HCO_3^- ions into the calcifying fluid where protons build-up as CaCO_3 is precipitated. To maintain favourable conditions for precipitation in the calcifying fluid, corals likely actively pump 2H^+ out and Ca^{2+} in using a Ca^{2+} -ATPase (Allmand et al., 2011). To maintain the pH inside their tissue corals must remove protons, which becomes more energetically demanding when the gradient between the tissue and seawater $[\text{H}^+]$ is less pronounced due to ocean acidification. Sulfrian et al. (2011) demonstrated that internal cellular pH (pHi) in coccillithophores like *Emiliania huxleyi* (right panel) is directly affected by the surrounding seawater pH. This is most likely because *E. huxleyi* uses passive gated H^+ channels to control cytosolic pH, which are forced to work against a less pronounced H^+ gradient in an acidifying ocean. Black arrows represent fluxes between the organism and external seawater while white arrows represent fluxes occurring within the organism.

Cyronak et al 2015

Ω is not the real problem:

- HCO_3^- is the required ion for calcification (not CO_3^{2-})
- Calcification produces H^+ : $\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{HCO}_3^- \leftrightarrow \text{CaCO}_3 + \text{H}^+$
- H^+ has to be removed from the calcifying site → energetic cost
- Ω can be used as a proxy because it is linked to $[\text{H}^+]$

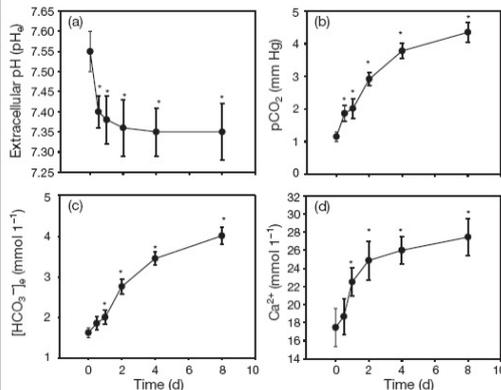
$$\frac{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}{[\text{H}^+]} = \frac{\Omega_{\text{CaCO}_3} K_{\text{sp}}^*}{[\text{Ca}^{2+}] K_2^*}$$

Bach 2015

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How do organisms cope with OA?

Mytilus edulis
Michaelidis et al 2005

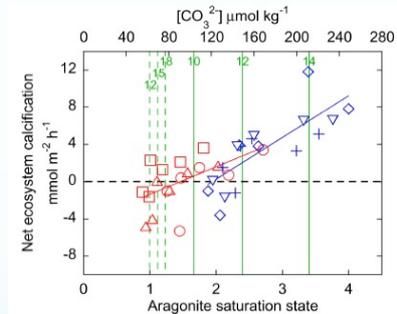


- Others are not able to compensate their extracellular pH
- Non-bicarbonate buffering (proteins principally): low concentration
- No bicarbonate accumulation: bivalves, gastropods (?), sea stars, brittle stars, sea cucumbers etc..

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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

Coral reef ecosystems (**warm waters**) might be particularly at risk

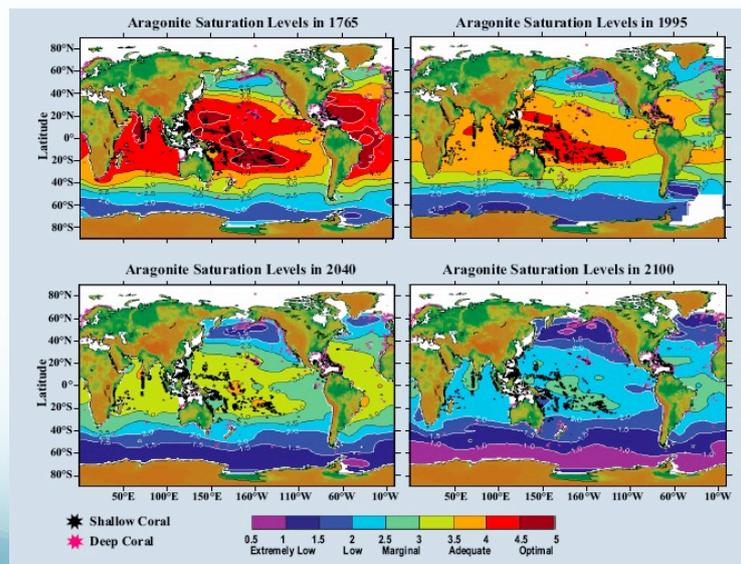


Andersson et al. 2009

Balance of deposition by calcifiers (principally scleractinians, calcareous algae) minus dissolution (chemical and bioerosion) might become negative when $\Omega < 2$, meaning that the coral reefs would loose mass.

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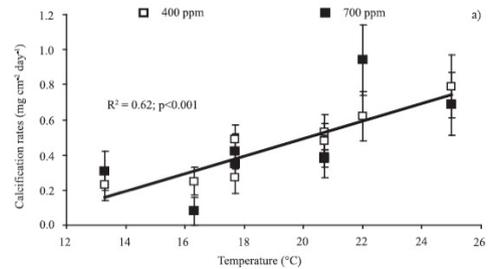
Impact of OA: growth and calcification



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Impact of OA: growth and calcification

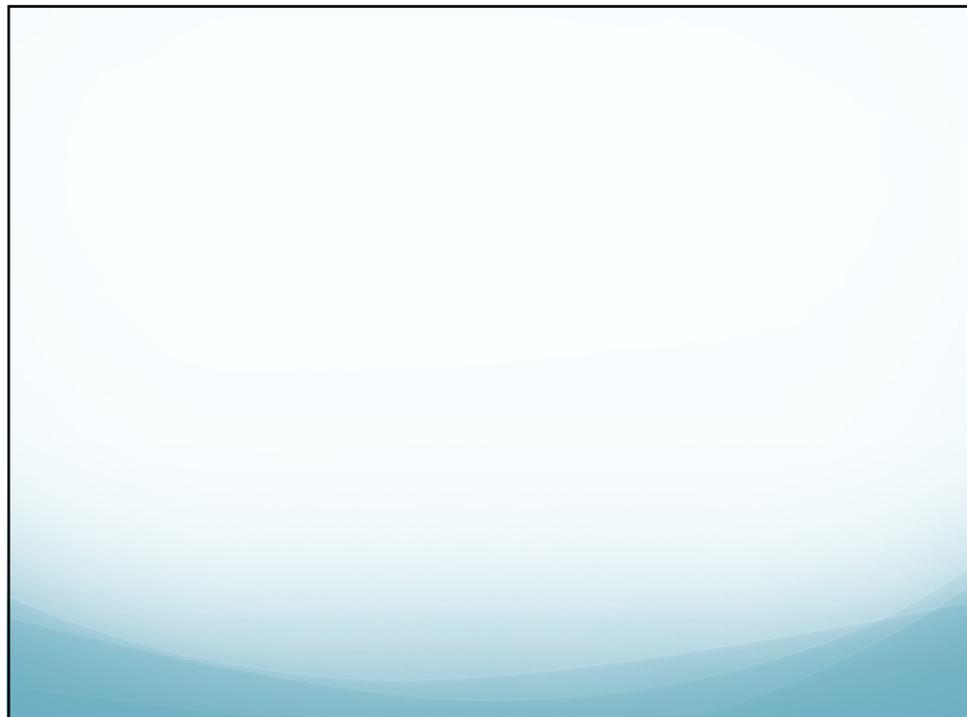
Temperate corals



The lack of sensitivity of **temperate corals** to high-pCO₂ levels might be due to their **slow growth rates**, which seem to be more dependent on temperature than on the saturation state of calcium carbonate (in the range predicted for the end of the century)

Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2009

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