



**GLOBAL CHANGE IN THE
OCEAN**

GREENHOUSE EFFECT

Joseph Fourier

1824



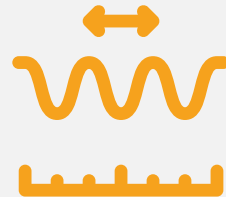
Eunice Foote

1856



John Tyndall

1859



Svante Arrhenius

1896



MILANKOVITCH CYCLE

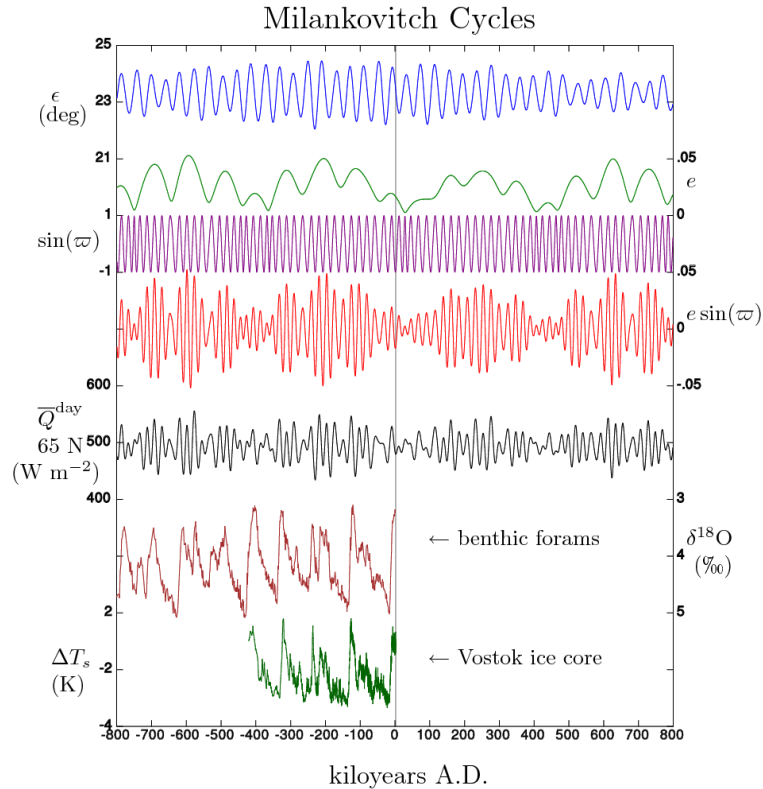
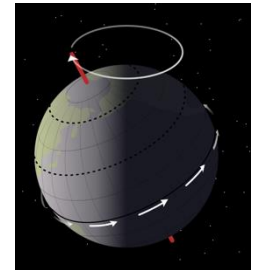
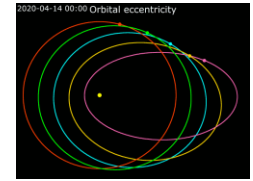
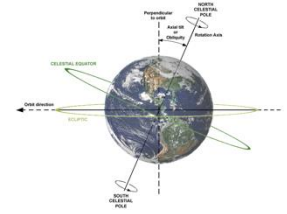
Axial tilt or obliquity

Eccentricity

Longitude of perihelion

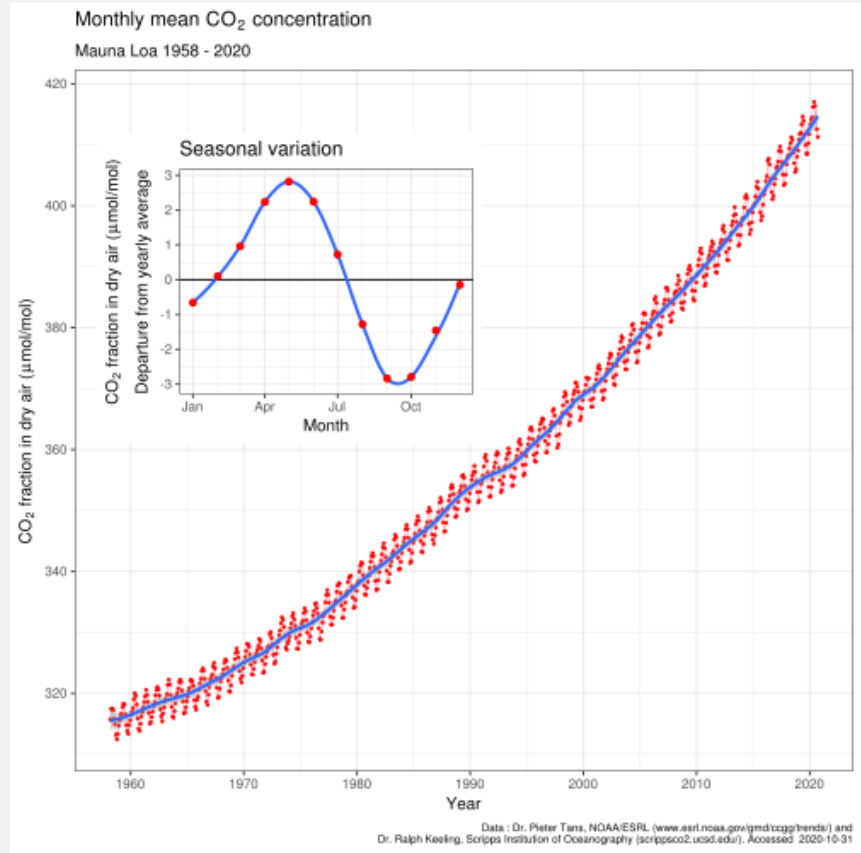
Precession index

Daily-average insolation



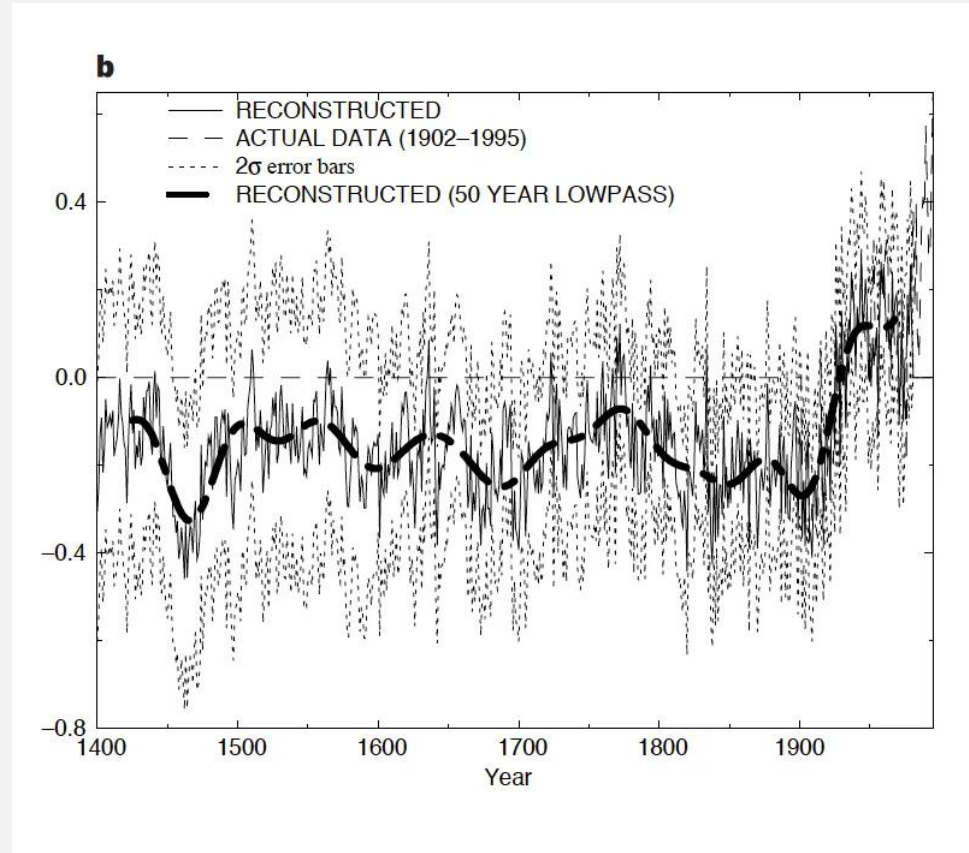
KEELING CURVE

- 1960
- Mauna Loa Observatory,
Hawaii
- Monthly mean CO₂
concentration
- 1958 to the present day



HOCKEY STICK

- Original “hockey stick” temperature graph in *Nature*, 1998. The Y axis 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

HISTORIC TEMPERATURE RECORDS

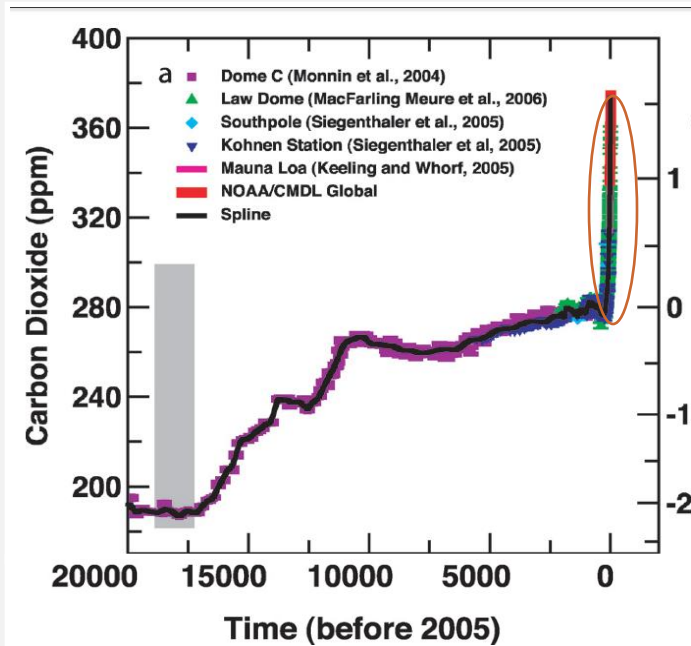
Temperature

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

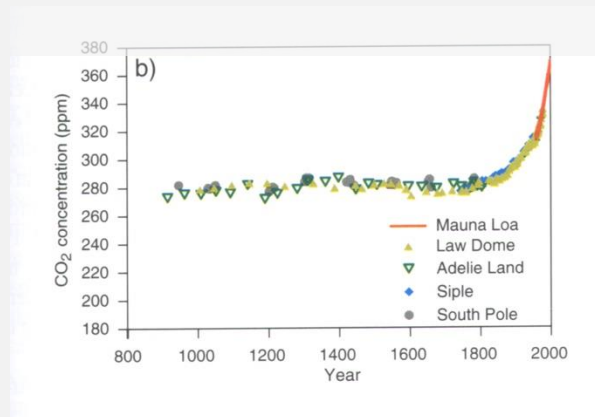
HISTORIC CO₂ CONCENTRATIONS

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

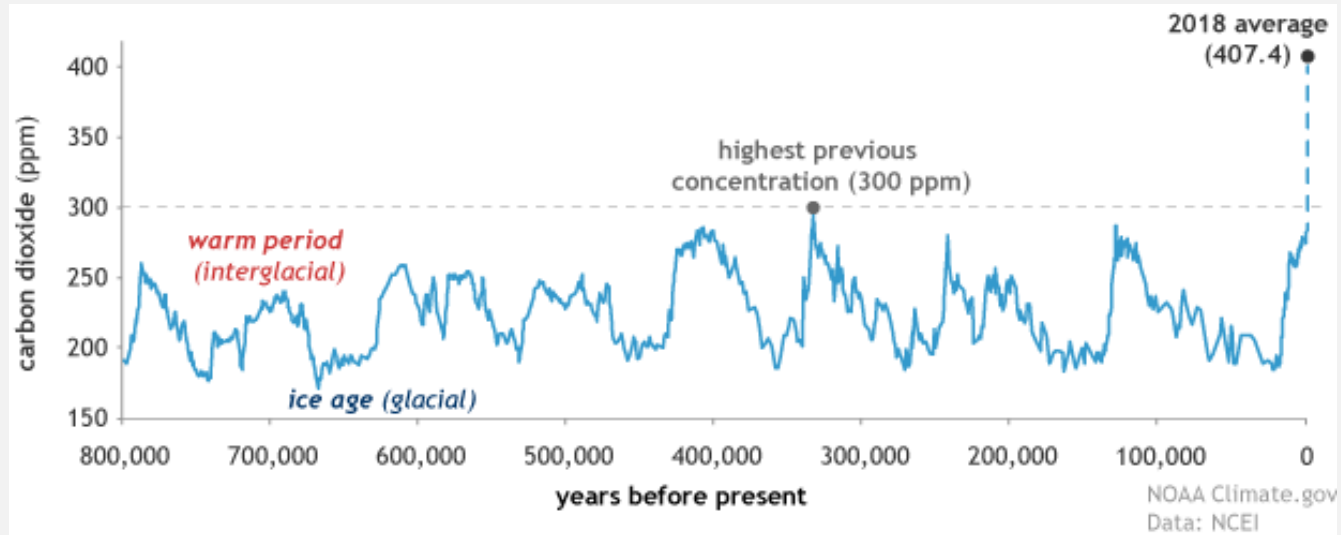
CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE IS INCREASING



- The fastest \uparrow of $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$ ever observed (Zeebe 2012)



CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE IS INCREASING



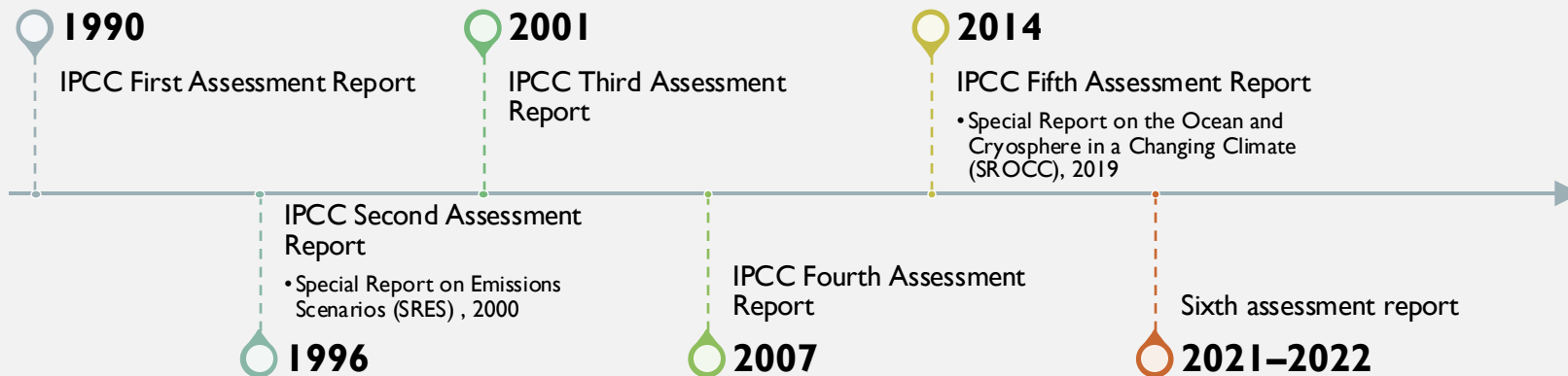
- The fastest \uparrow of $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$ ever observed (Zeebe 2012)

LOOKING FURTHER BACK

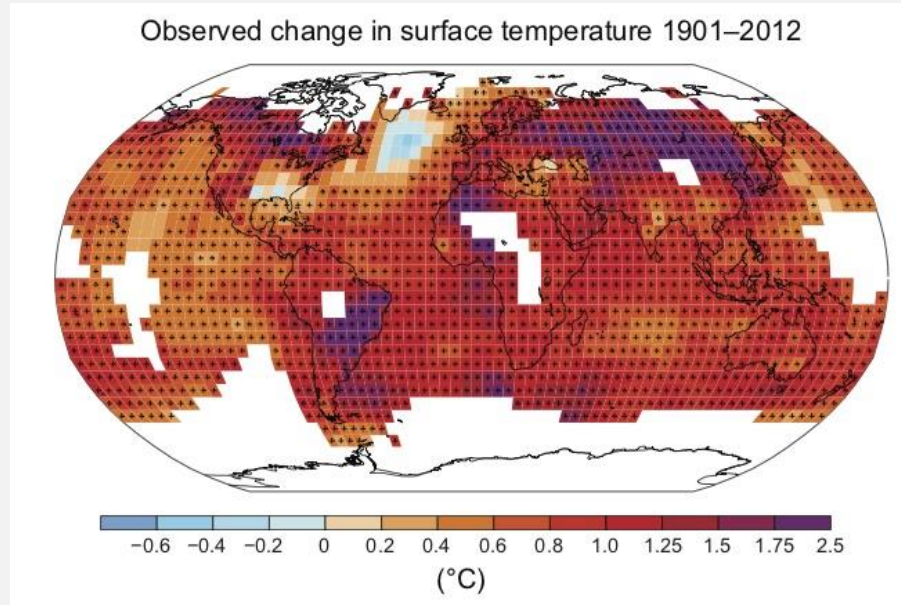


© Beyond Epica (1.5 million years...)

THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL PANEL ON CLIMATE CHANGE



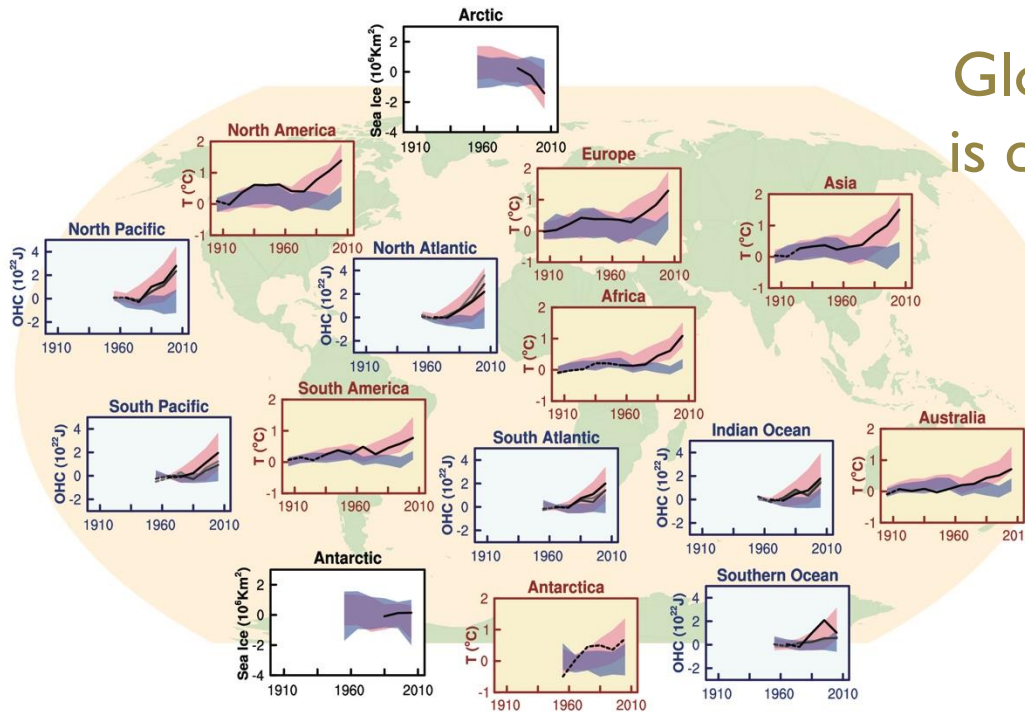
Consequences in the atmosphere: Global warming



(IPCC 2013)

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

Global warming is due to human activities

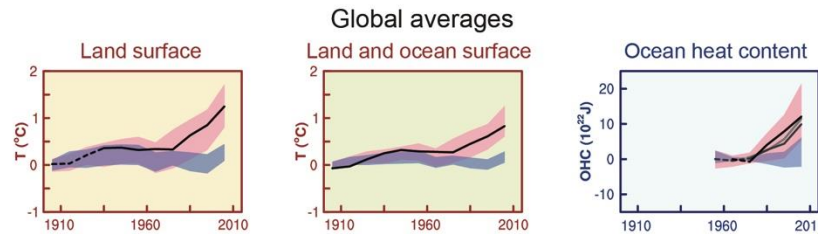


(IPCC 2013)

Comparison of observed and simulated climate change based on three large-scale indicators in the atmosphere, the cryosphere and the ocean:

change in continental land surface air temperatures (yellow panels), Arctic and Antarctic September sea ice extent (white panels),

and upper ocean heat content in the major ocean basins (blue panels)



≡ Observations

■ Models using only natural forcings

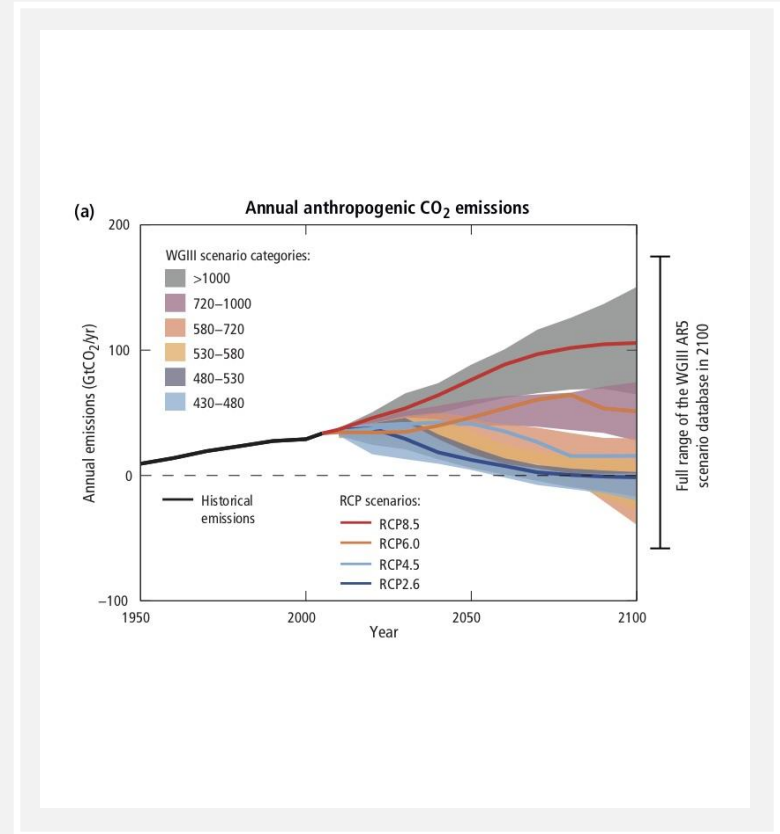
■ Models using both natural and anthropogenic forcings

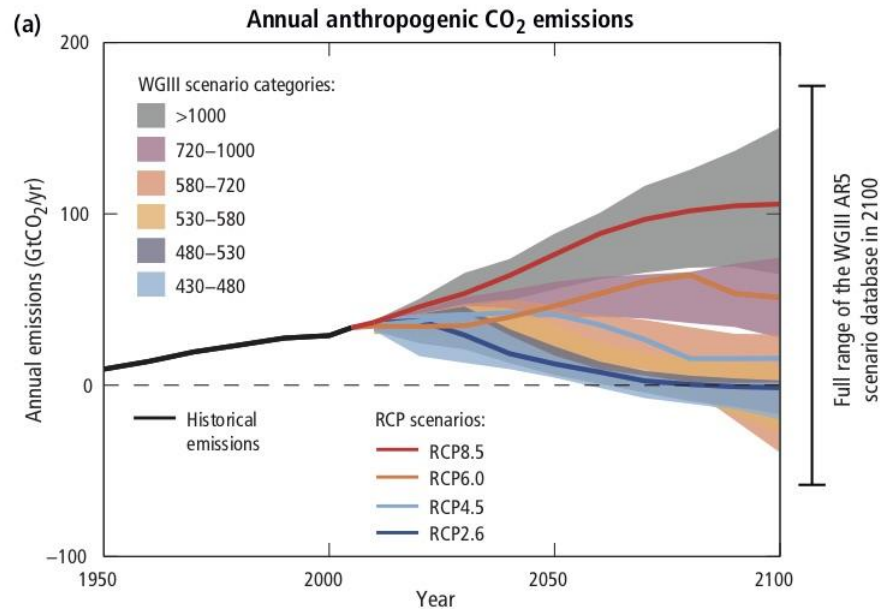
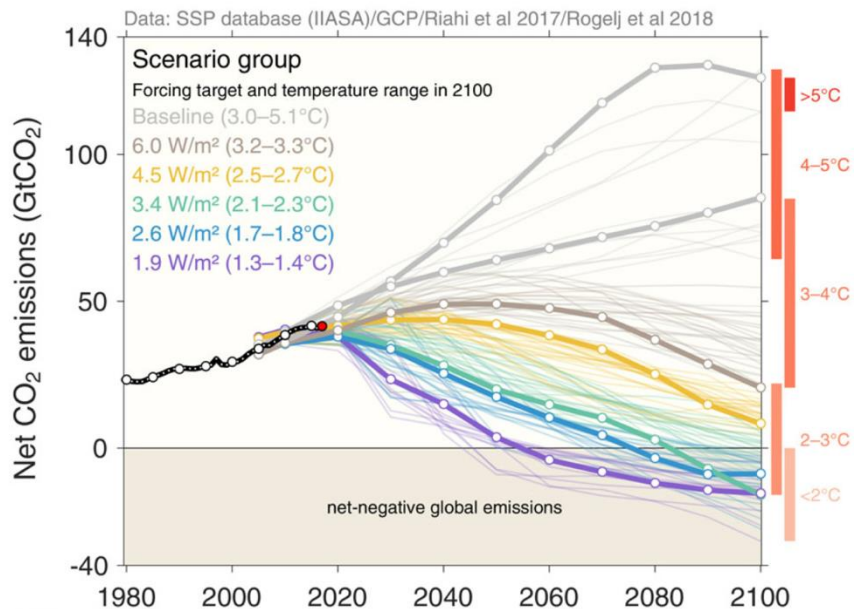
CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE IS INCREASING: FUTURE SCENARIOS

REPRESENTATIVE CONCENTRATION PATHWAYS

Emissions of carbon dioxide (CO_2) alone in the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) (lines) and the associated scenario categories (coloured areas show 5 to 95% range). The scenario categories summarize the wide range of emission scenarios published in the scientific literature and are defined on the basis of CO_2 -eq concentration levels (in ppm) in 2100. (IPCC 2013)

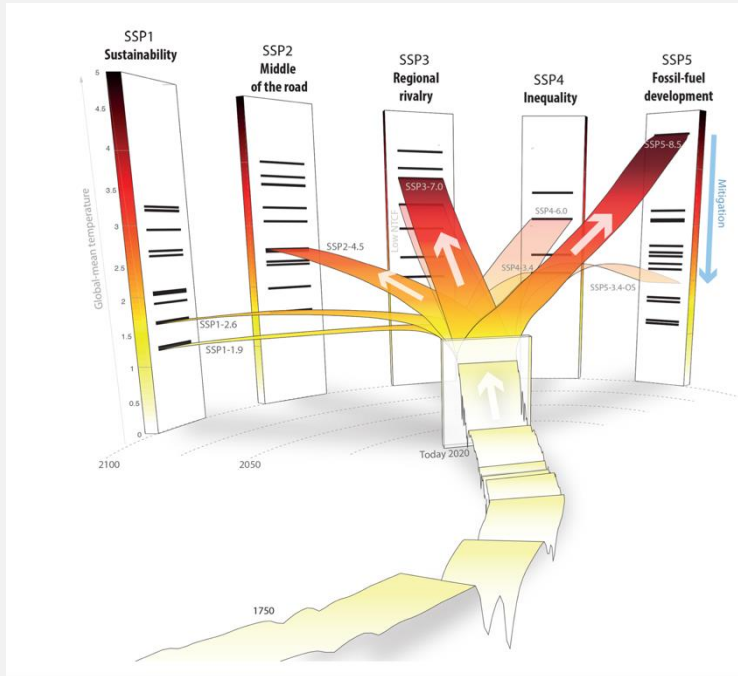
- RCP 8.5: ~ business as usual
- RCP 2.6:
 - CO_2 emissions start declining by 2020 and go to zero by 2100.
 - CH_4 emissions go to approximately half the CH_4 levels of 2020
 - SO_2 emissions decline to approximately 10% of those of 1980-1990



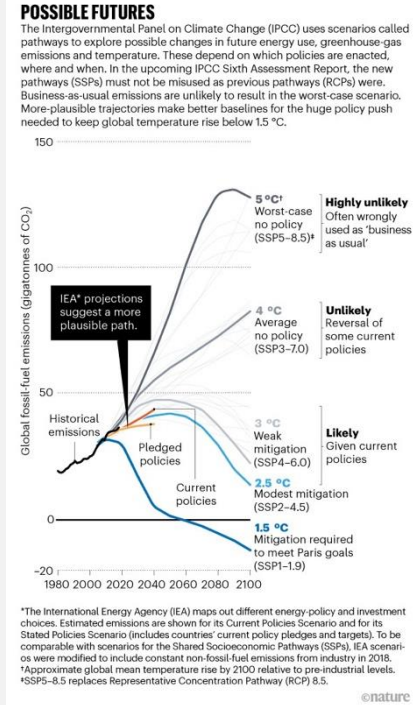


SHARED SOCIECONOMIC REFERENCE PATHWAY

The SSP scenarios and their five socio-economic SSP families



<https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-13-3571-2020>



<https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-020-00177-3>

Consequences in the ocean

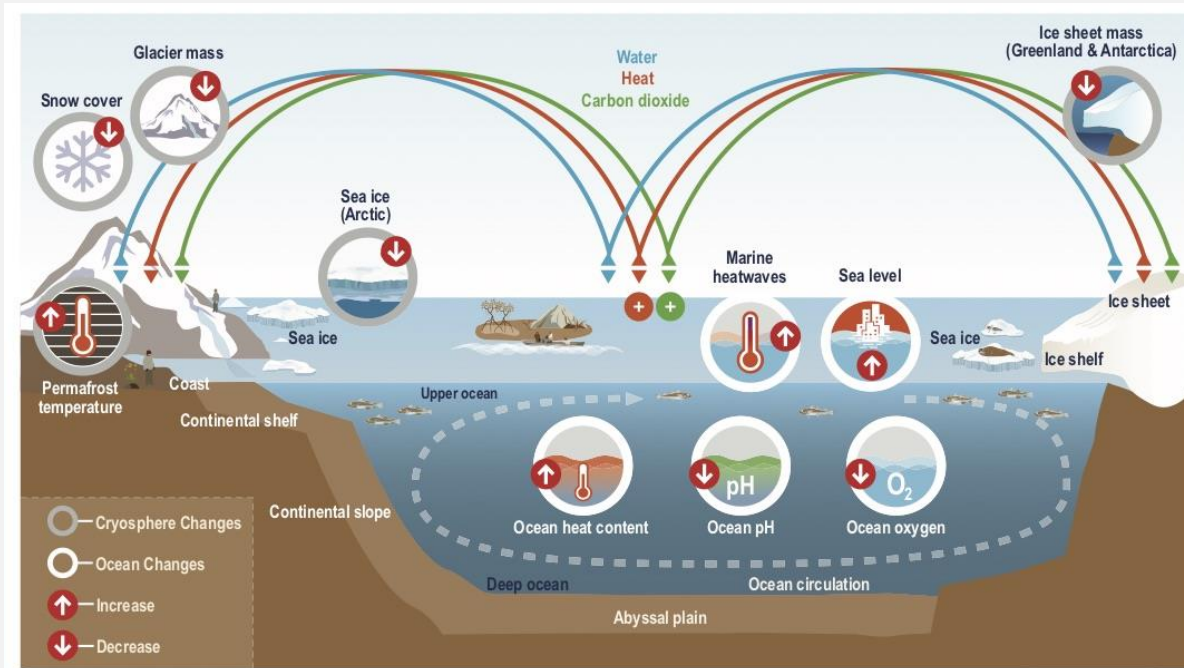
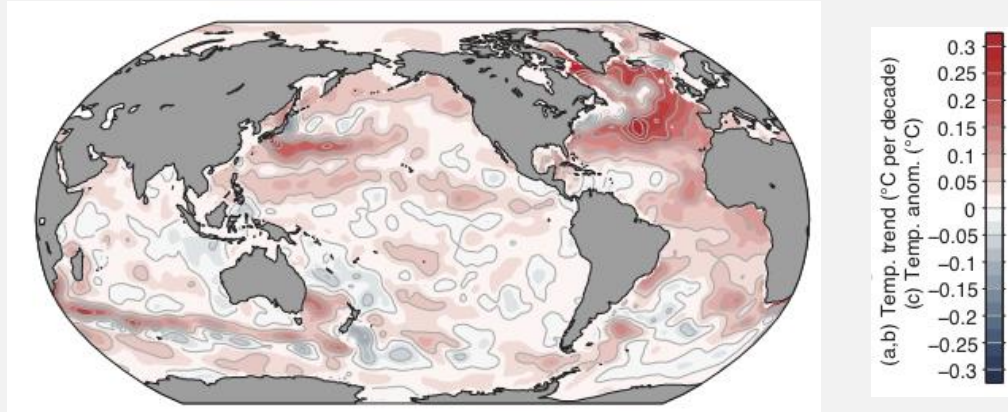


Figure TS.2 | Schematic illustration of key components and changes of the ocean and cryosphere, and their linkages in the Earth system through the global exchange of heat, water, and carbon (Section 1.2). Climate change-related effects (increase/decrease indicated by arrows in pictograms) in the ocean include sea level rise, increasing ocean heat content and marine heat waves, increasing ocean oxygen loss and ocean acidification (Section 1.4.1). Changes in the cryosphere include the decline of Arctic sea ice extent, Antarctic and Greenland ice sheet mass loss, glacier mass loss, permafrost thaw, and decreasing snow cover extent (Section 1.4.2). For illustration purposes, a few examples of where humans directly interact with ocean and cryosphere are shown (for more details see Box 1.1).

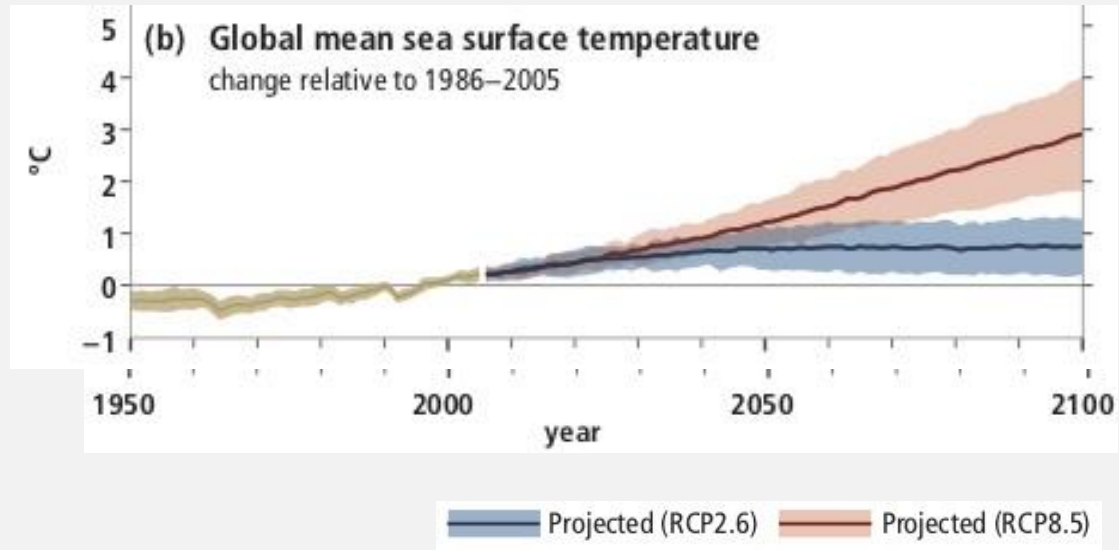
Consequences in the ocean: Ocean warming (OW)



0-700m averaged temperature trend 1971-2010
(IPCC 2013)

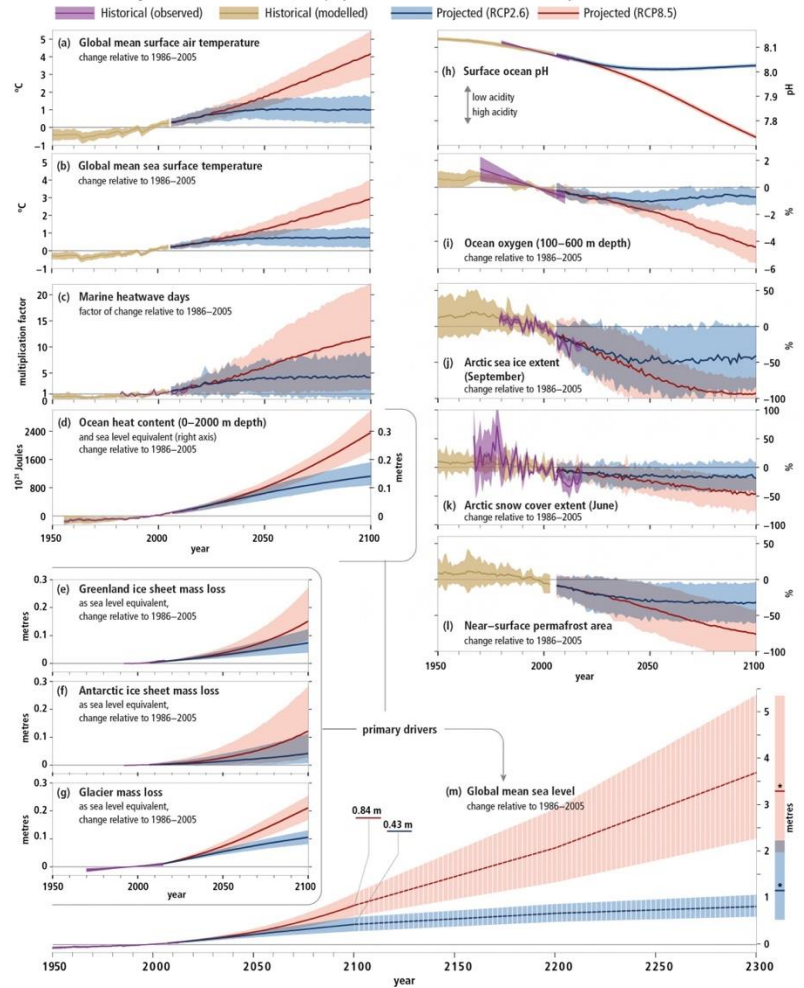
The upper 75 m warmed by $0.11 [0.09 \text{ to } 0.13] \text{ } ^\circ \text{C}$
per decade over the period 1971 to 2010

Consequences in the ocean: Ocean warming future scenarios



Past and future changes in the ocean and cryosphere

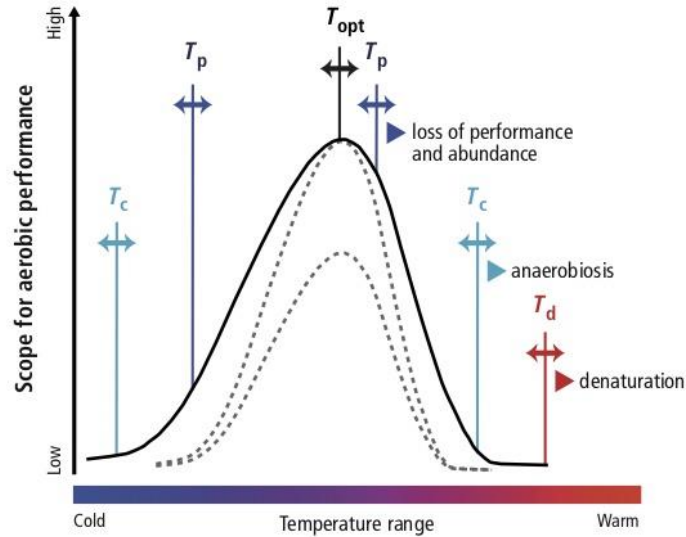
Historical changes (observed and modelled) and projections under RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 for key indicators



OCEAN WARMING
WHY DOES IT MATTER?

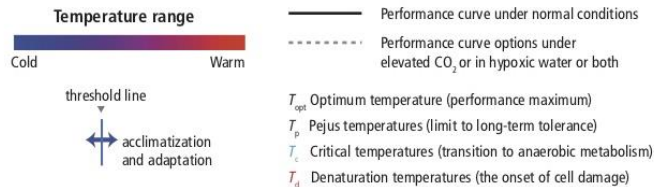
IMPACT OF OW
EXTINCTIONS AND RANGE SHIFTS

(A) Thermal windows for animals: limits and acclimatization



- Most marine organisms do not control their temperature
- Metabolism \uparrow 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)



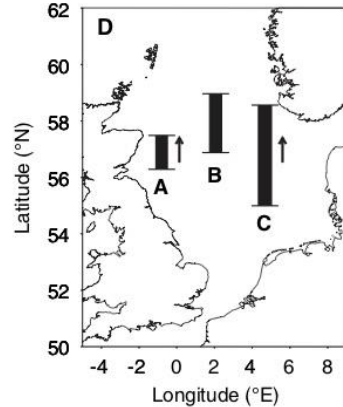
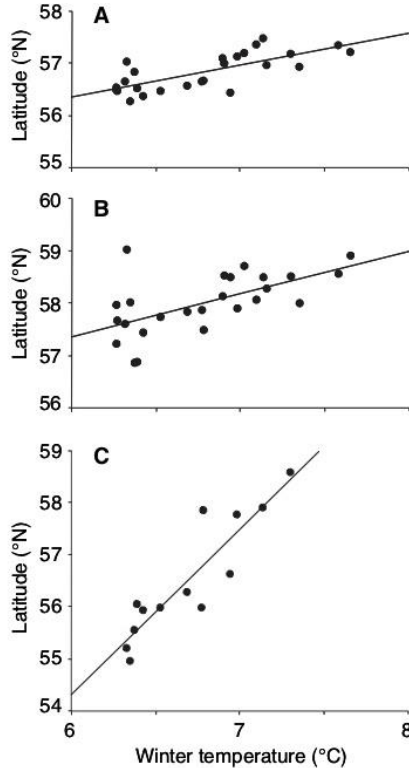


Fig. 1. Examples of North Sea fish distributions that have shifted north with climatic warming. Relationships between mean latitude and 5-year running mean winter bottom temperature for (A) cod, (B) anglerfish, and (C) snake blenny are shown. In (D), ranges of shifts in mean latitude are shown for (A), (B), and (C) within the North Sea. Bars on the map illustrate only shift ranges of mean latitudes, not longitudes, not longitudes. Arrows indicate where shifts have been significant over time, with the direction of movement. Regression details are in Table 1.

A. Cod



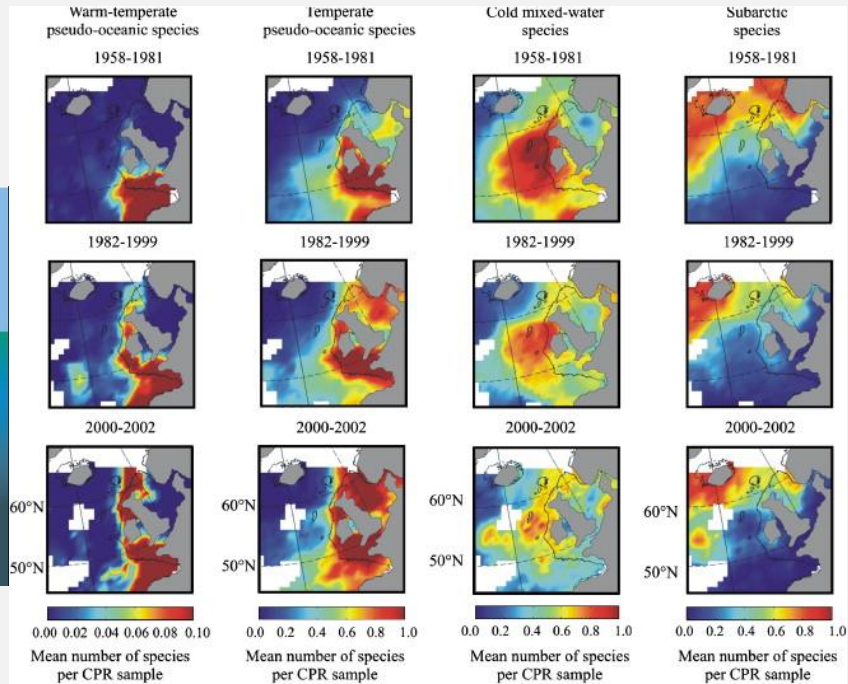
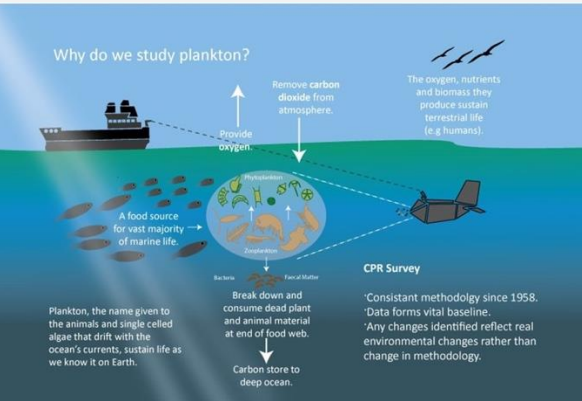
B. Anglerfish



C. Snake Blenny

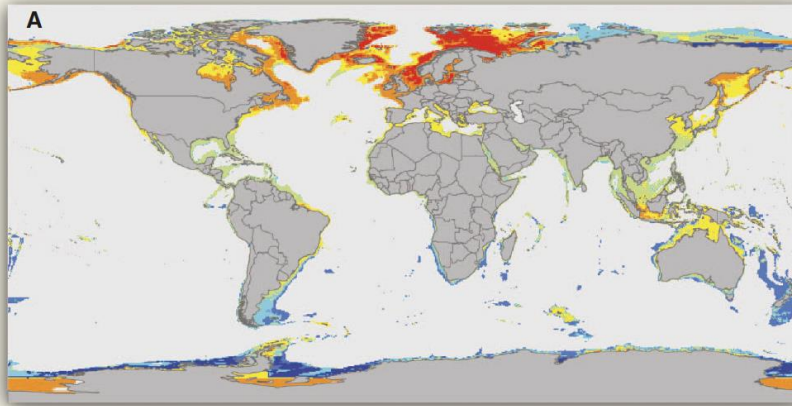


Shifting temperature means and extremes alter habitat and cause changes in species abundances through local extinctions and latitudinal distribution expansions or shifts of up to hundreds of kilometers per decade (IPCC 2013)

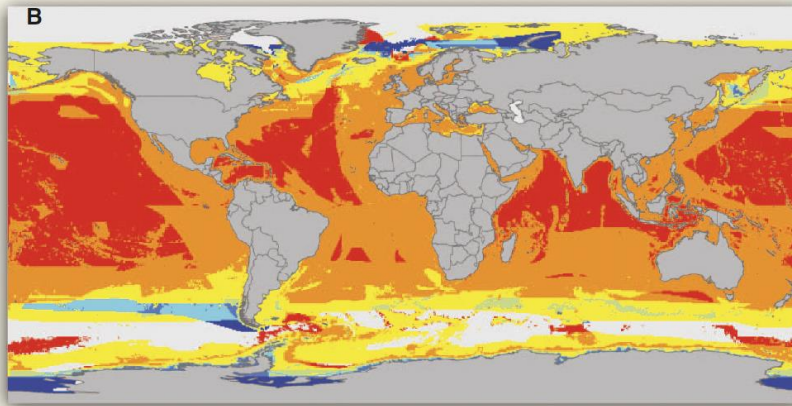


Shifting temperature means and extremes alter habitat and cause changes in species abundances through local extinctions and latitudinal distribution expansions or shifts of up to hundreds of kilometers per decade (IPCC 2013)

Long-term changes in the mean number of calanoid copepod species per assemblage, 1958–1981, 1982–1999, 2000–2002 (CPR: Continuous Plankton Recorder) (Beaugrand 2005)



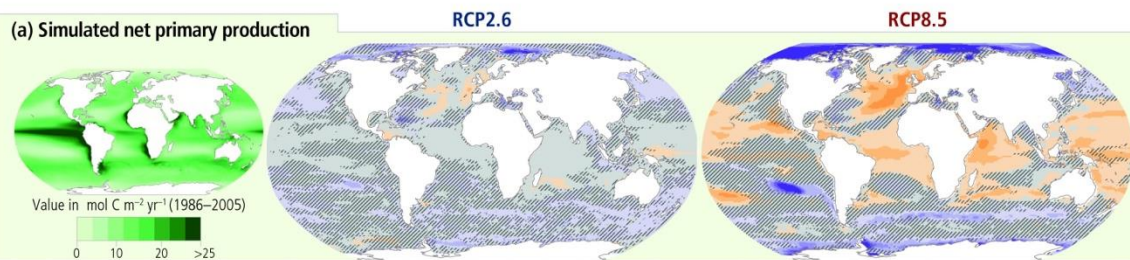
demersal species



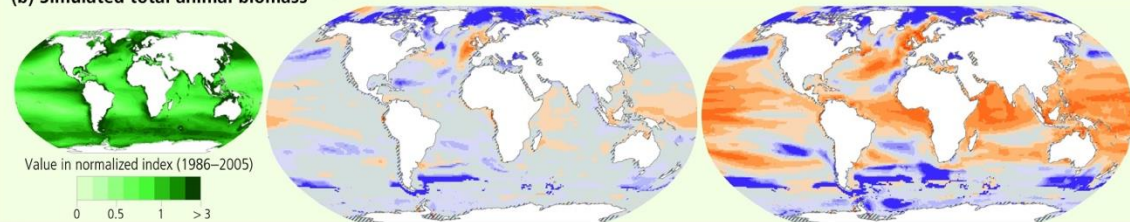
pelagic species

Projected changes, impacts and risks for ocean ecosystems as a result of climate change

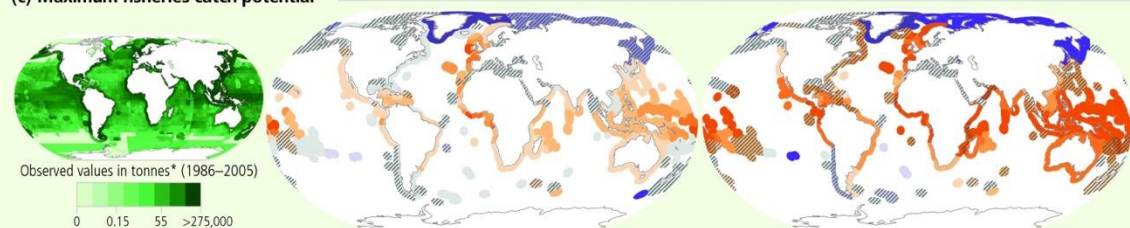
(a) Simulated net primary production



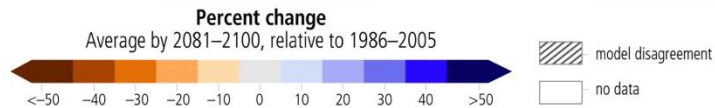
(b) Simulated total animal biomass



(c) Maximum fisheries catch potential



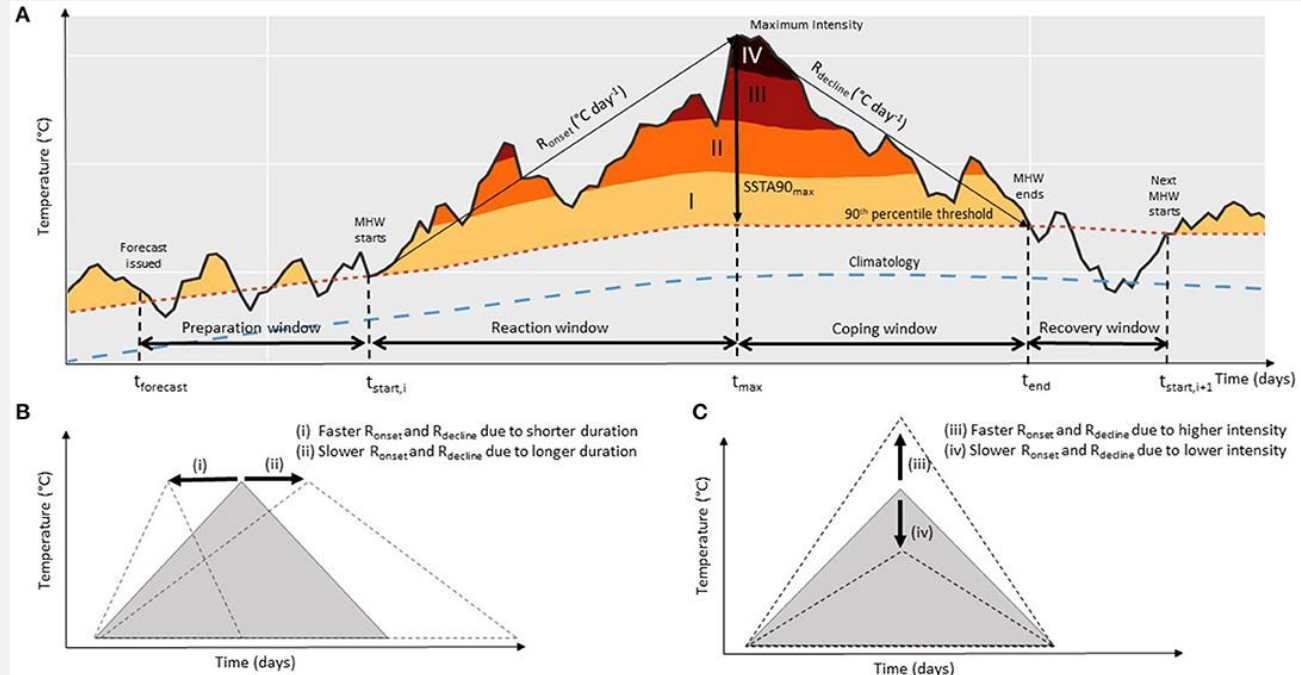
* See figure caption for details



MARINE HEATWAVE

- a discrete and prolonged anomalously warm event, lasting at least 5 days (and up to many months) with clear start and end times, and with temperatures in the 90th percentile compared with a 30-year-long baseline of data

I Moderate, II Strong, III Severe, IV Extreme



- FIGURE 1. (A) Marine heatwave characteristics, using an observed MHW example. The rate of onset (R_{onset}) is calculated here by dividing the peak exceedance (SSTA90_{max}) by the time required to reach it ($t_{\text{max}} - t_{\text{start}}$). Similarly, the rate of decline (R_{decline}) is calculated here by dividing SSTA90_{max} by the time from peak exceedance to the end of the event ($t_{\text{end}} - t_{\text{max}}$). The climatology, 90th percentile threshold, and category (I Moderate, II Strong, III Severe, IV Extreme; [Hobday et al., 2018a](#)) are also shown. Periods of interest for marine decision-makers include the *preparation window* defined as the time between a forecast issued (t_{forecast}) and the start of a MHW (t_{start}), the *reaction window* which is the time from the start of the event to peak exceedance ($t_{\text{max}} - t_{\text{start}}$), the *coping window* which is the time from the peak of the event (t_{max}) to the end (t_{end}), and the *recovery window* which begins at t_{end} and ends at the start of the next MHW event. Changes in MHW onset and decline rates can be through (B) changes in duration and/or (C) changes in peak exceedance.

- <https://doi.org/10.3389/fclim.2021.801217>

CAUSES



higher air temperatures



more intense solar radiation



less cloud cover



a thinner mixed layer



drops in wind speed



shifts in ocean currents



presence/absence of large-scale climate phenomena such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation

climate change

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 temperature 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

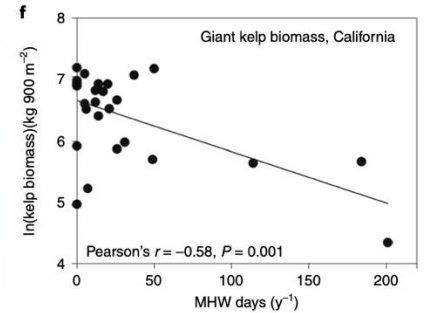
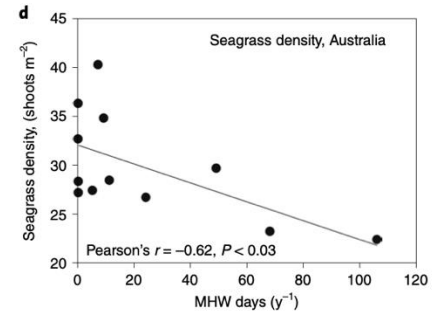
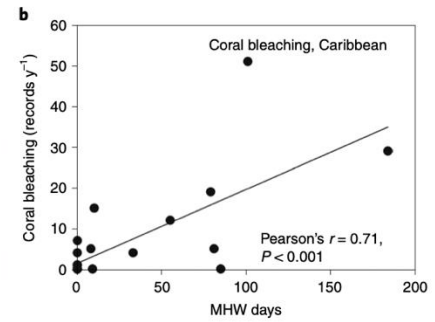
Exposure to the air during extreme low tides can cause bleaching in shallow corals.



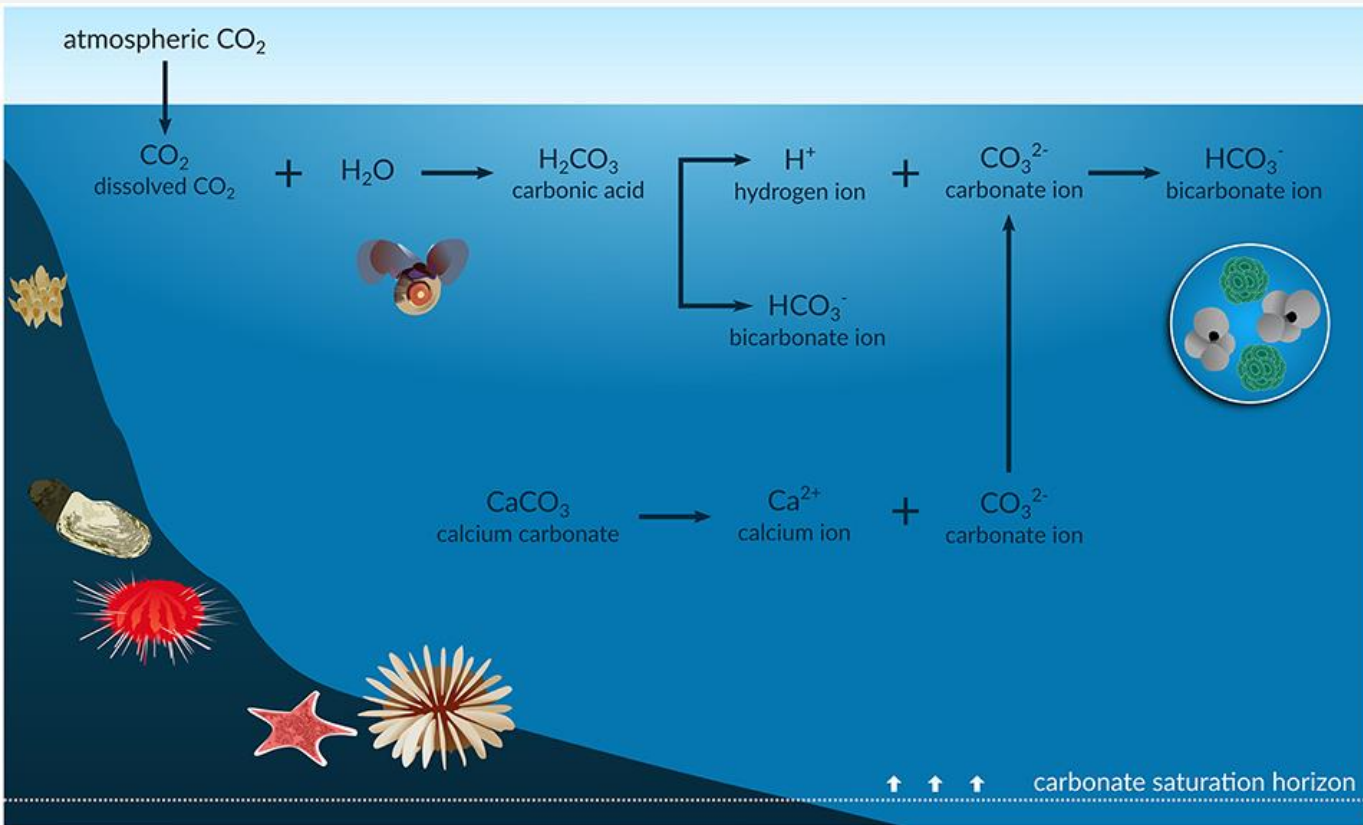
NOAA's Coral Reef Conservation Program
<http://coralreef.noaa.gov/>

See lecture on coral reefs

MARINE HEATWAVES AND MARINE LIFE

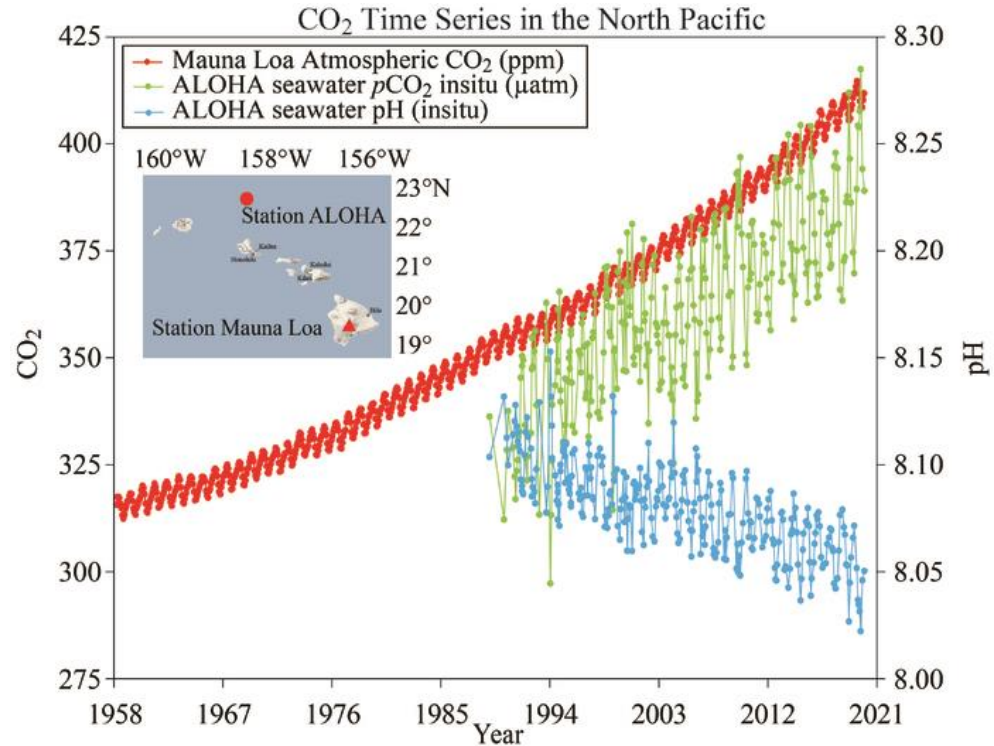


OCEAN ACIDIFICATION



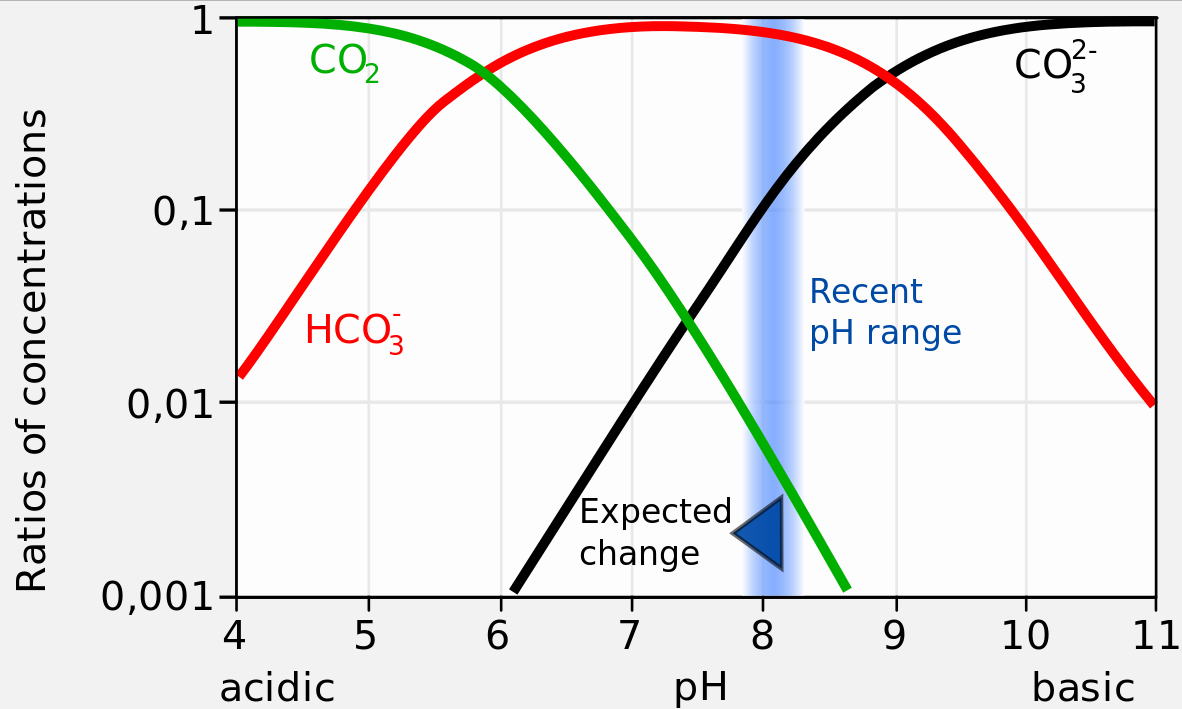
- Fewer carbonate ions
 - Less available for calcification
- Corrosive levels
 - Skeletal parts start to dissolve

OCEAN ACIDIFICATION



Data: Mauna Loa (ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/products/trends/co2/co2_mm_mlo.txt) ALOHA (<http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/hot/hot-dogs/b extraction.html>) ALOHA pH & $p\text{CO}_2$ are calculated at in-situ temperature from DIC & TA (measured from samples collected on Hawaii Ocean Times-series (HOT) cruises) using co2sys (Pelletier, v25b06) with constants: Lueker et al. 2000, KSO4; Dickson, Total boron: Lee et al. 2010, & KF: seacarb

THE CARBONATE SYSTEM



OA= \downarrow pH and $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{sw}}$ + \uparrow pCO₂ and $[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{sw}}$

SATURATION STATE OF CALCIUM CARBONATE (Ω)

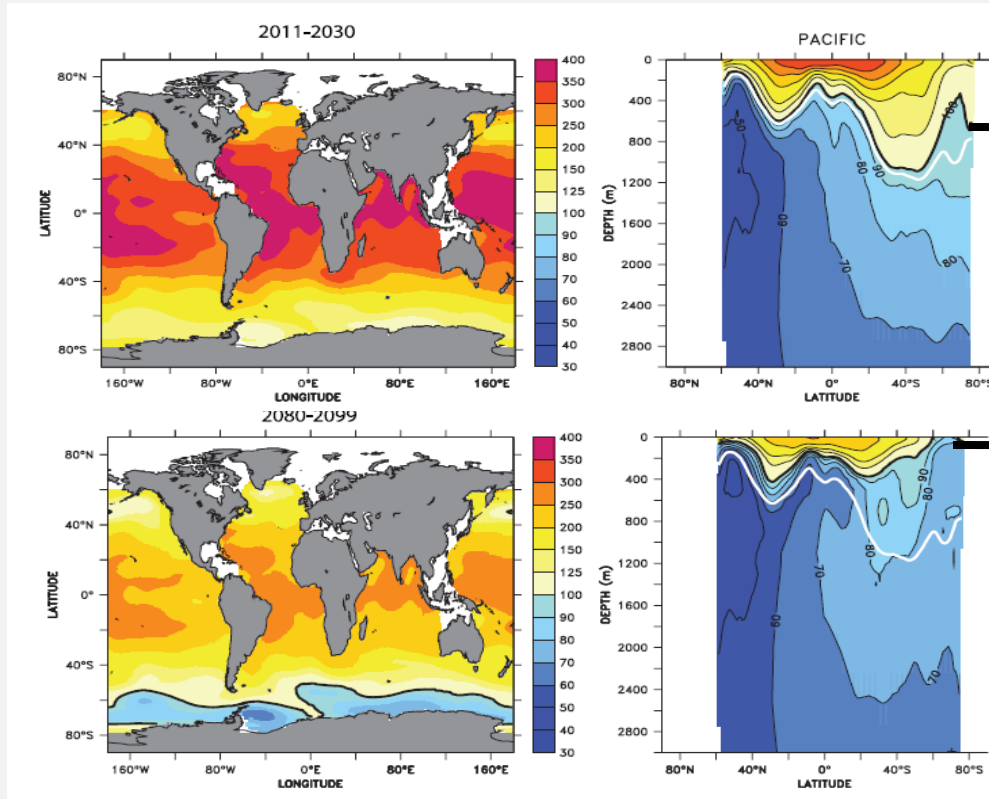
$$\Omega = \frac{[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{SW}} [\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{SW}}}{K_{\text{sp}}^*}$$

- 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: $\Omega_{\text{ar}} < \Omega_{\text{cal}}$

For inorganic CaCO_3 , in sea water, if

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

Shoaling of the saturation horizon of calcium carbonate



$\Omega=1$

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

$\Omega=1$




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

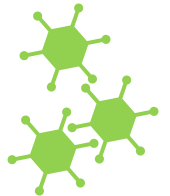
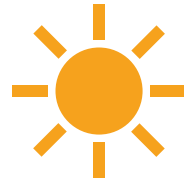
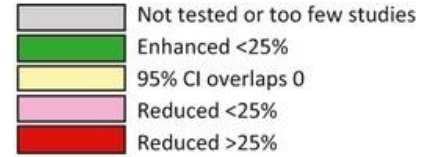
Scale: % saturation aragonite

EFFECTS OF ACIDIFICATION

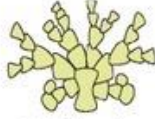
- Hypercapnia ($\uparrow\text{CO}_2$)
- Acidosis ($\downarrow\text{pH}$)
- Limit formation of calcium carbonate
- Erode calcium carbonate

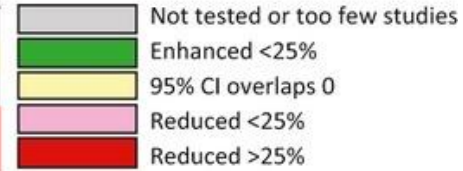
PLANTS

Taxa	Response	Mean Effect
 Fleshy algae	Survival	
	Calcification	
	Growth	+22%
	Photosynthesis	
	Abundance	
 Seagrasses	Survival	
	Calcification	
	Growth	
	Photosynthesis	
	Abundance	
 Diatoms	Survival	
	Calcification	
	Growth	+17%
	Photosynthesis	+12%
	Abundance	



PLANTS

Taxa	Response	Mean Effect
 Calcifying algae	Survival	
	Calcification	
	Growth	
	Photosynthesis	-28%
	Abundance	-80%



Kroeker et al. 2013

Many species of pink coralline algae, which cements coral reefs together, cover a reef surface in the Southern Line Islands. (*Maggie D. Johnson, Scripps Institution of Oceanography*)

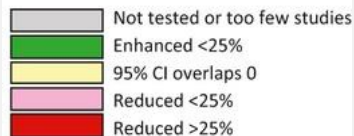
IMPACT OF OA ON MARINE ORGANISMS






Acidosis (\downarrow pH)

Hypercapnia (\uparrow CO₂)



Metabolic rates
Physiology
Behavior
Reproduction
Growth
Calcification



Taxa	Response	Mean Effect
 Corals	Survival	95% CI overlaps 0
	Calcification	Reduced >25%
	Growth	95% CI overlaps 0
	Photosynthesis	95% CI overlaps 0
	Abundance	Reduced >25%
 Mollusks	Survival	Reduced >25%
	Calcification	Reduced >25%
	Growth	Reduced <25%
	Development	Reduced <25%
	Abundance	95% CI overlaps 0
 Echinoderms	Survival	95% CI overlaps 0
	Calcification	95% CI overlaps 0
	Growth	Reduced <25%
	Development	Reduced <25%
	Abundance	Not tested or too few studies
 Crustaceans	Survival	95% CI overlaps 0
	Calcification	95% CI overlaps 0
	Growth	95% CI overlaps 0
	Development	95% CI overlaps 0
	Abundance	95% CI overlaps 0
 Fish	Survival	Not tested or too few studies
	Calcification	Not tested or too few studies
	Growth	95% CI overlaps 0
	Development	95% CI overlaps 0
	Abundance	Not tested or too few studies

CALCIFIERS



- 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
 - → 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)
 - → deleterious effects
 - lower enzyme activities,
 - Chemical communication
 - Reproduction
 - Growth

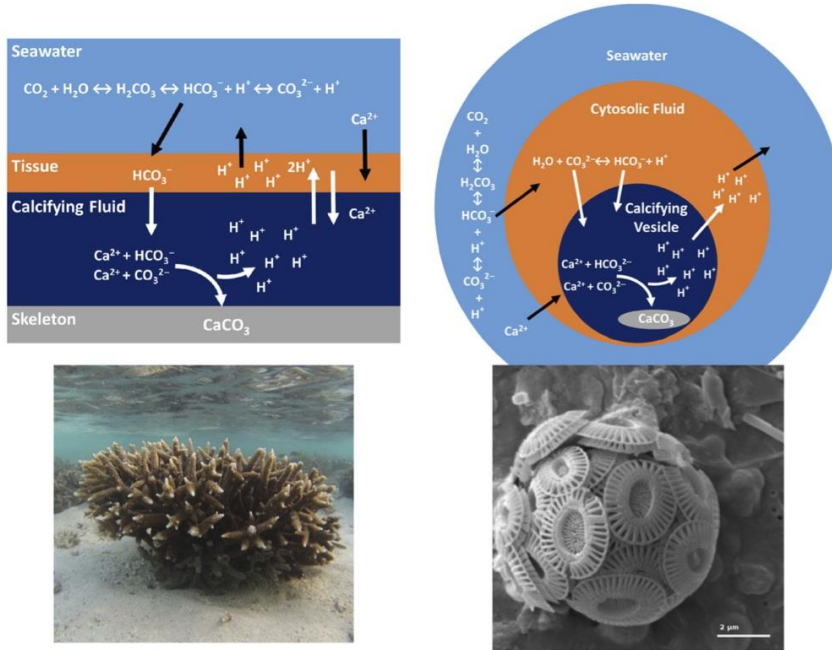


Figure 1. A simplified schematic demonstrating the internal build-up of protons during the calcification process in corals and coccolithophores. Corals (left panel) must dissipate excess protons produced by calcification through a boundary layer and into the water column as proposed by Jokiel (2011b). 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 (Allemand *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. Suffrian *et al.* (2011) demonstrated that internal cellular pH (pH_i) in coccolithophores 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.

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

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

EFFECT ON RESPIRATION

Effect on respiration differs according to species



Ophiura ophiura, temperate, Wood et al 2010
significant effect of pH (at low temperature treatment)

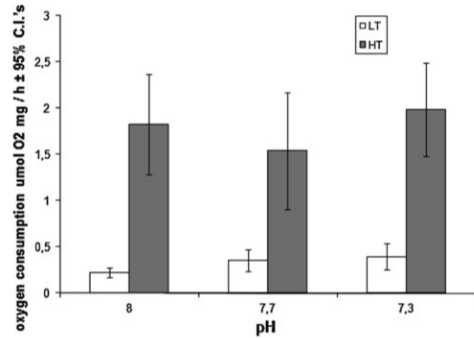


Fig. 1 Mean oxygen uptake rate ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ mg/h}$) standardised by mass, as a proxy of metabolic rate. LT is low temperature (10.5°C), and HT is the high temperature (15°C) exposure. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals

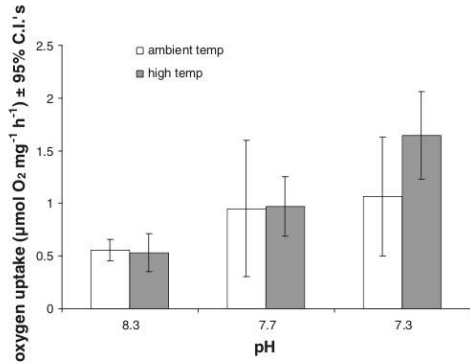
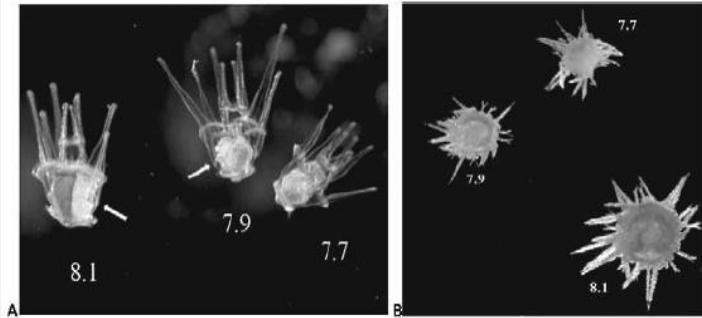


Fig. 1 Mean rates of oxygen uptake of *Ophiocten sericeum* at the three pH and two temperature treatments $\pm 95\%$ confidence intervals. Amputation data pooled as ANOVA showed no significant difference between treatments $N = 30$

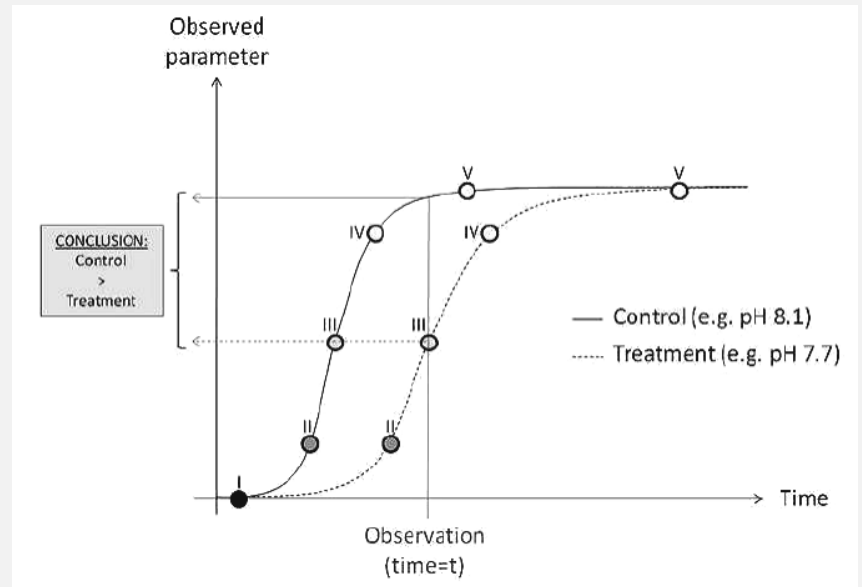
Ophiocten sericeum, arctic, Wood et al 2011
No Significant effect

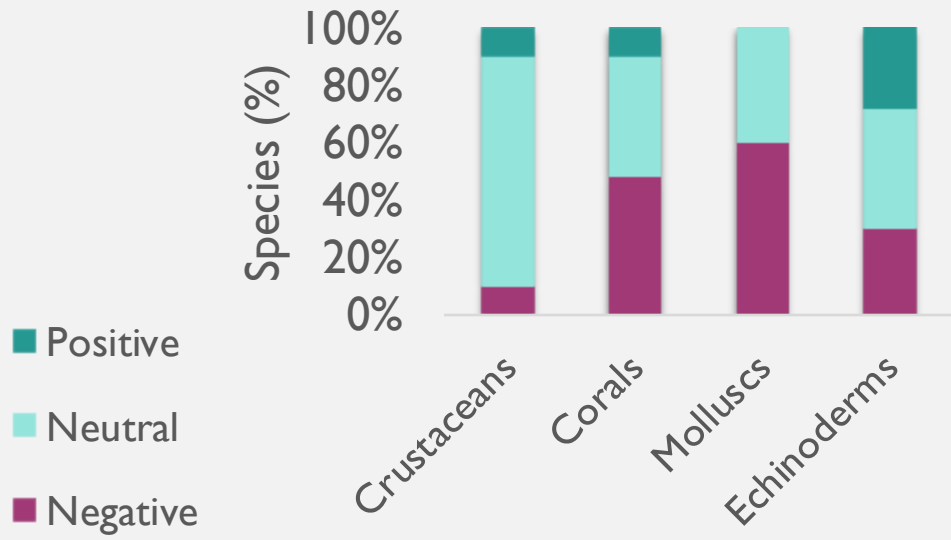


A) Late pluteus larvae - 21 days
 B) Juveniles - 50 days

Relation between time and stage of development

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





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

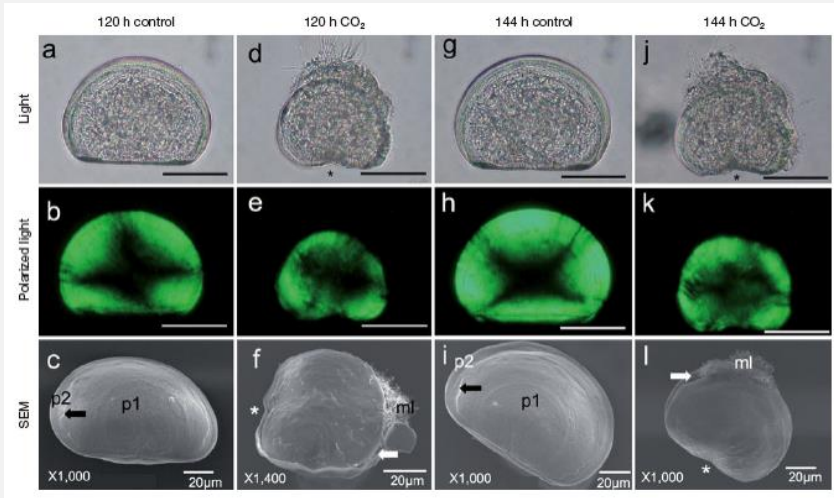
GROWTH AND CALCIFICATION

The main calcifiers in marine environments:

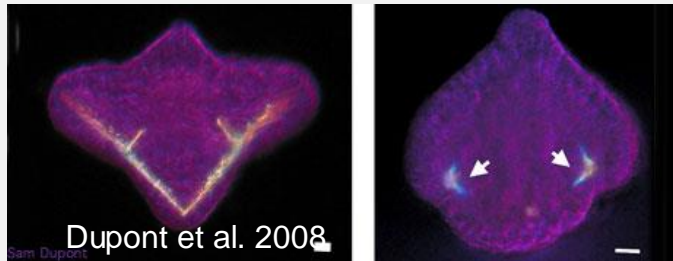
- Coccolithophoridae* (calcite)
- Foraminifera* (Mg-calcite: $Mg_xCa_{1-x}CO_3$; aragonite)
- Corals (aragonite)
- Calcareous algae (aragonite; calcite)
- Pteropods* (aragonite)
- Other molluscs (calcite; aragonite), echinoderms (Mg-calcite), sponges (aragonite; calcite; Mg-calcite), arthropods (calcite;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

* Produce most of biogenic carbonate precipitated in the open oceans

Larval stages are very sensitive to OA:

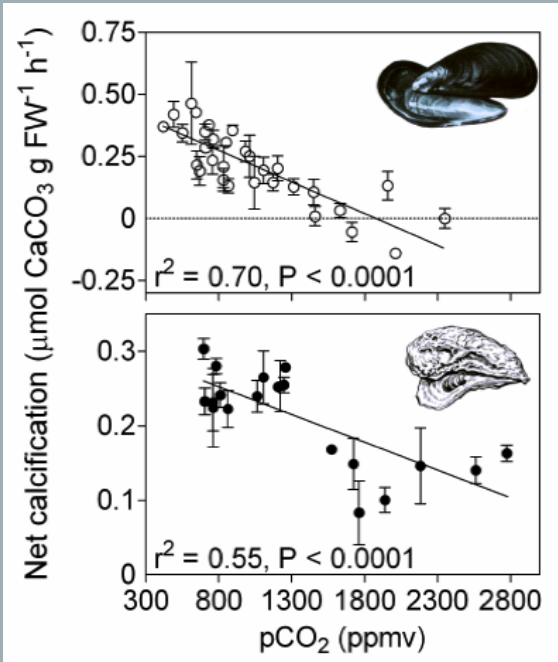


Early development of *Mytilus galloprovincialis*. Morphology of larvae incubated for 120h and 144h control (380ppm; pH=8.13) or in CO₂ seawater (2000ppm; pH=7.42).

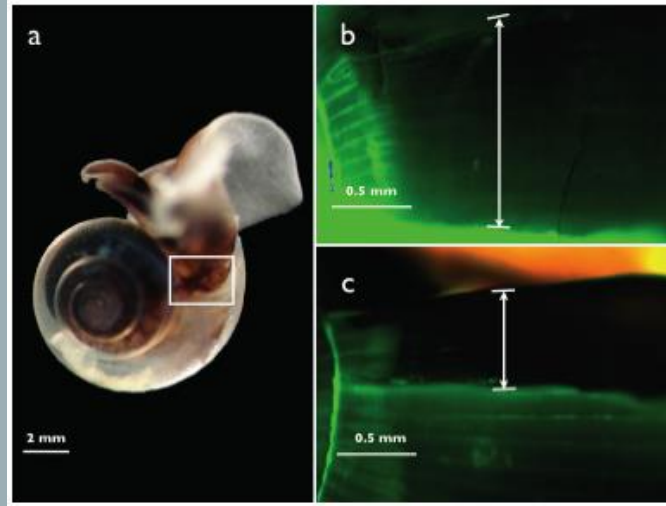


Early larvae of the brittlestar *Ophiothrix fragilis* reared in control seawater (pH 8.1, left), and water acidified with CO₂ (pH 7.7 right), with a reduced skeleton as an effect.





Gazeau et al. 2007

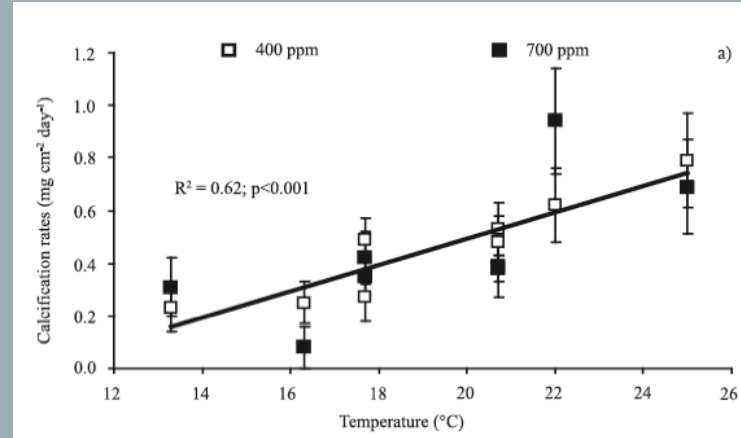


Comeau et al. 2009

Some species show a decrease of their calcification rates when exposed to lower pH seawaters (i.e. higher pCO_2 and lower ΩCaCO_3).

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

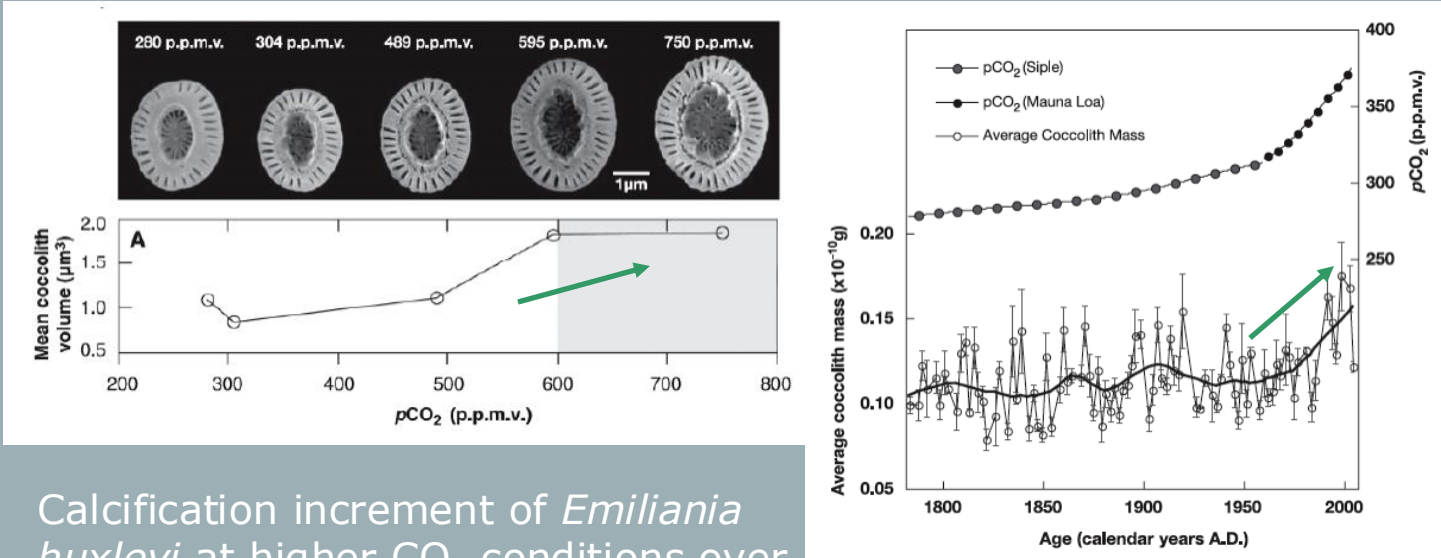
Temperate corals



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

Coccolithophores

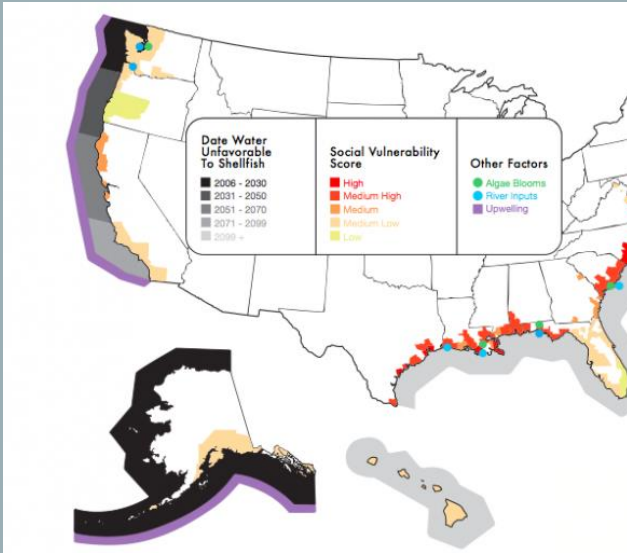


Calcification increment of *Emiliana huxleyi* at higher CO₂ conditions over longer duration

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

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.

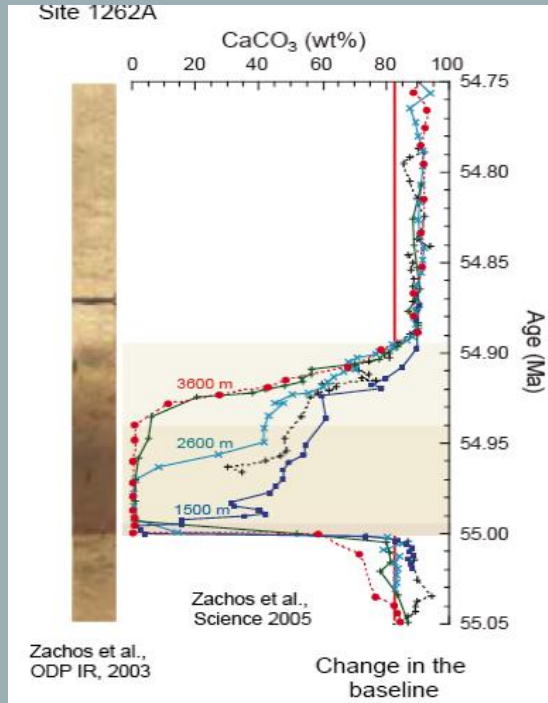
Furthermore, some species of seafood (shellfish) might be at direct risk.



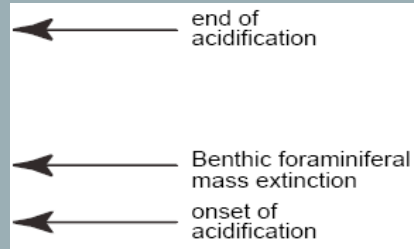
END PART I

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 CaCO₃ in the sediment is used as a proxy of foraminifera density

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”

Impact of global change in the ocean

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

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**

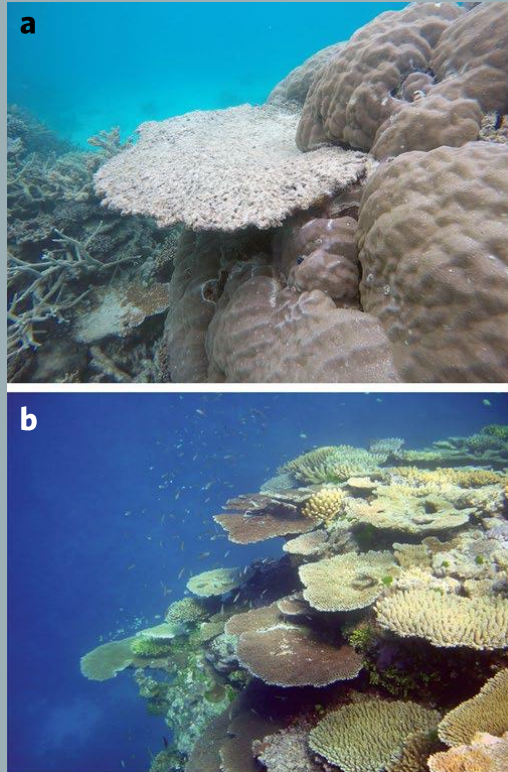
Impact of global change in the ocean: Acclimation and adaptation

- 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

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/>

Impact of global change in the ocean: Acclimation and adaptation



Legacy effects of multiple disturbance.

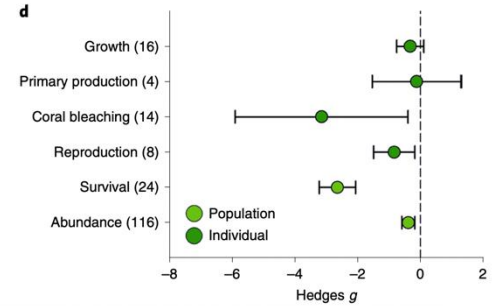
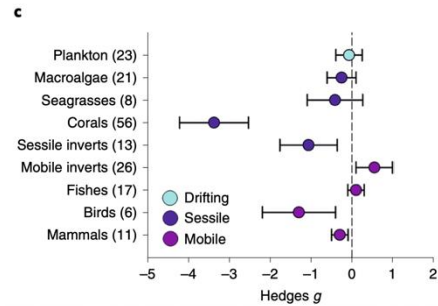
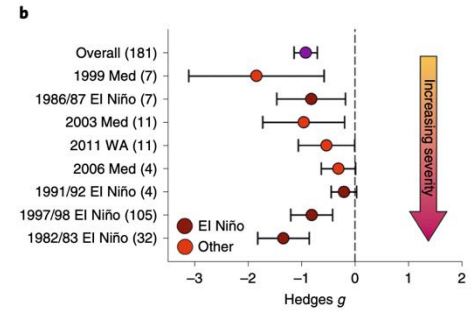
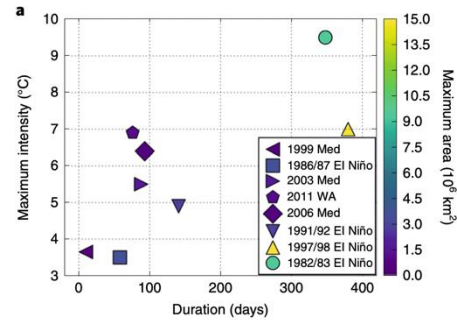
a, Disproportionate loss of abundant, susceptible tabular and branching *Acropora* corals on northern reefs in 2016, compared with more resistant mound-shaped *Porites*, increased community resistance to recurrent bleaching in 2017.

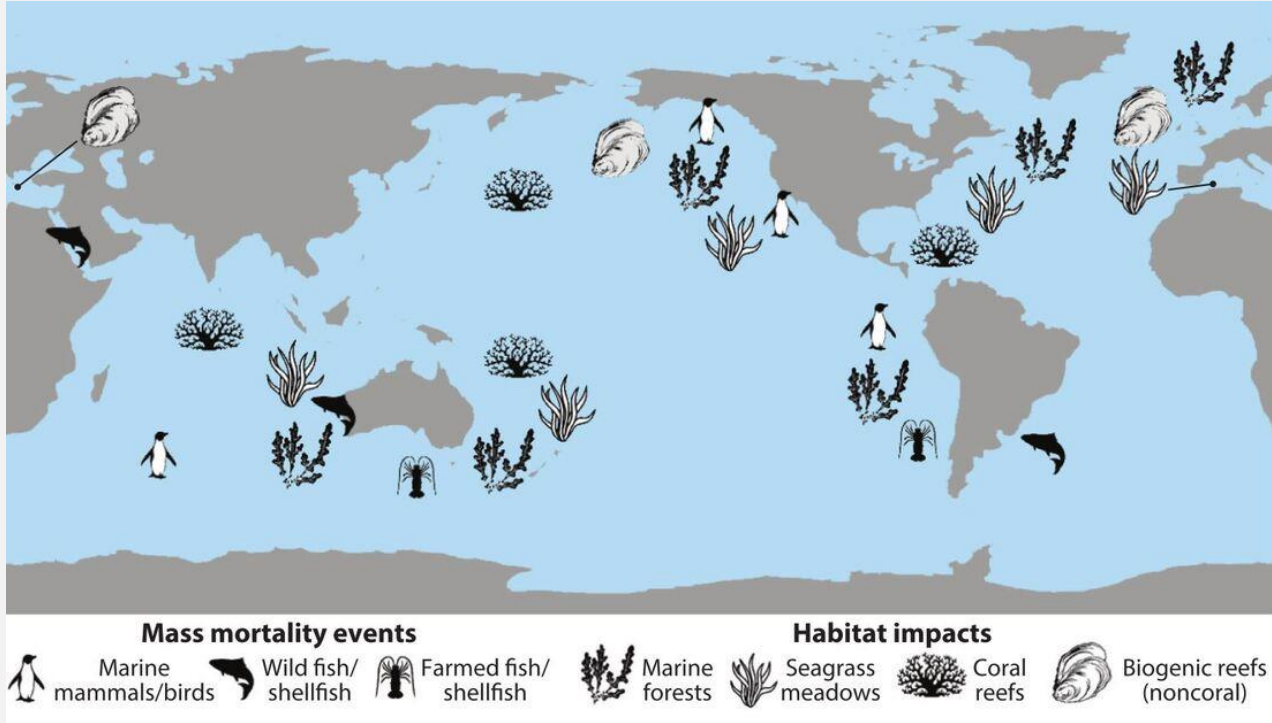
b, Corals in the southern Great Barrier Reef remained unbleached and dominated by *Acropora* in 2017, despite higher levels of heat exposure than in 2016.

(Hughes et al 2019)

EXTRA NOTES

ECOLOGICAL IMPACT



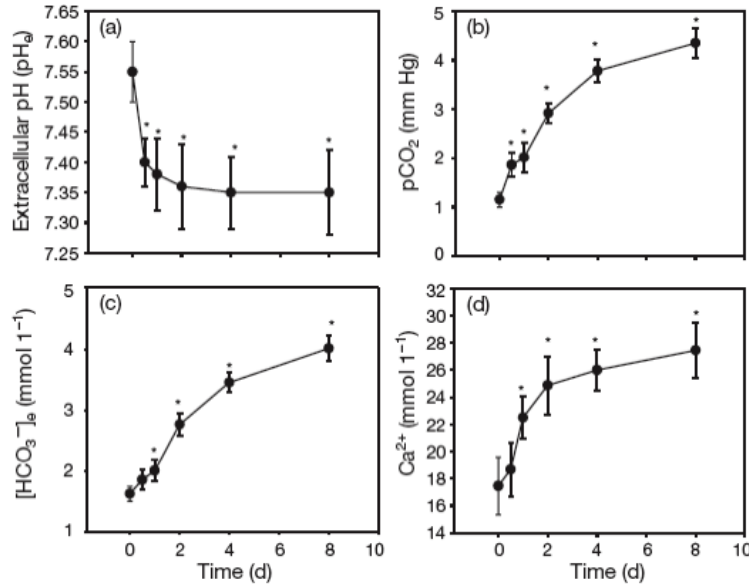


<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-032122-121437>

HOW DO ORGANISMS COPE WITH OA?

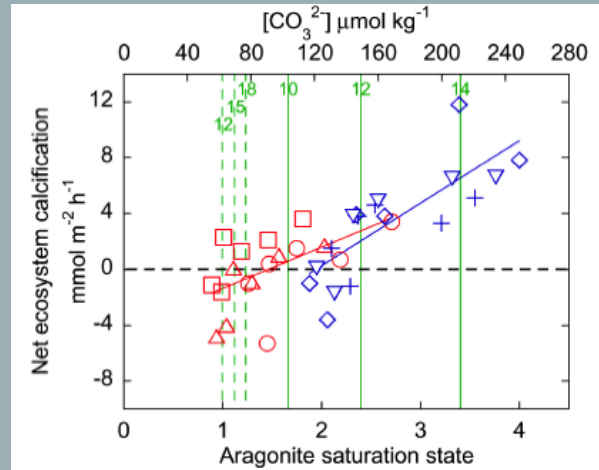
Mytilus edulis

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..

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 lose mass.