### Estimating the effect of burrowing shrimp on deepsea sediment community oxygen consumption (#16569)

First submission

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# Estimating the effect of burrowing shrimp on deep-sea sediment community oxygen consumption

Daniel Leduc  $^{\text{Corresp., 1}}$  , Conrad A Pilditch  $^2$ 

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Sediment community oxygen consumption (SCOC) is a proxy for organic matter processing and thus provides a useful proxy of benthic ecosystem function. Oxygen uptake in deepsea sediments is mainly driven by bacteria, and the direct contribution of benthic macroand mega-infauna respiration is thought to be relatively modest. However, the main contribution of infaunal organisms to benthic respiration, particularly large burrowing organisms, is likely to be indirect and mainly driven by processes such as feeding and bioturbation that stimulate bacterial metabolism and promote the chemical oxidation of reduced solutes. Here, we estimate the direct and indirect contributions of burrowing shrimp (Eucalastacus cf. torbeni ) to sediment community oxygen consumption based on incubations of sediment cores from 490 m depth on the continental slope of New Zealand. Results indicate that the presence of one shrimp in the sediment is responsible for an oxygen uptake rate of about 40 m mol d-1, only 1% of which is estimated to be due to shrimp respiration. We estimate that the presence of ten burrowing shrimp m<sup>-2</sup> of seabed would lead to an oxygen uptake comparable to current estimates of macro-infaunal community respiration on Chatham Rise based on allometric equations, and would increase total sediment community oxygen uptake by 14% compared to sediment without shrimp. Our findings suggest that oxygen consumption mediated by burrowing shrimp may be substantial in continental slope ecosystems.

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1 2 3 Estimating the effect of burrowing shrimp on deep-sea sediment 4 community oxygen consumption 5 6 7 8 Daniel Leduca, Conrad A. Pilditchb 9 10 <sup>a</sup>National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research, Private Bag 14-901, Wellington, New Zealand 11 12 13 bSchool of Science, University of Waikato, Private Bag 3105, Hamilton 3240, New 14 Zealand 15 16 17 **Abstract** Sediment community oxygen consumption (SCOC) is a proxy for organic matter 18 19 processing and thus provides a useful proxy of benthic ecosystem function. Oxygen 20 uptake in deep-sea sediments is mainly driven by bacteria, and the direct contribution of 21 benthic macro- and mega-infauna respiration is thought to be relatively modest. 22 However, the main contribution of infaunal organisms to benthic respiration, particularly 23 large burrowing organisms, is likely to be indirect and mainly driven by processes such 24 as feeding and bioturbation that stimulate bacterial metabolism and promote the 25 chemical oxidation of reduced solutes. Here, we estimate the direct and indirect 26 contributions of burrowing shrimp (Eucalastacus cf. torbeni) to sediment community 27 oxygen consumption based on incubations of sediment cores from 490 m depth on the 28 continental slope of New Zealand. Results indicate that the presence of one shrimp in 29 the sediment is responsible for an oxygen uptake rate of about 40 μmol d<sup>-1</sup>, only 1% of 30 which is estimated to be due to shrimp respiration. We estimate that the presence of ten 31 burrowing shrimp m<sup>-2</sup> of seabed would lead to an oxygen uptake comparable to current 32 estimates of macro-infaunal community respiration on Chatham Rise based on



33	allometric equations, and would increase total sediment community oxygen uptake by
34	14% compared to sediment without shrimp. Our findings suggest that oxygen
35	consumption mediated by burrowing shrimp may be substantial in continental slope
36	ecosystems.
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38 39	Keywords: Sediment community oxygen consumption; Eucalastacus cf. torbeni, burrow,
40	metabolism, Chatham Rise, New Zealand
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42 43 44	Introduction
45	mil oddetion
46	Deep-sea soft sediment communities play an important role in global carbon cycling
47	(Jahnke and Jackson 1992, Archer and Maier-Reimer 1994). The input of particulate
48	organic carbon (POC) from surface waters is the main driver of benthic metabolism in
49	deep-sea sediments (Smith 1987; Pfannkuche 1993), which in turn is influenced by
50	surface (e.g., seasonal and inter-annual variability in climate; Lampitt et al. 2001, Smith
51	et al. 2006), and water column processes (e.g., hydrodynamics, POC recycling and
52	remineralisation by bacteria; Lampitt and Antia 1997, Turner 2002). Processing of
53	organic material and overall metabolism in deep-sea sediments are dominated by
54	bacteria and small fauna (e.g., Schwinghamer et al. 1986, Pfannkuche 1993, Beaulieu
55	2002, Hubas et al. 2006) and the contribution of larger fauna is often assumed to be
56	relatively small (Rowe et al. 2008).
57	Benthic macro- and megafauna contribute to sediment community oxygen
58	consumption (SCOC) both directly through respiration and indirectly through processes
59	such as feeding, defecation, enzyme release, and bioturbation that stimulate bacterial
60	metabolism and promote the chemical oxidation of reduced solutes (Riemann & Helmke
61	2002, Lohrer et al. 2004, Papaspyrou et al. 2010, Bonaglia et al. 2014). Studies in
62	coastal habitats have shown that the main contribution of infauna to SCOC is mediated
63	by these indirect effects and that infaunal respiration itself makes a relatively small
64	contribution (Glud et al. 2000, Glud et al. 2003). Thus, the overall contribution of the
65	infauna to deep-sea ecosystem function is most likely underestimated by allometric



equations used to derive the direct contribution of fauna to overall oxygen consumption based only on body size (e.g., Rowe et al. 2008, Leduc et al. 2016). Analyses comparing diffusive oxygen uptake, which is calculated from vertical oxygen gradients in the sediments and provides a measure of oxygen consumption by microorganisms, and total oxygen uptake based on changes in oxygen concentrations in overlying water during incubations, suggest that fauna-mediated respiration accounts for an average of about 40-60% of total benthic oxygen consumption on the upper continental slope (Glud 2008). However, the contribution to total oxygen uptake of large burrowing macroinfauna living deep in the sediments and in relatively low densities may be underestimated in incubations which are typically based on small areas of sediments  $(0.01-0.1 \text{ m}^2)$ . Burrowing shrimp are common in soft sediment environments of temperate and 

Burrowing shrimp are common in soft sediment environments of temperate and tropical regions, and their burrowing and feeding activities mix surface and subsurface sediment resulting in substantial sediment turnover (Stamhuis et al. 1997, Berkenbusch & Rowden 1999, Papaspyrou et al. 2004). The presence of burrowing shrimp in coastal systems results in a 70-80% increase in sediment oxygen demand compared to sediment without shrimp, most of which was due to chemical oxidation reactions and increased microbial respiration (Ziebis et al. 1995, Webb & Eyre 2004). Burrowing shrimp are likely to impact benthic metabolism in deeper environments such as the upper continental slope where they may also be common (Sakai & Türkay 1999, Sakai 2005), however no studies have been conducted on their ecology or contribution to ecosystem function in the deep sea. Here, we estimate for the first time the direct and indirect contributions of the burrowing shrimp *Eucalastacus* cf. *torbeni* to sediment community oxygen consumption based on incubations of sediment cores from the upper continental slope of New Zealand.

### Methods

The Chatham Rise is a submarine ridge that extends eastwards from the South Island of New Zealand at depths ~250-3000 m. It lies under the Subtropical Front (STF), a region where warm subtropical surface water to the north meets cold, high nutrient-low



98 chlorophyll subantarctic surface water to the south (Boyd et al., 1999), which is 99 associated with heightened primary productivity (Bradford-Grieve et al., 1997; Murphy et 100 al., 2001). Five undisturbed sediment core samples were obtained at a site at 489 m 101 water depth on the southern flank of the rise (43.8533 °S, 178.5783 °E) (Figure 1). The samples were collected during a single deployment of an Ocean Instruments MC-800A 102 103 multicorer (MUC; core internal diameter = 9.52 cm) in August 2015 (NIWA voyage 104 TAN1511, station 181). The samples were collected under Special Permit (542) issued by the Ministry for Primary Industries pursuant to section 97(1) of the Fisheries Act 105 1996. 106 107 Estimates of sediment community oxygen consumption (SCOC; in μmol O<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> 108 1) were obtained using shipboard incubations. Details of the incubation set-ups and 109 measurement protocols are provided in Nodder et al. (2007) and Pilditch et al. (2015). 110 Briefly, the upper 13–15 cm of sediment and the overlying water from undisturbed multicore tubes were carefully extruded into transparent plastic incubation chambers 111 112 (total volume = 2.0 L) with the same internal diameter. Chambers were then sealed and placed in water baths at ambient bottom water temperature (7.3  $\pm$  0.1 °C) where they 113 114 were held in the dark for 28–39 h. A magnetically driven impeller fitted to the chamber 115 lids gently circulated water during the incubations. Approximately 6 h after the chambers were placed in the water bath, O<sub>2</sub> concentrations were measured with a pre-calibrated 116 117 PreSens MICROX I micro-optode. Four to six more O<sub>2</sub> measurements were made 118 during the incubation period, which was terminated when the initial concentrations had decreased by ~15%. SCOC was estimated from the decline in O<sub>2</sub> concentration with 119 time (linear regression,  $r^2 > 0.95$ ). 120 121 Sediment pigment concentrations (i.e. chlorophyll-a and phaeopigment content) were determined to provide a measure of food availability in the incubation chambers. 122 123 Immediately after the incubations, the overlying water in the incubation chambers was 124 carefully siphoned out and a sediment sample was obtained using a subcore (internal 125 diameter = 18 mm) to a depth of 5 cm. Sediment samples were kept frozen at -80 °C 126 and pigment concentrations were determined in duplicate using standard techniques (Nodder et al. 2003, 2011). 127



128 Following subcoring for pigment analyses, the remaining sediments was 129 processed for macro-infaunal analyses to help determine any potential differences 130 between cores with and without shrimp. The sediments were sieved onto a 300 μm 131 sieve at sea and fixed in 5% formaldehyde. Samples were sorted using a dissecting microscope and the abundance of major taxa (e.g., polychaetes, amphipods, 132 133 ophiuroids) was quantified. 134 Shrimp respiration was estimated based on the allometric equation of Mahaut et 135 al. (1995) relating respiration rate (R, d<sup>-1</sup>) to individual dry weight (W, mg C): 136 137  $R = aW^b$ 138 139 where  $a = 7.4 \times 10^{-3}$  and b = -0.24. Shrimp carbon weight was determined by assuming 140 a wet:dry weight ratio of 4 and a dry:carbon weight ratio of 2.5 (Salonen et al. 1976). The constants a and b were derived by Mahaut et al. (1995), who conducted a linear 141 142 regression of all published respiration rates of deep-sea organisms. Shrimp respiration (T), expressed as the mass (mg) of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) released d<sup>-1</sup>, was estimated by 143 144 multiplying shrimp dry weight (W, mg C) by the mass-dependent respiration rate (R, d<sup>-1</sup>): 145 146  $T = W \times R$ 147 148 Shrimp respiration was converted to oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) consumption assuming that one mole of O<sub>2</sub> is consumed for each mole of CO<sub>2</sub> released (Hargrave 1973). 149 150 151 152 **Results and Discussion** 153 154 A total of five undisturbed cores were recovered, which consisted of sandy silt with 155 small amounts of dark glauconite particles typical of the central Chatham Rise (Cullen 156 1967, Orpin et al. 2008). A small burrow with an opening approximately one centimeter in diameter was present in the center of one of the cores, which was otherwise similar in 157 158 appearance to the other cores. At the end of the incubation, which lasted 28 hours for

the core containing the burrow opening, the presence of a live shrimp was noted for the



first time. The shrimp was later identified as *Eucalastacus* cf. *torbeni*, with a length of 12 mm and wet weight of 3 mg. A gently sloping burrow of about eight millimetres in diameter, reaching to a depth of 6 cm below the sediment surface and with two branches leading to burrow entrances on the edge of the chamber, were visible through the transparent chamber wall. The original burrow opening in the center of the core was still present and was connected to the two new openings by the recently built burrow. The shrimp was intact and moved freely in the burrow; brown particles could be seen in its intestine, suggesting that it had recently been feeding.

Oxygen consumption in the chamber containing the shrimp was about three times greater than the mean oxygen consumption of the chambers without shrimp (332 vs 110-134  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 2). Moreover, the respiration rate in the incubation chamber with shrimp was at least two times greater than respiration rates measured at eight other sites across the Chatham Rise during the same voyage (410-995 m water depth, data not shown).

Phaeopigment concentration in the shrimp incubation chamber was similar to concentrations in the chambers without shrimp (3.3 vs 2.1-4.4  $\mu$ g/g<sub>sediment</sub>), whereas chlorophyll-a concentration was two to three times lower in the incubation chamber with shrimp than in chambers without shrimp (0.18 vs 0.47-0.62  $\mu$ g/g<sub>sediment</sub>). These findings suggest that variation in food availability among the incubation chambers is unlikely to account for the elevated oxygen uptake associated with the presence of burrowing shrimp; on the contrary, it appears that the feeding and burrowing activities of the shrimp may have led to a decrease in chlorophyll-a concentrations in the top five centimeters of sediment relative to incubation chambers without shrimp. Similar decrease in sediment chlorophyll-a concentrations associated with the presence of burrowing shrimp have been observed in intertidal field experiments, presumably as a result of ingestion or burial (Webb & Eyre 2004),.

The abundance of macro-infauna in the shrimp incubation chamber was slightly higher than in the chambers without shrimp, but the difference was small (152 vs 54-151 individuals). Polychaetes were dominant in all chambers and accounted for 46-63% of total macro-infaunal abundance. The next most abundant taxa were amphipods (7-17% of total abundance) and nematodes (9-14%). Although biomass could not be



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determined in the present study, no obvious difference in size of macro-infaunal organisms were apparent among the cores Thus the elevated oxygen consumption associated with the presence of shrimp is unlikely to be due to differences in the associated macro-infaunal community.

Based on the allometric equation of Mahaut et al. (1995), respiration by Eucalastacus cf. torbeni (0.39 μmol d<sup>-1</sup>) accounted for about 0.6% of total respiration in the incubation chamber, and about 1% of the average difference in oxygen uptake between incubation chambers with and without shrimp. Because the equation of Mahaut et al. (1995) is based on measurements conducted at 2-4 °C, and the incubation was conducted at a higher temperature (7.3 °C), shrimp respiration may have been underestimated. However increasing our estimate of shrimp respiration by one order of magnitude would not change the overall picture, and shrimp respiration would still remain modest. This result is consistent with previous results suggesting that the majority of the increase in oxygen consumption associated with the presence of burrowing shrimp is due to increased oxidation reactions and/or microbial respiration resulting from the shrimp's burrowing and feeding activities (Koike & Mukai 1983, Webb & Eyre 2004). Our estimates suggest that the presence of one Eucalastacus cf. torbeni individual in the sediment is responsible for an oxygen uptake rate of about 1.7 μmol h-1 or 40 μmol d<sup>-1</sup>. This value is about 20 times less than the oxygen uptake resulting from the presence of a single burrowing Callianassa japonica or Trypea australiensis individual in subtidal environments (Koike & Mukai 1983, Webb & Eyre 2004), which could reflect the larger body size and burrows of the latter species relative to E. cf. torbeni and/or the comparatively low metabolic rates of organisms living in cold deepsea environments. The relatively deep oxygenated layer of deep-sea sediments combined with low organic matter concentrations may also limit the extent to which bioturbation can stimulate oxygen uptake compared to shallow environments.

Data on sediment community oxygen consumption, which are typically based on *in situ* or onboard incubations of small sediment cores that do not include large burrowing fauna, are likely to be underestimating true benthic metabolism rates in deep-sea habitats (Glud 2008). No estimates are available on the population densities of burrowing shrimp in deep-sea environments, however in shallow environments

burrowing shrimp densities range from a few individuals to several hundred individuals per square meter (Berkenbusch & Rowden 1998, Dumbauld et al. 1996). Images of soft sediment habitats on Chatham Rise often show high densities of burrows and mounds, which are consistent with a high abundance of burrowing shrimp and other bioturbating macro-infauna (Figure 3). However despite the apparently wide distribution of *Eucalastacus* cf. *torbeni* on New Zealand's continental margin (S. Mills, pers. com.), no data are available on their densities due to the paucity of sufficiently large and/or quantitative sediment samples. Based on our findings, the presence of ten burrowing shrimp per square meter of seabed, a moderate shrimp density broadly consistent with burrow densities in seabed images in the region, would increase oxygen uptake by 17  $\mu$ mol m-2 h-1, equivalent to 14% of current estimates obtained from sediment core incubations from the study site. This density of burrowing shrimp would translate to an oxygen uptake comparable to current estimates of total macro-infaunal community respiration on Chatham Rise based on allometric equations (2 to 23  $\mu$ mol m-2 h-1; Leduc et al. 2016).

Besides shrimp, other burrowing macro- and megafauna, such as echiurans, holothurians and ophiuroids, are likely to make a substantial indirect contribution to sediment community respiration. Because these relatively large organisms are vulnerable to physical disturbance from human activities such as bottom trawling (Clark et al. 2016), a decrease in their density and/or diversity would likely result in a loss in ecosystem function. Evaluating the magnitude of this loss, which is likely to be greatest in relatively high productivity upper continental slope habitats where large benthic fauna are most abundant (Leduc et al. 2016), may be aided by the application of functional trait assessment approach (Bremner et al. 2003) and the use of in situ O<sub>2</sub> consumption measurement method capable of integrating larger and therefore more representative areas of the seabed, such as *in situ* benthic chamber incubations (Lichtschlag et al. 2015) or the eddy correlation flux method (Berg et al. 2009).

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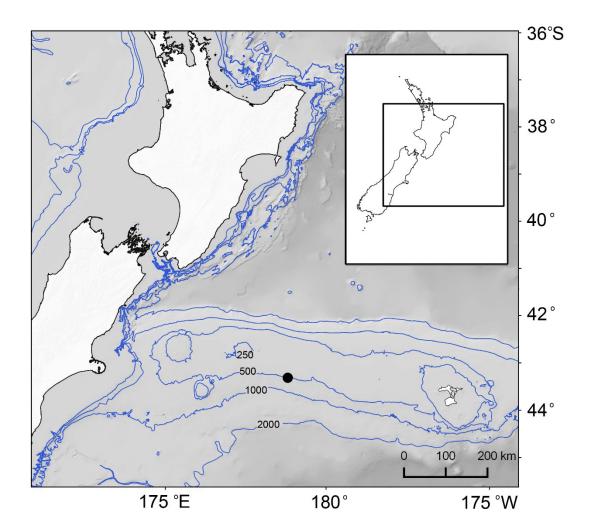
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403	
404	Figure captions
405	
406	Figure 1. Map of study area east of New Zealand's South Island and the position of
407	sampling site (black filled circle) on Chatham Rise and 250, 500, 1000 and 2000 m
408	water depth contours.
409	
410	Figure 2. Mean oxygen consumption in four cores without shrimp and one with a single
411	live Eucalastacus cf. torbeni shrimp specimen. Error bars represent the 95% confidence
412	interval.
413	
414	Figure 3. Picture of the seabed taken using NIWA's Deep Towed Imaging System
415	(DTIS) on 13 June 2013 (RV Tangaroa voyage TAN1306, station 69) taken
416	approximately 300 m away from study site. Small burrows and mounds can be seen to
417	occur at high densities. The surface area of the image is approximately 1.25 m <sup>2</sup> and the
418	scale bar = 20 cm.
419	
420	

### 421 Figure 1



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436 Figure 2 

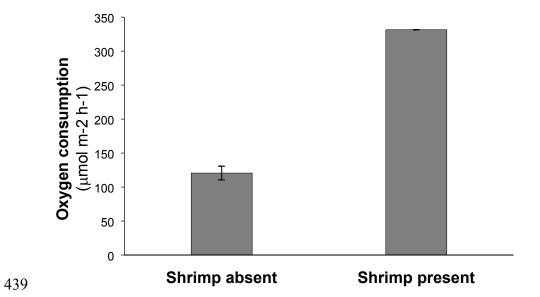






Figure 3

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