# How the noise could affect aquatic ecosystems? A lack of zooplankton's studies.

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# Abstract

There is a growing interest in the effects of noise pollution on aquatic ecosystems. To date, these works mainly focus on hearing species, especially fish and mammals. Therefore, species from lower trophic level, despite their ecological importance are less studied. Within these invertebrates, studies on noise effects on holozooplankton are very rare. Previous works demonstrate that they could detect vibrations using mechanoreceptors. Consequently, noise is susceptible to affect the perception of their environment and to induce stress. Combining their short life cycle, their phylogenetic and ecological diversity, zooplankton could be useful organisms to understand a diversity of noise effects. I review this literature about noise effects on both marine and freshwater zooplankton. Because zooplankton is well studied as bioindicators, to understand fluxes, ecological dynamics and global change effects, many methodologies was developed. Thus, after this review, and based on these methods - from ecology, ecotoxicology and parasitology studies -, I show how they can be more used to study the noise effects at individual scales, as modifications of physiology, development, survival, and behavior. Responses, that could change species interactions and population dynamics, are expected to lead to larger scale implications (i.e., alterations of food webs dynamics and ecosystem functioning). We might expect further development of acoustic studies on zooplankton, in order to better apprehend how anthropogenic noise affects aquatic environments.

Keyword: Zooplankton, Anthropogenic noise, Aquatic ecosystems, Physiology, Fitness, Behavior, Community

## **1. Introduction**

Anthropogenic underwater noise is an established pollutant for marine ecosystems (Hildebrand, 2009). Human activities, such as seismic survey, shipping, or wind farms, influence soundscapes by increasing the ambient noise levels over minutes to years and over meters to thousands of kilometers (Duarte et al., 2021). Noises are extremely diverse in their intensity, in their structural spectrum and in their temporal pattern – i.e., punctual noise, repeated noise (regular or random), continuous noise (with or without variability), leading them more or less predictable (Francis & Barber, 2013) –, due to various sources as airgun and shipping. Sound perception is a crucial ability for communication, foraging or avoiding threatening situations. There is now an extensive body of research on the effects of noise on marine fish and mammals (see reviews of Erbe et al., 2016; Weilgart, 2018; Cox et al., 2018; de Jong et al., 2020), as they are known to have hearing organ, thus to be sensitive to sound perception.

However, it exists a very limited number of research on invertebrate responses to noise, according to their biodiversity (Wale et al., 2021; Solé, Kaifu, et al., 2023) and especially holozooplanktonic species (i.e., zooplanktonic along all their life cycle). These non-hearing organisms (i.e., without identified auditory organs) represent a crucial link for the transfer of energy and transfer between primary resource and higher trophic levels (e.g., fish). Cases shown reaction of crustaceans (Edmonds et al., 2016), mollusks (André et al., 2011) and cnidarian species (Solé et al., 2016) to noise and are summarized in the recent review of Solé, Kaifu, et al. (2023). An important functional group seems completely overstudied: in Solé, Kaifu, et al. (2023), only two out of around 90 studies on marine invertebrates concern zooplanktonic arthropods (McCauley et al., 2017; Fields et al., 2019), lacking a non-peer-reviewed article before (Tremblay et al., 2019) and two others were published since (Kühn et al., 2023; Vereide et al., 2023). The other zooplanktonic organisms studied are in majority larvae of bivalves (Aguilar de Soto et al., 2013), cephalopods (Solé et al., 2018), and crustaceans (Stenton et al.,

2022), and rarely other taxa as bryozoans (Stocks et al., 2012). The importance of zooplankton in aquatic ecosystem could be illustrated by their role in the carbon cycle (Steinberg & Landry, 2017). Therefore, all anthropogenic perturbations should greatly affect ecosystem functioning (Marine Zooplankton Colloquium, 2001; Richardson, 2008), and noise would not except. Understanding responses of zooplanktonic species to noise is thus mandatory to prevent human impacts.

In this Perspective paper, I overview how holozooplankton responses to noise could be described. Firstly, I have reviewed the literature linking noise and zooplankton. Due to the very low study number and diversity on marine zooplankton (mainly on acute exposition of copepods), I also reviewed the few studies on freshwater zooplankton exposed to noise. For this review I searched articles referenced by Google Scholar with terms for noise (noise, sound, acoustic, boat noise, airgun, anthropogenic, and pollution), for organisms (zooplankton, invertebrates, arthropods, crustacean, mollusk, cnidarian, medusa, copepods, daphnia) and the middle (aquatic, marine, freshwater). From this pool of articles, I added cited and citing literature. I completed it thanks to discussions during the 2022 meeting "Effects of noise on aquatic life" 2022 in Berlin. I considered only organisms that are zooplanktonic along all their life (i.e., holozooplankton), excluding planktonic larvae (e.g., decapods, bivalves, fishes) and planktonic adult (e.g., cnidarians). Note that only one article published in 2021, on Daphnia exposed to 432 Hz and 440 Hz, have been excluded due to some personal doubt on its quality - thus not cited here but easily findable with these details. I considered peer-reviewed articles as well as book chapters, meeting proceedings and preprints. Following this review, and because zooplankton are widely used as bioindicators (Parmar et al., 2016; Dahms et al., 2016; Ebert, 2022), I propose methodologies inspired from ecology, ecotoxicology and parasitology studies that should be useable to assess effects of anthropogenic noise on individuals or populations first, and on complex communities then.

## 2. Noise effects on zooplankton species: a review

## 2.1. Responses from marine species

Investigation made in the 90s demonstrated that small crustaceans, constitutive of zooplankton were able to react to environmental vibration. Gassie et al. (1993) showed that calanoid copepods use mechanoreceptors of their first antennae to detect environmental vibrations. Followed by Buskey et al. (2002) that demonstrated the behavioral responses of the copepods (Acartia spp.) to increase their speed few milliseconds after vibration stimuli. These responses to noise have raised questions about the effect of anthropogenic activities (e.g., seismic airguns, boat noise) on zooplankton (Utne-Palm et al., 2022) knowing the important impacts found in vertebrates (McCauley et al., 2003; Fewtrell & McCauley, 2012). In in situ experiments, McCauley et al. (2017) observed increased of mortality of various zooplankton crustaceans, such as small copepods, cladocerans, and krill larvae exposed to a seismic survey at 156 dB re 1 µPa SEL. They hypothesized that this mortality, observed the day after noise exposure, resulted from damage to their mechanoreceptors. This explanation may be limited for a one-day mortality; however, it suggests that an acute exposure to airgun noise could have long-term effects. Nevertheless, Fields et al. (2019) showed a more limited effect of the airgun with a small increase in copepods' mortality, and no effect on their behavior; these contrary results may be explained by the size of the plankton species differing between the two studies (Solé, Kaifu, et al., 2023). This explanation is supported by Vereide et al. (2023) that observed increase of mortality of the small copepods A. tonsa, also due to airgun exposure. Non-lethal effects on copepods were also reported. Fields et al.'s study (2019) suggests altered gene expression without knowing the effects of these genes on the organisms. Feeding behavior of A. tonsa were altered with a reduction of their filtration rate during 24h-exposure to boat noise (Kühn et al., 2023). Finally, the only chronic noise exposure, on copepods (A. tonsa), leads to

physiological impacts with altered ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species) activities (Tremblay et al., 2019).

#### 2.2. Responses from freshwater species

Freshwaters are also threatened by the omnipresence of shipping activities that overlap with prominent frequencies used by aquatic animals (Mickle & Higgs, 2018). Research on the behavior and predation of targeted zooplankton species important to fishery resource in the food web process is emerging but remains limited. For instance, Sabet et al. (2019) tested the shortterm effects of motorboat noise on the mobility of the cladocera (Crustacean) Daphnia magna and found no change in their swimming behavior, as in a previous study with regular and intermittent noise (Sabet et al., 2015). This result also confirmed in as study with another Daphnia species, where the effect of motorboat noise did not affect the mobility of Daphnia pulex exposed for the first time (Rojas et al., 2023). These boat noises also not affect survival or fecundity of *D. magna* chronically exposed (Prosnier et al., in press). Whereas, a chronic exposition to broadband noise leads both to a reduction of their velocity and an increase of their survival and their fecundity (Prosnier, Rojas, et al., 2022). Two studies enlarged boat noise effect at the community scale. They highlighted that the effects of noise on zooplanktonic community - affecting Bosminidae and Daphniidae proportions - could be more important in the absence of fish predator than in their presence (Rojas et al., 2022, in press), highlighting that aquatic communities could be affected by noise through others ways than by vertebrates. Therefore, motorboat noise which is the least intense but of longer duration than airgun noise, may affect zooplanktonic arthropods but appears to have contrasting behavioral effects among species, making it difficult to generalize effects.

#### 2.3. Future perspectives

All these recent studies highlight that many interesting questions are beginning to be explored. I distinguished five axes in which it seems important to continue (Fig. 1); the four firsts are on isolated individuals (or almost) These five axes seem currently distinguished because paper generally focus on one aspect, and methodology could be greatly different between them. (1) The need to identify which sounds are able of affecting organisms. Until now, a wide variety of noise have been investigated, some more realistic (airgun, boat), others more artificial (broadband). A better understanding would allow standardization and lead to comparison between studies. (2) There is a need to assess how the stress induced by noise affects directly individual metabolism, i.e., genes expression, energetical cost, alteration in development. (3) The effect of noise on population through fitness measurement such as



**Figure 1.** Summary of the main objectives, i.e., the five axes I have distinguished, to study noise effects on zooplankton. See table 1 for the detailed literature following the lower part of this figure.

survival and fecundity rate. It mainly results from the previous axis (energetical cost of stress could reduce survival), and could also be affected by the next axis through indirect effects. (4) The effect of noise on behavior, obviously linked with previous axes (energy requirement could affect behavior, and behavior could affect fecundity). In this axis, I include predator-prey relationship, because behavior is generally used to explain or to predict the ability to prey and the vulnerability to predation. Finally, (5) the effect of noise at the community level, that is the repercussion of alteration of individual's survival, fecundity, and behavior. Most research on the effect of noise on zooplankton focuses on the first four axes, while the last is the aim explained by the other to answer to the crucial question: How anthropogenic noise affect aquatic food webs? Moreover, some transversal aspects need to be considered as the different effects due to acute and chronic exposition, and the short-term and long-term effects. The long-term effect during chronic exposition raises the question of their ability to habituate to noise, and thus the importance of noise predictability. To answer it, much previous work in other related fields, such as fundamental ecology, ecotoxicology or parasitology provides a wealth of methodological knowledge.

**Table 1:** Relevant studies on noise impacts on marine and freshwater zooplankton species. Significant effects are in bold. The figures in the first column illustrate that there are mainly two taxa: copepods in marine studies and cladocerans in freshwater studies.

				Neurology	Physiology		Fitness		Behavior		Community
	Study	Sound (source) (dB <sup>1</sup> )	Duration	Noise perception	Genetic	ROS, Composition	Development	Survival, Fecundity	Mobility	Predation, Feeding	Composition, dynamic
Marine	(Gassie et al., 1993)	Acute	Short-term (direct)	Neuronal activity							
	(Buskey et al., 2002)	Acute	Short-term (direct)	Speed Direction							
	(McCauley et al., 2017)	Acute (airgun) (156 SEL)	Short-term (1 day)					Survival			
	(Fields et al., 2019)	Acute (airgun) (183-221 SEL)	Short-term (1 day) Long-term (7 days)		Genetic expression			Survival	Speed Escape		
	(Tremblay et al., 2019)	Chronic (motor noise)	?			O <sub>2</sub> consumption <b>ROS activity</b>				Ingestion rate	
	(Vereide et al., 2023)	Acute (airgun) (166-180 SEL)	Long-term (6 days)				Size Stage	Survival (immediate and delayed)			
	(Kühn et al., 2023)	Chronic (boat noise) (174 SEL)	Short-term (2-4 days)							Ingestion rate Clearance rate Handling time	
Freshwater	(Sabet et al., 2015)	Acute (regular and intermittent) (122 RMS)	Short-term (direct)						Speed Depth		
	(Sabet et al., 2019)	Acute (boat noise)	Short-term (direct)						Speed Hops Depth		
	(Prosnier et al., in press)	Chronic (boat noise) (103-150 RMS)	Long-term (+30 days)					Survival Fecundity			
	(Prosnier, Rojas, et al., 2022)	Chronic (broadband noise) (128 RMS)	Long-term (+30 days)				Size	Survival Fecundity	Speed		
	(Rojas et al., 2022)	Chronic (boat noise) (100-122 RMS)	Long-term (44 days)								Composition
	(Rojas et al., 2023)	Acute (boat noise) (100-122 RMS)	Short-term (direct)						Speed		
	(Rojas et al., in press)	Chronic (boat noise) (105-110 RMS)	Long-term (42 days)								Composition

 $1. \qquad \text{SEL: Sound-Exposure Level in dB Re 1} \mu \text{Pa}^2, \text{RMS: Root-Mean-Square in dB Re 1} \mu \text{Pa}$ 

# 3. Zooplankton: overview of existing methodologies

## 3.1. Noise detection

Before asking how organisms are affected by noise, it seems important to understand how they could detect the noise. Because zooplankton species have not developed a hearing system, they use only external mechanoreceptors; they are not able to detect the pressure level (i.e., the classical measure in dB), but the particle motion (i.e., the tidal velocity in m/s) (Nedelec et al., 2016; Rogers et al., 2021). So, it is now recognized that measuring the particle motion is mandatory to understand zooplankton reactions to noise (André et al., 2016; Popper & Hawkins, 2018). Considering this information, electrophysiological experiments as previously done (Gassie et al., 1993) would be interesting. Other methods, such as the behavioral one, offer, with a lower precision, information on which sounds are detectable by organisms (Buskey et al., 2002). But the lack of response could be explained by damages to mechanoreceptors due to high noise, as it was observed on two species of Mediterranean Scyphozoan medusa (Solé et al., 2016) and the sea lice Lepeophtheirus salmonis, a parasitic copepod (Solé, Lenoir, Fortuño, et al., 2021), and visually detectable with microscopy. These methods could allow us to know noise thresholds (both in terms of intensity, frequency, and particle motion) for detection and damages. Like ecotoxicological methods, Tyack & Thomas (2019) proposed a dose-response method, allowing to link intensity of noise and its impacts. In complementarity, measure of particle motions of various marine noises (airgun, shipping) is mandatory to predict which real noise could affect zooplankton communities, and to perform realistic experiments (in field or in laboratory). Moreover, a supplementary point should be considered: because mechanoreceptors and chemoreceptors are closely related in their position, in their structure and, maybe, in their genes (Hartline et al., 1997), noise could be "detected" by zooplankton through their chemoreceptors. Studies on crabs showed no effect on their ability to find food with their

chemoreceptors during boat noise or sweep exposure (Hubert et al., 2021; Solé, De Vreese, et al., 2023) but it is not yet tested on zooplankton species.

#### 3.2. Metabolism measurements

Many physiological markers of stress can be measured on zooplankton, from the individual to the natural community, as has been done for fish with cortisol measurements (Nichols et al., 2015; de Jong et al., 2020). Several methods have been developed in ecotoxicology (Handy & Depledge, 1999) especially for copepods which now seem to be popular biological models (Raisuddin et al., 2007; Dahms et al., 2016), as water fleas are for freshwater system (Bownik, 2020; Ebert, 2022). For instance, for both short- and long-term experiments, it possible to measure reactive oxygen species (ROS) that involve cellular damage, the organisms' composition, such as protein or carbon content, and the gene expression, providing information regarding the basis of the chain reaction (Dahms et al., 2016). Lee et al. (2019) used various ROS measurements (Glutathione, GST, Glutathione Reductase, GR, Glutathione Peroxidase, GPx, Superoxyde Dismutase, SOD) to determine how ocean acidification affected T. japonicus with higher concentration of the stress markers, and Tremblay et al. (2019) observed similar effects for a chronic noise exposition of the copepods Acartia tonsa. Won et al. (2014) measured fatty acid concentration in copepods (Paracyclopina nana) following UV exposure, whereas (Prosnier, Loeuille, et al., 2022) measured the quantity of carbohydrates, lipids and protein of D. magna infected by an iridovirus; and Forshay et al. (2008) measured the carbon to nitrogen ratio of D. pulicaria infected by a chytridiomycete. The results of these studies show methodologies that can be used in the field of zooplankton bioacoustics, but highlight the constraint to pool the small individuals, leading to a loss of individual variability. In fact, Fields et al. (2019) showed a higher expression of two genes of unknown effects on the copepod Calanus finmarchicus exposed to airgun noise, showing that the issue needs to be studied as there may be underlying effects. Measurements of physiological markers would be a good tool

to obtain information on the ability of zooplankton to habituate to noise, i.e., whether they return to a basal level after a certain time of exposition. These physiological alterations could directly result from the noise stress, as acidification directly affect ROS (Lee et al., 2019), or be a byproduct of behavior modifications, as the modification of their mobility (Prosnier, Rojas, et al., 2022) or their feeding rate (Kühn et al., 2023) could affect their energy budget.

#### 3.3. Fitness: survival and reproduction measurements

Due to the physiological stress or behavioral changes, anthropogenic noise can directly affect zooplankton species. These most visible effects, which have obvious implication for zooplankton populations and communities, are the effects on fitness, i.e., the reproductive success through effects on survival and fecundity. One of the great interest of zooplankton species is the possibility to obtain a lot of information on isolated individuals or population, and in *in situ* (realistic) or laboratory (controlled) conditions. Zooplankton allows to easily observe effects on eggs, juveniles/larvae, and adult survival, fecundity, and development of each stage (Dahms et al., 2016). For instance, McCauley et al. (2017) and Vereide et al. (2023) assessed instantaneous and delay mortality on marine zooplankton, and Prosnier, Rojas, et al. (2022, in prep.) for both mortality and fecundity on the freshwater water fleas *Daphnia magna*. Reduced development is also being developed with the use of size or stage duration for copepods exposed to airgun noise (Vereide et al., 2023).

#### 3.4. Behavior and predation measurements

Behavior is certainly one of the main studied aspects of the impact of anthropogenic noise, as noise should affects communication and perception of the environment of vertebrates. Zooplankton responses to noise have been studied primarily in fish predation experiments, to test whether noise altered their behavior (anti-predator defense, swimming distance, detectability) and thereby their vulnerability (Sabet et al., 2015; Rojas et al., 2021, 2023; see also Fernandez Declerck et al., 2022 for a small zoobenthic prey). Nevertheless, many other behavioral measurements were done to test if and how a pollutant could affect a zooplanktonic organism. Bownik (2017) proposed to measure swimming speed (see also, in noise experiments, Sabet et al., 2019; Prosnier, Rojas, et al., 2022; Rojas et al., 2023), swimming time, hopping frequency (used for water fleas, but also usable for copepods, Elmi et al. (2021), vertical distribution (important for diel migration, tested myself for D. magna exposed to noise, unpublished data), swimming trajectory, and sinking rate. Note that there is some morphological and behavioral difference between sex that need to be taken into account (Holm et al., 2018), and thus male and female could react differently to anthropogenic noise. In case of population studies, it is also possible to measure their spatial distribution and their individual distance, thus for zooplankton the swarming behavior (Buskey et al., 1996). Linked to their vulnerability to predation, a recent study show a new behavior of zooplanktonic arthropods: they produce sounds, likely hearable by their predators (Kühn et al., 2022). In a context of anthropogenic noise, it raises two questions: is noise could mask these sounds, or are organisms able to modify their sound emission in reaction to environmental noise - because the two effects are known in marine mammals and fish (Putland et al., 2018) –, leading to higher or lower detection by their predator.

Many of these behaviors should affect the encounter rate of prey and predator, thus the predation rate (Gerritsen & Strickler, 1977). More, noise can also affect perception of the environment (prey and predator detection through masking effect) and physiology (energy needs) that are also involved in predation. On this aspect, it is mandatory to consider zooplanktonic organisms as prey and as predators. For instance, the study of noise effect on fish predation (Sabet et al., 2015; Rojas et al., 2023) leading to control if noise affect the swimming activity of their zooplanktonic prey. As a consumer, zooplankton could be herbivore or filterer, as cladoceran or small copepods, or active predator, as the larger species. About filterer, Kühn

et al. (2023) studied effects of boat noise on clearance and ingestion rate of *A. tonsa*, and Hong et al. (2012), in an ecotoxicology study, measured feeding appendage beating of the same species. The classical functional response experiments (Holling, 1959a; b) used during the previously cited fish experiments, could be used both for filterers (Porter et al., 1982) and active predators (Krylov, 1988), as it was done for larvae of the damselfly *Ischnura elegans* exposed to boat noise, and showing an increase of its handling time (Villalobos-Jiménez et al., 2017). Note that these behavioral measurements are useful to explain results when the focal species is a prey or a predator; for instance, the body rotation of the insect *Chaoborus* larvae could explain its vulnerability to predation by fish (Rojas et al., 2021, 2023) or its predation rate on cladorecans (Rojas et al., in press).

## 4. From individual to community

## 4.1. Experimental approaches

Modification of key ecological process, such as metabolism, reproduction, survival, and predator-prey interactions through behavioral changes will directly affect the population dynamics of species and therefore that of the community. However, current research focused mainly on individual responses which is not sufficient, there is a need to assess complex communities for a global response (Kunc et al., 2016). Recent results suggest that if noise alters developmental rate, survival and/or fecundity, it may also alter competitiveness, as Decaestecker et al. (2015) demonstrated in the case of water fleas infection by a pool of parasite. Therefore, it possible to assume that effects on zooplankton could induce top-down effect, through cascading effects, and bottom-up effects (Sommer et al., 2001; Banerji et al., 2015; Wollrab & Diehl, 2015). Mesocosms studies have highlighted how the change in biological (community response) and spatial (from microcosm to mesocosm) scales affects the dynamics. They have shown that responses are more complex than expected when community complexity is increased (Gérard Lacroix, pers. comm. with freshwater experiments). The two studies

conducted in mesocosm on the effect of noise on a freshwater three-level trophic cascade (fish/insect – zooplankton - phytoplankton) demonstrated that the composition of zooplankton community changes under the presence of motorboat noise (Rojas et al., 2022). In marine systems, the assessment of other stressors, such as acidification, has highlighted the utility of plankton communities' studies (Spisla et al., 2021). These complex community studies provided indirect effects on organisms that may be less impacted by noise, such as phytoplankton – but one study showed that the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica*, an aquatic plant, could be affected by noise (Solé, Lenoir, Durfort, et al., 2021) asking possible effect on phytoplankton. Moreover, the stable isotopes are a good tool to assess long-term effect on community (Boisnoir et al., 2020), which targets dietary shifts over time.

#### 4.2. Theoretical approaches

To date, only experimental approaches have been conducted to understand how noise affects organisms and communities. One exception is the work of Roca (2018), who modelled predatorprey relationships as a function of ambient noise intensity. Models are useful tools for studying the effects of pollutants (Lamonica et al., 2022) from simple systems (e.g., predator-prey interactions, see Prosnier et al., 2015) to complex food webs (Clements & Rohr, 2009). Theoretical studies provide a better understanding of the mechanisms by which noise affects community structure and stability (Wollrab & Diehl, 2015). For example, Hulot et al. (2000) used models to understand the importance of bottom-up and top-down effects in freshwater mesocosms. Similarly, in an infected tri-trophic system, Banerji et al. (2015) showed, with a model, that trophic alterations were driven by host mortality than by alterations in predator behaviors. In addition, a combination of noise propagation models (Barber et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2019; Guibard et al., 2022) and food web models could be useful for developing spatially structured models.

# 5. Discussion

Over the past decade, there has been increasing interest in how anthropogenic noise affect ecosystems, particularly marine mammals and fish species. The current perspective highlights the few studies on zooplankton response in marine and freshwater systems, examining all aspects from individuals to communities. There are still huge gaps in knowledge that could be filled by methodologies developed in ecology, ecotoxicology and parasitology studies. Three important areas should be investigated: (1) determining what noise (spectrum, temporality) might affect zooplankton diversity, (2) using few model organisms to understand whether noise impacts physiology, fitness and behavior to a greater or lesser extent, then enlarge model number of models to assess whether generalizations are possible, and (3) understanding, through experiments and models, how noise affects structure and stability of zooplankton communities. Consequently, zooplankton species seem good models to study many effects of noise from physiology to community, from short term to long term, including multigenerational experiments allowing evolution (Ebert, 2022). A difficulty could be in the experimental design, to obtain a correct noise exposition, particularly about the noise spectrum that is greatly affected by the setup an necessitate correction (e.g., Prosnier et al., in press). Olivier et al. (2023) designed a larvosonic system to study the effects of noise on larvae; but this system should be also useful for all zooplanktonic studies.

It is also important to consider that this perspective paper focus on holozooplanktonic species (primarily arthropods), although many other groups are, in part of their cycle life, constituents of zooplankton. These organisms can also be affected by noise when they are zooplanktonic in the larval stages (Simpson et al., 2011; Aguilar de Soto et al., 2013; Nedelec et al., 2015), or more rarely during their adult stage (cnidarian, Solé et al., 2016). Moreover they could be affected during their other stages, when they are nekton (fish, Nichols et al., 2015), benthic (crabs, Wale et al., 2013), fixed (mussels, Hubert et al., 2022) or parasitic (parasitic copepods,

Solé, Lenoir, Fortuño, et al., 2021). Therefore, due to the diversity of zooplankton communities and their ecological roles, the methods presented must be developed for all of these organisms. This broader perspective is essential for understanding how anthropogenic noise affects aquatic communities.

#### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

#### **Author contributions**

LP thought and wrote this perspective article, and approved the submitted version.

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